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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Proceedings

Addresses and Proceedings

OF THE

FIFTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD AT

NEW YORK CITY

JULY 1-8
1916

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Addresses and Proceedings

FIFTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING

NEW YORK CITY

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1916

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

1857-1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

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

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

1870-1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

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

1907-

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

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

ACT OF INCORPORATION

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

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

SECTION 1. That the following named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz.: Nathan C. Schaeffer, *Eliphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, George B. Cook, of Arkansas; Joseph O'Connor, *Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; Aaron Gove, *Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; *George W. Twitmyer of Delaware; *J. Ormond Wilson, *William T. Harris, Alexander T. Stuart, of the District

*Deceased.

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

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

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

* Deceased.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or the payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obli-

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

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

Approved June 30, 1906.

Accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

BY-LAWS

(Amended at meeting of active members held in New York City, July 7, 1916)

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. Teachers, others actively engaged in educational work, and educational institutions as defined in Section 2, may become active members of the National Education Association of the United States upon the payment of an enrolment fee of two dollars and the annual dues for the current year.

SEC. 2. Educational institutions shall include schools, school boards, library boards, educational publishers, and such clubs and similar organizations as are distinctly educational or have educational departments properly organized with a definite membership.

SEC. 3. Educational institutions as defined in Section 2 may be enrolled as active members and represented by any person regularly connected with or a member of the institution, and such representative may exercise all the rights and enjoy all the privileges of active membership, including the right to vote at business meetings; *provided*, That such representative presents a certificate showing that the person named therein has been regularly elected as such representative of the faculty or membership of such institution; but no person shall under any circumstances have the right to cast more than one vote.

SEC. 4. The annual dues of active members are two dollars, which shall be paid at the time of the annual meeting of the Association, or shall be sent to the Secretary before November 1 of each year. An active member may discontinue his membership by giving written notice to the Secretary before November 1. An active member forfeits his membership by being two years in arrears. Those who have forfeited or discontinued their membership may exercise the option of renewing the same by paying all arrears and getting the published *Proceedings* of the intervening years, or of becoming members on the same terms as new members. Active members shall be entitled to the published *Proceedings* without coupon or other conditions.

SEC. 5. All life members and life directors shall be denominated active members, and shall have all the rights and privileges of such members without the payment of the annual dues.

SEC. 6. The right to vote and to hold office in the Association or the departments is open to all active members whose dues are paid; the right to vote and hold office in the Council is open to members of the Council whose dues are paid.

SEC. 7. Any person may become an associate member for one year by paying a membership fee of two dollars.

SEC. 8. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected, by the Board of Directors, corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall at no time exceed fifty. They shall not pay any dues.

SEC. 9. The names of active and corresponding members shall be printed in the published *Proceedings*, or the *Yearbook* of the Association, with their respective educational titles, offices, and addresses.

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer, and Directors of the National Education Association of the United States shall be chosen by the active members of the Association by ballot, at their annual business meeting, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the terms for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon the chief executive of such an association. In his absence, the ranking Vice-President who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents a chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association, and, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall determine the time and place of the general meeting of the Association and of the various departments not definitely fixed by these by-laws, and shall have the power to require such changes to be made in the programs of the Council and the departments as will promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and chairman of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee between the meetings of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become first Vice-President for the ensuing year, and shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Committee on Publication.

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the articles of incorporation and the by-laws, and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and, in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President, and shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer, shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors or by the Executive Committee in the interval between the meetings of the Board of Directors or on the approval of the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors, or Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the active members of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members as required by Section 9 of Article I of these by-laws and shall revise said list annually. He shall be secretary of the Board of Directors, and a member of the Committee on Publication. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report

to the Executive Committee not later than July 1 prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish, or distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the publication committee.

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

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed by Section 8 of Article I of these by-laws, shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these by-laws, shall have power to fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees; shall recommend to the Executive Committee the place for holding the annual meeting of the Association, the Council of Education, and the departments. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred under authority of the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, or the President and Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or Executive Committee, shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the active members at their annual business meeting for the work of all special committees of investigation and research authorized and provided for by such active members at their annual business meeting, shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association (including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees) to the active members at their annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

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

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

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

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

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

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

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

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No state, territory, or district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

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

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

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

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

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

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1914) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Vocational Education and Practical Arts; sixth of Kindergarten Education; seventh, of Music Education; eighth, of

Secondary Education; ninth, of Business Education; tenth, of Child Hygiene; eleventh, of Physical Education; twelfth, of Science Instruction; thirteenth, of School Administration; fourteenth, the Library Department; fifteenth, of Special Education; sixteenth, of School Patrons; seventeenth, of Rural and Agricultural Education; eighteenth, of Classroom Teachers; nineteenth, for the Promotion of the Wider Use of Schoolhouses; twentieth, of Educational Publications.

SEC. 2. The active members of the Association, and no others, are members of each department of the Association.

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

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

SEC. 5. The officers of each department shall consist of a president, a vice-president, and a secretary, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected, and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of president of any of the departments, it shall be filled by an appointment made by the President of the Association. Any other departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the president of the department.

SEC. 6. The secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the department for publication.

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

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

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. On the first day of each annual meeting of the Association, unless appointment has already been made, the President shall appoint a Committee on Resolutions, consisting of seven active members, and a Committee on Necrology,

consisting of five active members. and on the third day of such meeting he shall appoint a Committee on Nominations, consisting of one active member from each state, territory, and district represented at the meeting. Each state, territorial, and district representative shall be appointed on the nomination of the active members in attendance from said state, territory, or district; *provided*, That three or more active members participate in said nomination in accordance with these by-laws; and *provided further*, That in case of the failure of the active members of any state, territory, or district to nominate a member of the nominating committee in accordance with these by-laws, the President shall appoint an active member from said state, territory, or district, to serve on said committee. At the regular meeting of the Board of Directors on the first day of the annual meeting, the President shall appoint an Auditing Committee consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a trustee or a director; to this committee shall be referred the report of the expert accountant, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same, as provided in Section 6 of this article; and the committee shall report its findings at the meeting of active members. The chairman of each of the foregoing committees shall be designated by the President of the Association at the time of its appointment.

SEC. 2. The meetings of active members present from the several states, territories, etc., to nominate members of the nominating committee shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and places as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association.

SEC. 3. The Committee on Nominations shall meet on the fourth day of the annual meeting at 9:00 A.M., at a place designated by the President of the Association, and shall nominate persons for the following offices in the Association, to wit: one person for President, eleven persons for Vice-Presidents, one person for Treasurer, and one person from each state, territory, and district in the United States as a member of the Board of Directors. It shall report to the active members at their annual business meeting.

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

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

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

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION I. A stated meeting of the Association, of the Council of Education, and of each department shall be held annually at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee acting for the board in accordance with these by-laws. An annual meeting of the Association and its subordinate bodies

may be omitted for an extraordinary cause, upon the written consent of two-thirds of the directors of the Association, obtained by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 2. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held in July, beginning on a day determined by the Executive Committee. Two sessions shall be held daily, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association. The annual business meeting of the active members shall be held on the fifth day of the annual meeting at 11:00 A.M. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held on the first day of the annual meeting at 10:30 A.M. The first regular meeting of the new Board of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-four hours after the close of the last session of the annual meeting, the place and time of the meeting to be announced in the printed program. The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately following the meeting of the new Board of Directors referred to above in this section. Special meetings of the trustees may be called by the chairman, and shall be called on request of the majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the board by the secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the meeting of the Association, the Council, and the departments shall be published under the direction of a committee consisting of the President, the First Vice-President, and the Secretary, the First Vice-President acting as chairman of the committee; *provided*, That in the opinion of the Executive Committee the funds of the Association warrant the publication. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of the *Proceedings*. Associate members must make written application to the Secretary on or before November 1 for a copy in order to obtain it. Corresponding members, and active members whose dues are paid, will receive the published *Proceedings* without written application.

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

ARTICLE IX—ELECTIONS, QUORUM

SECTION 1. The certificate of membership, in connection with the official list of active members, shall be accepted as evidence that members are entitled to vote.

SEC. 2. Representatives from twenty-five states and territories shall constitute a quorum in all meetings of active members and of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE X—APPROPRIATIONS

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

ARTICLE XI—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These by-laws may be altered or amended at the annual business meeting of the active members by unanimous consent, or by a two-thirds vote of the active members present if the alteration or amendment shall have been substantially proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken; due announcement of the proposed action shall be made in the annual published *Proceedings*.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

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

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

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

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

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

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

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

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

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

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

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

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

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

- NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION,
1857-1870
- 1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
- 1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO
Z. RICHARDS, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.
- 1859—WASHINGTON, D.C.
A. J. RICKOFF, President.
J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary.
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.
- 1860—BUFFALO, N.Y.
J. W. BULKLEY, President.
Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1861, 1862—No session.
- 1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1864—OGDENSBURG, N.Y.
W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. GREENE, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.
- 1867—No session.
- 1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Treasurer.
- 1869—TRENTON, N.J.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.
- 1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.
- NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,
1871-1907
- 1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1873—ELMIRA, N.Y.
B. G. NORTROP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. HARRIS, President.
M. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. NEWELL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1878—No session.
- 1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1880—CHAUTAUQUA, N.Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1881—ATLANTA, GA.
JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
H. S. TARRELL, Treasurer.
- 1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1884—MADISON, WIS.
THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
H. S. TARRELL, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. SHELDON, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.

- NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1907—Continued
- 1888—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
AARON GOVE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
ALBERT P. MARBLE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1890—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. CANFIELD, President.
W. R. GARRETT, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1891—TORONTO, ONT.
W. R. GARRETT, President.
E. H. COOK, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1892—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.
E. H. COOK, President.
R. W. STEVENSON, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1893—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education)
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1894—ASBURY PARK, N.J.
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1895—DENVER, COLO.
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1896—BUFFALO, N.Y.
NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1897—MILWAUKEE, WIS.
CHARLES R. SKINNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1898—WASHINGTON, D.C.
J. M. GREENWOOD, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1899—LOS ANGELES, CAL.
E. ORAM LYTE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.
- 1900—CHARLESTON, S.C.
OSCAR T. CORSON, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, Treasurer.
- 1901—DETROIT, MICH.
JAMES M. GREEN, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
L. C. GREENLEE, Treasurer.
- 1902—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
WILLIAM M. BEARDSHEAR, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CHARLES H. KEYES, Treasurer.
- 1903—BOSTON, MASS.
CHARLES W. ELIOT, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
W. M. DAVIDSON, Treasurer.
- 1904—ST. LOUIS, MO.
JOHN W. COOK, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
MCHENRY RHOADS, Treasurer.
- 1905—ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N.J.
WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
JAMES W. CRABTREE, Treasurer.
- 1906—No session.
- 1907—LOS ANGELES, CAL.
NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. N. WILKINSON, Treasurer.
- NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES
- 1908—CLEVELAND, OHIO
EDWIN G. COOLEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treasurer.
- 1909—DENVER, COLO.
LORENZO D. HARVEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treasurer.
- 1910—BOSTON, MASS.
JAMES Y. JOYNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treasurer.
- 1911—SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.
ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Treasurer.
- 1912—CHICAGO, ILL.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
KATHERINE D. BLAKE, Treasurer.
- 1913—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH
EDWARD T. FAIRCHILD, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.
- 1914—ST. PAUL, MINN.
JOSEPH SWAIN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.
- 1915—OAKLAND, CAL.
(International Congress on Education)
DAVID STARR JORDAN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.
- 1916—NEW YORK CITY
DAVID B. JOHNSON, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

OFFICERS FOR 1915-16

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

DAVID B. JOHNSON	<i>President</i>	Rock Hill, S.C.
DURAND W. SPRINGER	<i>Secretary</i>	Ann Arbor, Mich.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD	<i>Treasurer</i>	Boise, Idaho

VICE-PRESIDENTS

DAVID STARR JORDAN, Chancellor, Leland Stanford Junior University	Stanford University, Cal.
MRS. JAMES M. GREENWOOD	Kansas City, Mo.
MARY C. C. BRADFORD, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Denver, Colo.
JOHN D. LOPER, Superintendent of Schools	Phoenix, Ariz.
JOHN E. BRAY, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Carson City, Nev.
JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Olympia, Wash.
WALTER R. SIDERS, Superintendent of Schools	Pocatello, Idaho
W. N. SHEATS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Tallahassee, Fla.
MASON S. STONE, State Superintendent of Education	Montpelier, Vt.
J. GEORGE BECHT, Executive Secretary, State Board of Education	Harrisburg, Pa.
FRANK L. CRONE, Director, Bureau of Education, Department of Public Instruction	Manila P. I.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES

CARROLL G. PEARSE, <i>Chairman</i>	Milwaukee, Wis.	Term expires in 1918
JAMES Y. JOYNER, <i>Secretary</i>	Raleigh, N.C.	Term expires in 1916
AGNES E. DOHERTY	St. Paul, Minn.	Term expires in 1917
ROBERT J. ALEY	Orono, Me.	Term expires in 1919
DAVID B. JOHNSON	Rock Hill, S.C.	<i>Ex officio</i>

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

DAVID B. JOHNSON	<i>President</i>	Rock Hill, S.C.
DAVID STARR JORDAN	<i>First Vice-President</i>	Stanford University, Cal.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD	<i>Treasurer</i>	Boise, Idaho
CARROLL G. PEARSE	<i>Chairman Board of Trustees</i>	Milwaukee, Wis.
GEORGE B. COOK	<i>Member by Election</i>	Little Rock, Ark.
DURAND W. SPRINGER	<i>Secretary</i>	Ann Arbor, Mich.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Directors ex officio

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DAVID STARR JORDAN, Stanford University, Cal.	CARROLL G. PEARSE, Milwaukee, Wis.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Ann Arbor, Mich.	

Life Directors

BICKNELL, THOMAS W., Providence, R.I.	CORSON, OSCAR T., Columbus, Ohio
BOARD OF EDUCATION, Nashville, Tenn.	ELIOT, CHARLES W., Cambridge, Mass.
BROWN, ELMER ELLSWORTH, New York, N.Y.	FAIRCHILD, E. T., Durham, N.H.
BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY, New York, N.Y.	GOVE, AARON, Denver, Colo.
CLAXTON, P. P., Washington, D.C.	GRAHAM, H. A., Mount Pleasant, Mich.
COOK, JOHN W., DeKalb, Ill.	GREEN, JAMES M., Trenton, N.J.
COOLEY, EDWIN G., Chicago, Ill.	HARVEY, LORENZO D., Menominee, Wis.

JEWETT, A. V., Abilene, Kans.	SKINNER, CHARLES R., Watertown, N.Y.
JORDAN, DAVID STARR, Stanford University, Cal.	STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION OF ILLINOIS
JOYNER, JAMES Y., Raleigh, N.C.	SWAIN, JOSEPH, Swarthmore, Pa.
MARSHALL, T. MARCELLUS, Stouts Mills, W.Va.	TAYLOR, A. R., Decatur, Ill.
MAXWELL, WILLIAM H., New York, N.Y.	TEACHERS INSTITUTE, Philadelphia, Pa.
PARKER, CHARLES I., Chicago, Ill.	WHITE, CHARLES G., Menominee, Wis.
PEARSE, CARROLL G., Milwaukee, Wis.	YOUNG, ELLA FLAGG, Chicago, Ill.
SCHAEFFER, NATHAN C., Harrisburg, Pa.	

Directors by Election

Alabama.....	W. F. FEAGIN, State Superintendent of Education.....	Montgomery
Arizona.....	C. O. CASE, State Superintendent of Public Instruction....	Phoenix
Arkansas.....	GEORGE B. COOK, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Little Rock
California.....	SUSAN M. DORSEY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools....	Los Angeles
Colorado.....	ANNA L. FORCEY, Principal, Lincoln School.....	Denver
Connecticut.....	FRED. A. VERLANCK, Superintendent of Schools.....	South Manchester
Delaware.....	A. HENRY BERLIN, Principal of High School.....	Wilmington
District of Columbia..	E. L. TEURSTON, Superintendent of Schools.....	Washington
Florida.....	GEORGE M. LYNCH, State Supervisor of Rural Schools.....	Gainesville
Georgia.....	M. L. BRITTAIN, State Superintendent of Education.....	Atlanta
Idaho.....	W. R. SIDERS, Superintendent of Schools.....	Pocatello
Illinois.....	R. O. STOOFS, Superintendent of Schools.....	Joliet
Indiana.....	MILO H. STUART, Principal, Manual Training High School.	Indianapolis
Iowa.....	L. H. MINKEL, Superintendent of Schools.....	Fort Dodge
Kansas.....	JOHN F. EBY, County Superintendent of Schools.....	Topeka
Kentucky.....	J. G. CRABBE, President, State Normal School.....	Richmond
Louisiana.....	THOMAS H. HARRIS, State Superintendent of Education....	Baton Rouge
Maine.....	ROBERT J. ALEY, President, University of Maine.....	Orono
Maryland.....	CHARLES J. KOCH, Superintendent of Schools.....	Baltimore
Massachusetts.....	ROBERT J. FULLER, Superintendent of Schools.....	North Attleboro
Michigan.....	FRED L. KEELER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Lansing
Minnesota.....	AGNES E. DOHERTY, Teacher, Central High School.....	St. Pau
Mississippi.....	E. E. BASS, Superintendent of Schools.....	Greenville
Missouri.....	HOWARD A. GASS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Jefferson City
Montana.....	W. K. DWYER, Superintendent of Schools.....	Anaconda
Nebraska.....	F. M. HUNTER, Superintendent of Schools.....	Lincoln
Nevada.....	B. D. BILLINGHURST, Superintendent of Schools.....	Reno
New Hampshire.....	HENRY C. MORRISON, State Superintendent of Public In- struction.....	Concord
New Jersey.....	JOHN W. CARR, Superintendent of Schools.....	Bayonne
New Mexico.....	ALVAN N. WHITE, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Santa Fe
New York.....	JOHN H. FINLEY, State Commissioner of Education.....	Albany
North Carolina.....	F. M. HARPER, Superintendent of Schools.....	Raleigh
North Dakota.....	CHARLES C. ROOT, Superintendent of Schools.....	Bismarck
Ohio.....	JACOB A. SHAWAN, Superintendent of Schools.....	Columbus
Oklahoma.....	EDWIN S. MONROE, Superintendent of Schools.....	Muskogee
Oregon.....	J. A. CHURCHILL, State Superintendent of Public Instruction	Salem
Pennsylvania.....	REED B. TEITRICK, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	Harrisburg
Rhode Island.....	WALTER E. RANGER, State Commissioner of Public Schools.	Providence
South Carolina.....	J. E. WALMSLEY, Professor of History and Political Science, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College.....	Rock Hill
South Dakota.....	M. M. RAMER, Editor, <i>The Associate Teacher</i>	Pierre
Tennessee.....	BRUCE R. PAYNE, President, George Peabody College for Teachers.....	Nashville
Texas.....	R. J. TIGHE, Superintendent of Schools.....	El Paso
Utah.....	D. C. JENSEN, Superintendent of Schools.....	Brigham City
Vermont.....	GUY POTTER BENTON, President, University of Vermont....	Burlington
Virginia.....	FRANCES S. WILLIAMS, President, State Primary Teachers Association.....	Lynchburg
Washington.....	ELMER L. CAVE, Superintendent of Schools.....	Bellingham
West Virginia.....	M. P. SHAWKEY, State Superintendent of Schools.....	Charleston
Wisconsin.....	NELLIE MINEHAN, Vice-Principal, Jefferson Street School..	Milwaukee
Wyoming.....	C. A. DUNIWAY, President, University of Wyoming.....	Laramie
Alaska.....	L. D. HENDERSON, Superintendent of Schools.....	Juneau

Hawaii.....	VAUGHAN MACCAUGHEY, Professor of Botany, College of Hawaii.....	Honolulu
Philippine Islands.....	FRANK L. CRONE, Director of Education.....	Manila
Porto Rico.....	RALPH S. GARWOOD, Dean, College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, University of Porto Rico.....	Mayaguez

DEPARTMENT OFFICERS

National Council

<i>President</i>	ROBERT J. ALEY, President, University of Maine.....	Orono, Me.
<i>Vice-President</i>	AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING, First Assistant Commissioner of Education.....	Albany, N.Y.
<i>Secretary</i>	WILLIAM B. OWEN, Principal, Chicago Normal College.....	Chicago, Ill.
<i>Executive Committee</i> ..	DAVID B. JOHNSON, President, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College.....	Rock Hill, S.C.
	A. J. MATTHEWS, President, Normal School of Arizona.....	Tempe, Ariz.
	ELLEN C. SABIN, President, Milwaukee-Downer College.....	Milwaukee, Wis.

Kindergarten

<i>President</i>	MARY B. FOX, Dean of Women, Chicago Kindergarten Institute.....	Chicago, Ill.
<i>Vice-President</i>	ELLA C. ELDER, Supervisor of Kindergartens.....	Buffalo, N.Y.
<i>Secretary</i>	FANNY A. SMITH, Principal, Fannie A. Smith Kindergarten Training School.....	Bridgeport, Conn.

Elementary

<i>President</i>	ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, Director of Elementary Practice Teaching, Public Schools.....	Pittsburgh, Pa.
<i>Vice-President</i>	BERTHA M. MCCONKEY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools.....	Springfield, Mass.
<i>Secretary</i>	MARIE TURNER HARVEY, Teacher, Porter Rural School, Adair Co.....	Kirkville, Mo.

Secondary

<i>President</i>	EDWARD RYNEARSON, Principal, Fifth Avenue High School	Pittsburgh, Pa.
<i>Vice-President</i>	EMMA J. BRECK, Head of English Department, The University School.....	Oakland, Cal.
<i>Secretary</i>	WALTER J. BEGGS, Teacher of Latin, Johnson High School	St. Paul, Minn.

Higher

<i>President</i>	ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY, Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University.....	Stanford University, Cal.
<i>Vice-President</i>	SIDNEY E. MEZES, President, College of the City of New York.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Secretary</i>	JOHN E. ROUSE, Head of School of Education, James Millikin University.....	Decatur, Ill.

Normal

<i>President</i>	LIVINGSTON C. LORD, President, State Normal School....	Charleston, Ill.
<i>Vice-President</i>	GEORGE H. BLACK, President, State Normal School....	Lewiston, Idaho
<i>Secretary</i>	DIMON H. ROBERTS, Superintendent of Training Department, State Normal College.....	Ypsilanti, Mich.

Superintendence

<i>President</i>	M. P. SHAWKEY, State Superintendent of Schools.....	Charleston, W.Va.
<i>First Vice-President</i> ...	LAWTON B. EVANS, Superintendent of Schools.....	Augusta, Ga.
<i>Second Vice-President</i> ..	LUCY WHELOCK, Principal, Kindergarten Training School	Boston, Mass.
<i>Secretary</i>	E. C. WARRINER, Superintendent of Schools.....	Saginaw, Mich.

Vocational Education and Practical Arts

<i>President</i>	FRANK A. PARSONS, President, New York City School of Fine and Applied Arts.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Vice-President</i>	A. H. CHAMBERLAIN, Secretary, California Council of Education.....	San Francisco, Cal.
<i>Vice-President</i>	LEONARD WILLIAM WAHLSTORM, Head of Manual Training Department, Parker School.....	Chicago, Ill.
<i>Secretary</i>	FLORENCE E. ELLIS, Art Director, American Crayon Company.....	Sandusky, Ohio

Music

<i>President</i>	FRANCES ELLEN DUTTING, Assistant Professor of Music, Hunter College.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Vice-President</i>	CHARLES H. FARNSWORTH, Associate Professor of School Music, Teachers College, Columbia University.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Secretary</i>	CONSTANCE BARLOW-SMITH, Assistant Professor of School Music, School of Music, University of Illinois.....	Urbana, Ill.

Business

<i>President</i>	J. L. HOLTSCLAW, Director, High School of Commerce...	Detroit, Mich.
<i>Vice-President</i>	L. GILBERT DAKE, Department of Commerce, Manual Training and Commercial High School.....	Oakland, Cal.
<i>Secretary</i>	CLYDE I. BLANCHARD, Instructor of Business Economy, Extension Division, University of California.....	Berkeley, Cal.

Child Hygiene

<i>President</i>	LINNAEUS N. HINES, Superintendent of Schools.....	Crawfordsville, Ind.
<i>Vice-President</i>	LEWIS M. TERMAN, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University.....	Stanford University, Cal.
<i>Secretary</i>	C. WARD CRAMPTON, Director of Physical Training, City Schools.....	New York, N.Y.

Physical

<i>President</i>	E. B. DEGROOT, Director, Department of Physical Education, Public Schools.....	San Francisco, Cal.
<i>Vice-President</i>	BARONESS ROSE POSSE, President, Posse Normal School of Gymnastics.....	Boston, Mass.
<i>Secretary</i>	MAY C. LONG, Supervisor of Physical Training, Public Schools.....	Everett, Wash.

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<i>President</i>	JAMES E. PEABODY, Head of Department of Biology, Morris High School.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Vice-President</i>	WILLIAM A. HEDRICK, Head of Department of Physics, McKinley Manual Training School.....	Washington, D.C.
<i>Secretary</i>	JOHN C. PACKARD, Head of Science Department, High School.....	Brooklyn, Mass.

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<i>President</i>	O. M. PLUMMER, Director, Board of Education.....	North Portland, Ore.
<i>Vice-President</i>	GEORGE W. AUCH, Board of Education.....	Detroit, Mich.
<i>Secretary</i>	FRANK M. BRUCE, Business Manager, American School Board Journal.....	Milwaukee, Wis.

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<i>Vice-President</i>	CASPER CARL CERTAIN, Professor of Rhetoric and Public Speaking, Alabama Polytechnic Institute.....	Auburn, Ala.
<i>Secretary</i>	GRACE D. ROSE, Librarian.....	Davenport, Iowa

Special

<i>President</i>	ELIZABETH E. FARRELL, Inspector of Ungraded Classes, Department of Education.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Vice-President</i>	LEWIS M. TERMAN, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University.....	Stanford University, Cal.
<i>Secretary</i>	FRANCES E. CHENEY, Teacher of Special Classes.....	Springfield, Mass.

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<i>President</i>	MRS. LOUIS HERTZ, Council of Jewish Women.....	San Francisco, Cal.
<i>Vice-President</i>	Mrs. PHILIP N. MOORE, Trustee, College for Women, University of the South.....	Sewanee, Tenn.
<i>Secretary</i>	MRS. E. L. BALDWIN, Chairman, California State School Patrons.....	San Francisco, Cal.

Rural and Agricultural

<i>President</i>	GEORGE A. WORKS, Professor of Rural Education, Cornell University.....	Ithaca, N.Y.
<i>Vice-President</i>	HENRY N. GODDARD, State High School Inspector, Depart- ment of Education.....	Madison, Wis.
<i>Secretary</i>	W. S. TAYLOR, Associate Professor of Agricultural Educa- tion, University of Texas.....	Austin, Tex.

Classroom Teachers

<i>President</i>	MARY E. ADKISSON, Teacher, East Denver High School..	Denver, Colo.
<i>Vice-President</i>	ISABEL A. ENNIS, President, Class Teachers Organization of Brooklyn.....	New York, N.Y.
<i>Secretary</i>	MARY V. DONOGHUE, Sixth Grade Teacher, Stewart School,	Chicago, Ill.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
FIFTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF
THE UNITED STATES

NEW YORK, N.Y., JULY 1-8, 1916

EDUCATIONAL SUNDAY

In accordance with an established custom, Sunday, July 2, was observed as Educational Sunday by a large number of the churches of New York City, on which date the respective pastors held special services, preaching sermons on educational topics, as follows:

Cathedral of St. John the Divine—Dr. Robert Johnson, Rector of the Church of the Saviour, Philadelphia, Pa., conducted services at 11:00 A.M. and at 4:00 P.M.

Marble Collegiate Church—Rev. Oliver Paul Barnhill conducted services at 11:00 A.M. and at 8:00 P.M.

Central Presbyterian Church—Seats were reserved for the members of the N.E.A. at services conducted by Rev. John McNeill, at 11:00 A.M. and at 4:30 P.M.

Broadway Presbyterian Church—Rev. Walter Duncan Buchanan conducted a service at 11:00 A.M. to which all were cordially invited.

Brick Presbyterian Church—Services were conducted by Rev. Albert Parker Fitch, President of Andover Theological Seminary.

Trinity Church—Rev. Lawrence T. Cole, Headmaster of Trinity School, New York City, conducted services.

St. Patrick's Cathedral—Solemn High Mass was celebrated at 11:00 A.M. Sermon and music.

Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church—The members were invited to attend services at the usual hours.

Temple Emanu-El—The regular service was held on Saturday, July 1, at 10:30 A.M. A vesper service was also held at 5:30 P.M. Friday.

Central Jewish Institute—A reception was tendered to the Jewish teachers in the Central Jewish Institute on Sunday, at 3:00 P.M. On Saturday, July 1, a Sabbath service was dedicated to education and an appropriate sermon given by Rabbi Herbert S. Goldstein, of the Congregation Kehilath Jeshurun, and General Director of the Central Jewish Institute.

Calvary Baptist Church—Rev. Joseph W. Kemp, Pastor, preached a special sermon in the morning, entitled "Christ, the Great Teacher."

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

OPENING SESSION—MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 2:00 O'CLOCK

The Fifty-fourth Annual Convention of the National Education Association was opened in Madison Square Garden, New York, N.Y., at 2:00 P.M. on July 3.

Vice-President David Starr Jordan, of Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal., presided at the opening of the session.

MUSICAL PROGRAM

- 1. American Overture *Tobani*
- 2. (a) "I Know a Bank"
- (b) "Where the Bee Sucks" *Arne*
- (c) "Over Hill, Over Dale" *Mendelssohn*
- (d) "All thru the Night" (Folk-Song)
- (e) "Hey, Ho! For Merry June" *Vincent*
- 3. March—"Aida" *Verdi*
- 4. "America" (Audience)

Orchestra—Pupils from Brooklyn and Queens high schools
 Charles Yerbury, *Conductor*
 Glee Club—Girls' Club of Public School 13, Manhattan
 Lillian Josephs, *Conductor*

After the musical program, Margaret Clark, College of Speech Arts, Denver, Colo., read the fortieth chapter of Isaiah.

Invocation—Very Rev. William A. Grosvenor, D.D., Dean, Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York City.

Addresses of Welcome: Charles S. Whitman, governor of the state of New York, Albany N.Y.; John H. Finley, president, University of the State of New York and state commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.; Charles B. Alexander, regent, University of the State of New York, New York City; John Purroy Mitchel, mayor of New York City; William G. Willcox, president, Board of Education, New York City; William H. Maxwell, superintendent of schools, New York City; and Gustave Straubenmüller, acting superintendent of schools, New York City.

A response to the addresses of welcome was made by Vice-President Jordan.

Following the addresses of welcome and the response, Vice-President Jordan introduced David Bancroft Johnson, president, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S.C., president of the National Education Association, and transferred to him the conduct of the convention.

President Johnson then delivered the presidential address, which was entitled "The Rural Home and the Farm Woman."

"A National Program of Education" was the title of an address given by P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D.C.

William H. Taft, Yale University, New Haven, Conn., gave an address on "A League to Enforce World Peace."

The following committees were announced by President Johnson:

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| William B. Owen, of Illinois, <i>Chairman</i> | A. E. Winship, of Massachusetts |
| H. J. Waters, of Kansas | N. C. Schaeffer, of Pennsylvania |
| George L. Towne, of Nebraska | E. E. Bass, of Mississippi |
| W. C. Bagley, of Illinois | H. H. Seerley, of Iowa |
| Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California | F. M. Harper, of North Carolina |
| R. J. Tighe, of Texas | J. E. Walmsley, of South Carolina |
| Alvan H. White, of New Mexico | M. P. Shawkey, of West Virginia |

COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| J. L. McBrien, of District of Columbia, <i>Chairman</i> | |
| M. A. Cassidy, of Kentucky | Charles H. Keyes, of New York |
| M. L. Brittain, of Georgia | T. W. Palmer, of Alabama |

Following the announcements, the convention adjourned to Monday evening, the active members of the Association reassembling by states at 5:30 P.M., either in sections of the Green Room, Hotel McAlpin, or at their respective state headquarters, for the selection of members of the nominating committee.

SECOND SESSION—MONDAY EVENING, JULY 3, 7:30 O'CLOCK

Preceding the opening of the session, the following musical program was given:

1. Overture ("Orpheus") *Offenbach*
 2. "The Lost Chord" (Chorus) *Sullivan*
 3. "Barcarolle" ("Tales of Hoffman") *Offenbach*
 4. March—Folkonger *Kretschmar*
 5. "America" (Chorus and Audience) *McCabe*
- Orchestra—Manhattan and Bronx high schools
Chorus—Boys from DeWitt Clinton High School
J. P. Donnelly, *Conductor*

After the musical program, the meeting was called to order by President Johnson, and the following addresses given:

- "Organized Recreation"—Warren Dunham Foster, department editor, *The Youth's Companion*, Boston, Mass.
- "The Elimination of Illiteracy"—Cora Wilson Stewart, president, Kentucky Illiteracy Commission, Frankfort, Ky.
- "First Aid to the Country Teacher—A Suggestion as to Vitalizing the Country Schools thru Our Present Teachers"—J. D. Eggleston, president, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

THIRD SESSION—TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 4, 7:30 O'CLOCK

Preceding the addresses of the evening, the following musical program was given by the Boys' Band of the Parental School under the direction of Frank R. Rix, director of music, public schools, New York City:

1. Patriotic Songs (Audience and Chorus of Teachers)
2. "God of Our Fathers" *Rix*
3. "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean"
4. "America" *McCabe*
5. "American Hymn" *Kellar*

Following the musical program, the meeting was called to order by President Johnson, and the following addresses given:

- "The Secular Free Schools"—Ella Flagg Young, Chicago, Ill.
- "The Place of the University in a Democracy"—Charles R. Van Hise, president, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
- "The Place of the Normal School in a Democracy"—John R. Kirk, president, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.
- "Citizenship in a Republic"—William Jennings Bryan, Lincoln, Nebr.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

FOURTH SESSION—WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 2:00 O'CLOCK

Preceding the opening of the session, the following musical program was given:

1. "American Overture" *Tobani*
 2. Part Songs: Arranged by Frank R. Rix
 - (a) "Be Not Afraid" ("Elijah") *Mendelssohn*
 - (b) "Lift Thine Eyes"
 - (c) "Minuet" *Paderewski*
 - (d) "Calm as the Night" *Bohm*
 3. "Melody of Peace" (Orchestra)
 4. March—"The Stars and Stripes" *Sousa*
- Orchestra—Brooklyn and Queens high schools
Charles Yerbury, *Conductor*
Chorus—Girls from Public School 50, Manhattan
Helen Mulvihill, *Pianist*
Frank R. Rix, *Director*

Following the musical, the meeting was called to order by President Johnson, and the following program given:

"Preparation thru Education for a Democracy"—James Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N.C.

"The Common School as an Instrument of Democracy"—Carroll G. Pearse, president, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

"The War and Education"—G. Stanley Hall, president, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

"What the Public Schools Can Do toward the Maintenance of Permanent Peace"—Fannie Fern Andrews, secretary, American School Peace League, Boston, Mass.

"Mass Instruction thru Group Training"—O. B. Martin, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

"The Socialized Recitation"—F. M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Lincoln, Nebr.

FIFTH SESSION—WEDNESDAY EVENING, JULY 5, 7:30 O'CLOCK

After a musical program given by the Hampton Institute Quartette and the Boys' Band of the Parental School, President Johnson called the meeting to order and the following addresses were given:

"The Education of the Negro"—Hollis B. Frissell, principal, Hampton Normal and Industrial institute, Hampton, Va.

"The Education of the Alien"—John H. Finley, state commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.

"Vocational Education"—John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

"National Aid to Vocational Education"—Homer H. Seerley, president, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Ia.

"Industrial Education"—William C. Redfield, Secretary of Commerce, Washington, D.C.

At the close of the program, President Johnson announced the following Committee on Nominations:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

JAMES Y. JOYNER, of North Carolina, *Chairman*

R. E. TIDWELL	Alabama	IRVING S. CUTTER	Nebraska
A. J. MATTHEWS	Arizona	CHARLES PRIEST	Nevada
GEORGE B. COOK	Arkansas	WALLACE E. MASON	New Hampshire
MARY CARMICHAEL	California	L. S. THOMPSON	New Jersey
H. V. KEPNER	Colorado	J. B. TAYLOR	New Mexico
W. S. BEACON	Connecticut	T. E. FINEGAN	New York
C. J. SCOTT	Delaware	H. E. SAYNE	North Dakota
E. L. THURSTON	Dist. of Columbia	J. A. SHAWAN	Ohio
GEORGE M. LYNCH	Florida	F. W. WENNER	Oklahoma
JESSIE MUSE	Georgia	L. R. ALDERMAN	Oregon
W. R. SIDERS	Idaho	J. G. BECHT	Pennsylvania
J. S. BROWN	Illinois	VALENTINE ALMY	Rhode Island
ANNA WILSON	Indiana	J. E. WALMSLEY	South Carolina
H. H. SEERLEY	Iowa	C. T. KING	South Dakota
R. P. WILLIS	Kansas	J. R. LOWRY	Tennessee
M. A. CASSIDY	Kentucky	A. W. EVANS	Texas
W. B. JACK	Maine	E. G. GOWANS	Utah
MOLLIE R. HOBBS	Maryland	GUY POTTER BENTON	Vermont
CLARENCE W. KINGSLEY	Massachusetts	A. H. HILL	Virginia
H. M. SLAUSON	Michigan	R. M. WHITE	Washington
ISABEL WILLIAMS	Minnesota	JOSEPH ROSIER	West Virginia
E. E. BASS	Mississippi	MARY D. BRADFORD	Wisconsin
JOHN R. KIRK	Missouri	RALPH R. GARWOOD	Porto Rico
R. J. CUNNINGHAM	Montana		

FOURTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

SIXTH SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 6, 2:00 O'CLOCK

MUSICAL PROGRAM

1. "Wedding March" *Mendelssohn*
2. Choruses:
 - (a) "He Watching over Israel" *Mendelssohn*
 - (b) "Barcarolle" ("Tales of Hoffman") *Offenbach*
 - (c) "Border Ballad" *Cowen*
 - (d) "Beautiful Ship from Toyland" *Herbert*
 - (e) "Good-Night, Beloved" *Pinsuti*
3. "The Lost Chord" (Orchestra) *Sullivan*
 Solos by Schwartz (Stuyvesant High School),
 Finkelstein (DeWitt Clinton High School), and
 Ida Distilli (Washington Irving High School)
4. March—"The Whip" *Holtzman*
 High School Orchestra—Joseph P. Donnelly, *Conductor*
 Chorus—Graduating Class Public School 52, the Bronx
 Ethel V. Coolegge, *Conductor*

After the musical program, the meeting was called to order by President Johnson, and the following addresses given:

- "Preparing Teachers for Leadership in All Special Education"—James W. Crabtree, president, State Normal School, River Falls, Wis.
- "Educational Preparation for Foreign Service"—Glen Levin Swiggett, Assistant Secretary-General, Second Pan-American Scientific Congress, member, Committee on Education, National Foreign Trade Council, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.
- "Salaries and Pensions of Teachers"—Joseph Swain, president, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa., chairman, Committee on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions.
- "Teachers' Cottages"—Josephine Corliss Preston, state superintendent of public instruction, Olympia, Wash.
- "The Junior High School"—Charles H. Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
- "The Junior College"—James M. Wood, president, Stephens Junior College, Columbia, Mo.

SEVENTH SESSION—THURSDAY EVENING, JULY 6, 7:30 O'CLOCK

Preceding the opening of the session, the following musical program was given:

1. March—"Aida" *Verdi*
2. (a) "My Heart Rejoices" (Chorus—Air arranged by F. R. Rix from
 "Sampson and Delilah") *Saint-Saens*
- (b) "Who Is Sylvia?" *Schubert*
- (c) Largo (Arranged by F. R. Rix) *Handel*
3. "Melody of Peace" (Orchestra)
4. March—"The Stars and Stripes" *Sousa*
5. Singing by Chorus and Audience
 Orchestra from Brooklyn and Queens high schools
 Charles Yerbury, *Conductor*
 Chorus of Girls from Washington Irving High School
 Lawrence Mooney, *Conductor*
 Miss Caron and Mr. Mattfeld, *Accompanists*

President Johnson called the meeting to order after the musical program and the following addresses were given:

- "Readings from His Own Poems"—Robert Underwood Johnson, secretary, American Academy of Arts and Letters, New York, N.Y.
- "The Story of My Life"—Anna Shaw, Moylan, Pa.
- "Universal Military Training"—Leonard Wood, major general, United States Army, New York, N.Y.

"Chinese Education"—V. K. Wellington Koo, ambassador from China to the United States, Washington, D.C.

"Trust in Humanity"—Thomas Mott Osborne, warden of Sing Sing, Ossining, N.Y.

"Some International Aspects of Public Education"—William G. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D.C.

FIFTH DAY'S PROCEEDINGS

EIGHTH SESSION—FRIDAY EVENING, JULY 7, 7:30 O'CLOCK

MUSICAL PROGRAM

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. March—"Carmen" | <i>Bizet</i> |
| 2. Chorus: | |
| (a) "The Pilgrim's Chorus" | <i>Wagner</i> |
| (b) "Fairest of Nations" (Arranged by Rix) | <i>Verdi</i> |
| 3. March—"Le Prophete" | <i>Meyerbeer</i> |
| 4. "American Overture" | <i>Tobani</i> |

United Orchestras

Joseph P. Donnelly and Charles Yerbury, *Conductors*

Junior Glee Club, Evander Childs High School

Grace Smith, *Conductor*

Frank Downey, *Accompanist*

After the musical numbers the announcement was made that the judges had awarded the prizes for the best essays on the subject of "Thrift, with an Outline of a Method by Which the Principles of Thrift May Be Taught in Our Public Schools" as follows:

First prize, Teresa M. Lenney, New Rochelle, N.Y.; tied for second prize, Frances V. Frisbie, Indianapolis, Ind.; Alfred F. Howes, Manchester, Conn.; Isadore Kaplan, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Cora L. Swafford, Minneapolis, Minn. Special mention was given to the essays by the following: T. W. DeHaven, Houghton, Mich., and Evelyn King Gilmore, Selma, Ala.

The winners in the school contest were as follows:

First, Nellie Harrington, Washington, D.C.; second, William Denniger, Scranton, Pa.; third, Ruth Carver, Louisville, Ky.; fourth, Charles Lane, Imperial, Cal.; fifth, Laura A. Yeater, Mannington, W.Va.; sixth, Eleanor Webster, New Brighton, Pa.; seventh, Nettie Mart, Jamestown, N.D.; tied for eighth place: Abram Green, Scranton, Pa.; Zitella McClellan, Kaysville, Utah; Firman DeMaris, Vineland, N.J., and Evan Alsip, Imperial, Cal.

The meeting was called to order by President Johnson and the following program given:

"The Gary Plan"—William A. Wirt, superintendent of schools, Gary, Ind.

"The American School and the Working Man"—Samuel Gompers, president, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D.C.

"Nationalizing Education"—John Dewey, professor of philosophy, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"Possibilities of a National University at the Capital"—Simeon D. Fess, Member of Congress from Ohio, Washington, D.C.

President Johnson presented the President-elect, Robert J. Aley, President, University of Maine, Orono, Me., who spoke as follows:

I appreciate very greatly the honor which you have conferred upon me by making me your President for the coming year. I realize that the responsibility of the position is very great. The program of this year has been the best ever presented to the Association. It makes it very difficult indeed for the officers of the coming year to meet expectations. An acceptable program for 1917 is possible only if the membership will unite and co-operate to produce it. I feel sure that I shall have the hearty support and help of all of you.

After brief remarks of thanks and appreciation, President Johnson announced the adjournment of the Convention.

D. W. SPRINGER, *Secretary*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Resolved, That the National Education Association expresses its appreciation of the measures taken by the Committee of Arrangements to insure the success of this meeting. The large advance enrolment, the greatest in the history of the Association, the provision of satisfactory rooms for holding the various meetings of departments, the organization of information for the visiting members, the courteous welcome and generous hospitality of officials, teachers, and citizens of all classes, the reliable and informing reports of the public meetings appearing in the public press insure that the New York meeting of 1916 will be remembered as worthy of the metropolis of the nation and as setting a new standard for future meetings.

Resolved, That the President of this Association be authorized to name a committee of active members, of which committee the President of the Association shall be a member, to request the President of the United States to appoint a commission to investigate and report upon the condition of the woman on the farm and of the rural home of the United States.

Resolved, That the National Education Association indorses the co-operative movement for the promotion of citizenship education inaugurated by the Bureau of Naturalization of the Department of Labor.

Resolved, That the National Education Association urges upon the Congress of the United States the appropriation of fifty thousand dollars to be administered thru the United States Bureau of Education for the purpose of disseminating information as to the methods, standards, and established practices in the education of immigrants, and in stimulating the extension of the necessary educational facilities looking to the Americanization of the foreign-born or alien residents of this country.

Resolved, That the National Education Association again declares its belief in equal suffrage for men and women and urges upon its members the support of such measures as will hasten the consummation of this end.

Resolved, That the National Education Association calls the attention of the American people to the fact that teaching is a profession demanding for its successful practice a technical training that will put the teacher in possession of professional standards; that these professional standards can be maintained only by the employment of superintendents, supervisors, and teachers who have unquestioned professional qualifications for their work; that the members of the teaching profession can have and serve but one client, the public; that the public, therefore, owes a duty to itself and the members of the profession to see to it that only professional considerations enter into the employment, retention, and dismissal of teachers. The Association believes that the public can elevate and strengthen the professional status of teachers and thereby serve itself by securing legislation that shall embody the following provisions:

1. The powers and duties of superintendents of schools should receive definition by legislative enactment. Definite professional qualifications should be required by all appointees to office. The term of the superintendent of schools should be not less than three years; the power of nominating all teachers and members of the educational staff should be given the superintendent.

2. The tenure of office of teachers should, after a probationary period, be permanent. Removal should be possible only for inefficiency, immorality, or grievous neglect of duty. Salaries should be fixed so as to insure to teachers a standard of living in keeping with the professional demands made upon them. Retiring allowances or pensions should be provided either by state or local action.

Resolved, That the National Education Association gives expression again to the consciousness that the school is an institution developed by society to conserve the well-being of humanity, and that on this solid foundation all subordinate aims and uses of the school should be made to rest. Assembled as it is in a time of world-wide disturbance, doubt, and uncertainty, and of consequent national concern, the Association affirms its unswerving adherence to the unchanging principles of justice between persons and between nations; it affirms its belief that the instruction in the school should tend to furnish the mind with the knowledge of the arts and sciences on which the prosperity of the nations rests and to incline the will of men and nations toward acts of peace; it declares its devotion to America and American ideals and recognizes the priority of the claims of our beloved country on our property, our minds, our hearts, and our lives. It records its conviction that the true policy to be followed, both by the school and by the nation which it serves, is to keep the American public school free from sectarian interference, partisan politics, and disputed public policies, that it may remain unimpaired in its power to serve the whole people. While it recognizes that the community, or the state, may introduce such elements of military training into the schools as may seem wise and prudent, yet it

believes that such training should be strictly educational in its aim and organization, and that military ends should not be permitted to pervert the educational purposes and practices of the school.

WILLIAM B. OWEN, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.,
Chairman.

H. J. WATERS, president, Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan,
Kans.

GEORGE L. TOWNE, editor, *Nebraska Teacher*, Lincoln, Nebr.

W. C. BAGLEY, professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, executive secretary, California Teachers' Association, San Francisco, Cal.

A. E. WINSHIP, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

N. C. SCHAEFFER, state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

E. E. BASS, superintendent of schools, Greenville, Miss.

H. H. SEERLEY, president, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Ia.

FRANK M. HARPER, superintendent of schools, Raleigh, N.C.

J. E. WALMSLEY, professor of history, civics, and political economy, Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S.C.

M. P. SHAWKEY, state superintendent of schools, Charleston, W.Va.

GENERAL SESSIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION

ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

I. CHARLES S. WHITMAN, GOVERNOR OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, ALBANY, N.Y.

In behalf of ten million patriotic American citizens—residents of the commonwealth of New York—I extend a most cordial welcome to this distinguished body of the nation's leaders in public education who have come from every state in our Union to deliberate and determine upon general policies by which you may render to the nation in the discharge of your duties a more vital and effective service.

There is no class of public servants whose labors are more appreciated by the people of the whole country, and there is no agency of the government so well equipt to preserve the traditions of our national life and to prepare the future generations successfully to meet the great social, economic, and industrial problems which our rapidly developing and advancing civilization must encounter. You should not underestimate the importance of your profession nor the influence which you are exerting in the development of American citizenship. The free-school systems of our American states are the greatest democratic institutions which have been established by the government of any nation in the world. There is no institution more sacredly cherished by a people whose government is established upon the principles of individual freedom and justice than the American common school—the public school.

There are 20,000,000 children under the instruction of the teachers of this country who in a few years will take their places among the citizens of the nation. This number represents one-fifth of the entire population of the country. Employed in the instruction of these children is an army in excess of one-half million teachers who are under the command of several thousand trained supervisory school officers. For the support of these schools, the people of this country vote taxes upon their property annually in excess of one-half billion dollars. Therefore, when I contemplate the proper marshaling of these mighty forces, when I observe the earnest and patriotic devotion of the American teacher, and when the schools are in active operation and I can each morning hear the tramp of the feet of 20,000,000 American boys and girls marching to the schoolhouses which have been established in every city, village, hamlet, mountain-top, and valley of the nation—representing as they do the people of every nation of the world—there to learn the lesson of obedience, patience, industry, tolerance, self-reliance, and patriotic devotion to their country, I know that the ideals of our republican institutions are established upon enduring foundations.

I am gratified to be able to claim title to membership in your great fraternity, for some of the most valuable experience and discipline which I have received came thru my service as a teacher. I am also gratified to state, in the presence of this representative national body of men and women engaged in educational work, that in a year of great and troublesome demands upon the treasury of the state, I approved the largest appropriation for the support of the common schools of the state which New York has ever appropriated for her public-school system. I also found it a great personal satisfaction to give executive approval to every dollar appropriated by the legislature for educational purposes which had the approval of the commissioner of education.

Again, I extend to you the state's heartiest welcome and accord to you the freedom of all of our public buildings and public institutions and extend to you the privilege of the

state's domain, her rivers, her lakes, and her mountains. May the deliberations of your convention result in that improvement in our educational interests which you all desire and in which the people of the country will cooperate in order to make it effective.

II. JOHN H. FINLEY, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, AND STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, ALBANY, N.Y.

After our governor has spoken for the whole state, we who have further words of welcome to speak must appear as decimal or as common fractions, even tho we try to magnify ourselves into improper fractions. And since he has, to enter another elementary field, given the "principal parts" of the state's welcome, and has conjugated that welcome in all its usual moods and tenses, from the first person, singular number, indicative mood, and present tense, to the gerund, I betake myself for my word to that conjugation known as the "periphrastic"—that conjugation which is as a fraction added to a whole number, an auxiliary added to a verb. And I employ particularly the periphrastic in the mood and tense of the about-to-be, and so express to you the welcome of the state-which-is-about-to-be—the state for which the children in our schools are being trained and mobilized, the state which, with the states you represent from Maine to California, will send its youth to the borders of the nation-of-tomorrow.

Some of you saw that great map of this state at the Panama-Pacific Exposition, showing in relief every hill, mountain, and valley, creek, lake, and city in this state—the physical state of the ten millions over which Governor Whitman presides. But that which attracted thousands to it and stirred them was not the mere microcosm of this physical empire. It was the flashing of the thousands of little incandescent lamps, of varying colors: now the pink showing the Indian schools; now the green showing the nurses' training schools; now the blue showing the libraries; now the red showing the high schools; and, finally, the dazzling blaze of white lights representing the 11,642 elementary schools in the state. They are the beacons of the state-about-to-be; they are the fires upon the altars at which democracy is praying every day for the state-of-tomorrow; they mark the sites of the camps where she is today preparing for the defense of those ideal things which alone justify the defense of her physical borders today.

At the headquarters of the National Guard in this city last week, I saw a map upon which officers were marking the numbers gathered from all parts of the state to be sent to the borders of our land, under a federal plan of strategy and command. But we have no federalized educational army. We have only a general, an eloquent general. The nation depends almost solely upon the educational militia of the several states for that which is fundamentally essential to the pursuit of national ideals. It is especially important, therefore, that we should have such a national conference as this to consider how we can most helpfully and effectively cooperate as states for making and defending spiritually and physically the nobler nation-of-tomorrow. And we must realize that we have a task requiring a devotion and faith and valor comparable with that of the soldier, but demanding a richness, thoroughness, and breadth of preparation and knowledge, and an ability to lead and patiently to endure, even beyond his. For the way to the spiritual borders of our nation-that-is-to-be lies thru the schoolhouse door. Here is our greatest task: to bring our schools into conscious service to a great national constructive program of aspiration for tomorrow.

President Wilson in a speech last Friday night said: "Look for the rulers of the future. Can you pick out the families that are going to produce them? Can you pick out the localities that are going to produce them?" No, but he can be sure that they are being prepared by you and those whom you represent. This is not a convention of men and women who will nominate presidents; it is a convention of those who will prepare men who will be fit to be presidents, for, as Chesterton has said, "democracy is ever dreaming of a nation of sovereigns."

When seized as a spy in the opening days of war in Europe, I finally procured release by stating that I was a minister of education in one of the great states in the United States. It is in that capacity—minister of education in the state-of-tomorrow—a position I would rather hold than even that of governor in the state-of-today—that I add my welcome to that of the governor.

• III. CHARLES B. ALEXANDER, NEW YORK, N.Y., REGENT, UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

On behalf of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, an ancient and honorable command in the educational army and the most comprehensive educational organization in the world, I welcome you, the officers of the army for the defense of the nation of tomorrow.

The Board of Regents is, as I have said, an ancient body, born out of the bitter experiences of the terrible years 1776-84. The law establishing it was the first important project for national preparedness considered by the legislature of the state of New York. It grew out of the "America first" movement of 1774-87, when the fathers and mothers of the late colonies refused longer to send their sons over the water to receive training, and when American boys first demanded an introduction into an American and not an European culture. It was the first step in the establishment of democracy, the beginning of that first great organization of the forces of a new society, a movement whose spiritual influence spread at least as far as France, and which in some considerable measure furnish inspiration for the institutions of the France of today.

The Board of Regents was born almost under the clouds of battle. It has seen the nation gird itself many times for war. It has played some part in the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the Civil War, and the Spanish-American War. It may be due to this experience that the somber years of 1914, 1915, and 1916 did not find the Regents entirely without guidance or precedent, or the desire (for I have said that the Board was honorable as well as ancient) to meet the situation promptly, frankly, and fully. As every American industry and organization is doing today, we tried to examine our plant, which is not the task of a day, for there are 2,168,358 children, 61,355 teachers, 12,000 public elementary schools, 1,000 high schools and academies, 40 colleges and universities, 8 schools of technology, 30 schools of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and optometry 140 training schools for nurses, 5 colleges for teachers, 10 normal schools, 114 training schools for teachers, 560 free public libraries, and over 100 institutions and associations for the promotion of science, literature, art, history, etc., in the state of New York.

We made this examination in order to determine what essential service we could render to the state in a status of war or a status of peace, what new service or modification of service was required in the changed world of today, what reorganization of methods or change of plant would be required in the new world order of tomorrow.

Our deliberations have not been finisht. Some things we deem valid have been embodied in law, and shortly will be embodied in a prescription for the physical well-being of every pupil from eight years upward, and for the military training of young men from sixteen to eighteen years of age—a prescription designed primarily to develop those qualities essential to everyone in meeting the obligations of citizenship.

We are particularly glad to welcome you to our state, to a common deliberation on the problems of our national needs and duties, because as officers you should be able to plan a campaign that will be at once true to our professional and national ideals, and adequate to the unquestioned peril of our times. New York wishes the educators from the kindergartners to the university presidents to know that their work is known and appreciated, and that the educational forces of this state delight to honor them.

The Regents have only once before in the history of this state met in the city of New York. They deemed it a mark of appreciation of your coming to convene here today as

an organized body and to attend with their officers this convocation. In addition to this, they instructed me some months ago, as one of their number resident in this neighborhood, to organize a committee of leading citizens, ladies and gentlemen, to constitute a Committee of Arrangements and Hospitality. I am chairman of this committee, and on their behalf also I bid you welcome to the hearts and hospitalities of this metropolis.

This is a captured town, a conquered state. You are its owners and captors, and the only terms we beg from you are that you will feel that you are surrounded by devoted and appreciative comrades, and that you will enjoy every moment of your stay.

IV. JOHN PURROY MITCHEL, MAYOR OF NEW YORK CITY

It is my very pleasant duty to extend to the members of the National Education Association the welcome of the city of New York. We are indeed glad in New York that you should have chosen this city as the site for this convention, and we feel that your deliberations here may be productive of enormous good to us in our great undertaking of public education, and we feel, on the other hand, that we have here problems and undertakings whose study may be productive of good for you.

The size of the problem of public education in this city is greater than that of any other single community in the world. Here New York maintains some 684 school buildings, in which we house upward of 24,000 teachers and impart instruction to 900,000 pupils; and on that work the city of New York expends this year upward of \$41,000,000. This city, in common with most of the communities of the country, feels the pinch of financial pressure. It needs every available dollar for the development of its great physical plant and for the conduct of the processes of its government, but I say to you that New York City does not grudge one single dollar that it expends on public education, and it stands ready today, as it has at all times in the past, to appropriate to this great purpose every dollar the necessity for which can be demonstrated to the financial authorities of this city.

I do not know whether the time which you are able to spend here will permit of a closer study of any of the detailed problems of education that we face in New York, but, if it does, then I would recommend to you especially a consideration of those two newer experiments that New York City inaugurated a little more than a year ago. As a result of a visit to the Middle West paid by the president of the Board of Education and myself as mayor, we determined to attempt to extend the activities of the Department of Education in the field of industrial training. We brought here to the city of New York Dean Schneider, of the University of Cincinnati, to set up for us the same plan of cooperation between industry and the schools that he inaugurated and conducted so successfully in that city, and, since that time, since the initiation of this plan, which is now going forward successfully under the guidance of the local officers of the Board of Education, we have undertaken an industrial survey in order to learn, as far as we may, the needs of industry, and to adapt our plan of industrial education to those needs.

At the same time we establish here the Gary experiment. We brought from Gary, Ind., Mr. Wirt, superintendent of the school system of that city, and asked him to apply to a number of schools in New York the system that he had worked out at Gary, in order that we might determine how far that plan is adaptable to New York City's peculiar requirements and needs. The experiment is going forward today in from eight to twelve schools, and, on the basis of the data there gathered, the Board of Education of this city will determine how far that plan may be extended to the school system of New York, and how far thru it, if it be adopted, we may solve the most difficult financial problem that we face, namely, that of providing a sufficient school plant in buildings to give a seat to every child in the city of New York.

President Jordan said that the future of the Republic is being determined in the schools of the Republic. Indeed, that is true. And because it is true there rests upon the

teachers of the Republic a heavy obligation to direct the mind of the boys and girls of America into those measures that will develop the ideals of America and beget in them a patriotism that will make sure the future of our country. If I were a member of your profession today, I would search my soul and ask whether I were doing all that in my power lay to build up in the youth of this country that spirit of national patriotism that gave birth to the Republic, and that has kept it alive at the periods of crisis in our national life. We are today observing the working of profound forces. We see this country attempting to solve the most fundamental of all problems of democracy—the problem of making democracy efficient to protect and perpetuate itself. We see that problem daily working toward solution; and it rests with the teachers of the country to help it toward solution.

I believe that no country has insured its future which cannot rely on the ready and trained service of its men to ward off national disaster. I believe that no country can secure that ready and trained service that does not begin to teach it in the schools of the country. And I would say to you that I should like to see the educational system of the United States take leadership in this great matter, and begin, while it is training the youth of the country, to teach them to understand the ideals of America, and to develop that national patriotism of which I spoke, and also to make themselves strong physically and fit to take their places among the forces of defense of the Republic, yes, and to train them adequately to take their places in those forces. This, it seems to me, is the great lesson of this year, the lesson that we should take to heart, the lesson that we should teach to the youth of this country, the lesson that must sooner or later sink into the consciousness of the people of the United States if they would not some day have it seared into that consciousness by disaster.

V. WILLIAM G. WILLCOX, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It is my great pleasure, on behalf of the Board of Education of the City of New York, to extend to you a cordial greeting and hearty welcome. It is indeed a privilege to be permitted to speak to this great gathering of representative men and women from all parts of our country, drawn together by a bond of common interest in the great cause of public education. The city of New York is honored by your presence. We deeply appreciate your interest in the great problems which so vitally concern our civic and social welfare and your far-reaching influence in the school and in the community.

In a government resting not upon force, not on autocratic authority, but on intelligent public opinion, education is the very cornerstone of the structure. As the public-school pupils of today are the citizens of tomorrow, so the permanence and progress of our democratic institutions rest in the hands of the public-school teachers. The public school is not a philanthropic institution, but represents a great investment of public funds from which the community expects, and rightfully expects, large dividends in intelligent and efficient citizenship. Faced with this great responsibility and opportunity, it is indeed fitting that the members of this Association should meet to take counsel together and share with each other the results of their experience and study. Such exchange molds public opinion in the educational world and furnishes new inspiration for the work.

In welcoming you to the hospitality of New York, I welcome you also to a veritable feast of educational wisdom and deep drafts of inspiration for your future tasks. While the National Education Association has provided this intellectual banquet, the teachers and superintendents of our New York school system have been unsparing in their efforts to provide for your physical comfort and entertainment. The Board of Education is glad to indorse and cooperate in the undertaking, but it should be clearly understood that the New York teachers and superintendents are your hosts, and are entitled to all the credit for the hospitality which you are to enjoy.

The greatest satisfaction in any field of effort is the satisfaction of achievement. Enthusiasm and success transform the teacher's work from drudgery into pleasure. In

the inspiration of this great convention, may you all find new courage for your work, new appreciation of its importance, and new pride and satisfaction in its results.

But your responsibility and your great opportunity for service are by no means limited to the classroom. Today the demand, which like a bugle call echoes and re-echoes thru our educational army and thrills its ranks with patriotic enthusiasm, is a call for loyal, unselfish, and united citizenship to rally to the protection of our democratic principles and institutions in this great crisis in the world's history.

The urgent cry for preparedness, to protect our country against any danger of military aggression, imperative as such preparedness is under present conditions, must never for one moment blind our eyes to the inspiring vision of the great mission and destiny of democracy, not to make war but to prevent war, not to support and continue the senseless effort to settle differences by force, not to attempt to advantage one nation at the expense of another, but to promote among nations, as among individuals, the dominance of moral law and public opinion and to hasten the day when the rule of might shall give way to the rule of justice thru which alone permanent progress of civilization is possible.

To you is given the high privilege and opportunity of holding ever before the future citizens of America this inspiring vision of universal peace and international justice and of educating and molding public opinion to wield a mighty influence in transforming that vision into a world-wide reality.

VI. WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Letter of Welcome

June 30, 1916

To the President and Members of the National Education Association:

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: With profound regret I am constrained by long continued illness to absent myself from your meetings in Greater New York. Even the word of welcome which, on behalf of the city's teaching force, I wish so much to say, I am unable to utter in person. That word, however, will be fitly spoken by my colleague, Acting City Superintendent Gustave Straubenmüller.

You will permit me, however, to say in this letter that the National Education Association meets this year in a city which is worthy of your serious study. It is worthy of your study, in the first place, because, fifty-nine years ago, in Brooklyn, now part of Greater New York, largely thru the efforts of Superintendent John W. Bulkley and Principal Thomas W. Valentine, the National Education Association had its birth; and, in the second place, because this city has been, for many years, the greatest melting-pot in America, in which people from all the nations of Europe are fused into some semblance of that Americanism at which we all aim, however far short we are of attaining.

At this time we are witnessing the most dreadful war, and probably the most all-pervading in its effects, that the world has ever known. Under the influence of this stupendous struggle and the no less stupendous results we anticipate, the American people seem to have made up their minds very definitely to two lines of national policy which, for good or for evil, are bound to affect American civilization for ages to come. One of these lines is to tolerate in their home or foreign policies no influence that is not wholly thoroly American. The other is that our people, particularly our young men and young women, shall be willing and prepared to defend efficiently their country, should it ever be assailed at home or abroad, and to enforce the nation's will, should it ever be resisted. In this cradle of the National Education Association, in this great melting-pot of the nation, surely the National Education Association should speak with no uncertain voice in order to proclaim to our people and to each individual teacher what elements constitute that Americanism, that particular kind of patriotism which, thru the instrumentality of the school and the home, should be woven on the universal loom of life. Equally is it the duty and the privilege of the National Education Association to announce to statesmen, to legislators,

and to civilians the methods of preparedness that will be truly successful in preparing our people for the duties of war as well as of peace.

Perhaps you will allow me, as a veteran in your ranks, and as once your President, to state a few rules to which training for preparedness must conform, if it is to serve the purposes intended.

1. If military training is to be employed, it must be universal military training for all youths between certain ages. To limit military training to the students in high schools or any other kind of school is to make the school undesirable to an increasingly large section of the population, to exclude from war those who, in their own selfish interests, would seek to avoid war, and to limit the fighters of the nation to those who are best equipt to do the nation's everyday work. If the voluntary army system should break down as break down it must under the stress of grave peril, military training for all is the only fair, the only safe rule. And, if it be wisely administered, it will enhance the efficiency of the man, not only for war, but for every duty of life.

2. All our youths should be taught trades or professions by which they may increase their value to themselves and to the community. We must see to it that no idle class lives and moves and has its being in America.

3. Neither military training nor the learning of trades should be permitted to interfere with that cultural training, particularly in the time-honored elementary subjects of reading, language, ciphering, drawing, and the rudiments of literature, history, and géography, upon which we must depend to prevent military training from degenerating into militarism, and the practice of trades into the unintelligent slavery of routine. There has been found no efficient way of teaching a boy to be a soldier or a mechanic, other than to set apart a certain period of his life in which he shall devote himself, almost exclusively, to acquiring automatic efficiency in the practices of war or the minutiae of a trade.

4. But the greatest thing of all in education is to develop that reverence for country which shall be content with no policy that does not make our country worthy of reverence, that shall make service to the community and to our fellow-men the highest motive for every study and every practice, and that shall make that charity which suffereth long and is kind the greatest thing in the world.

May your meeting be so inspired and so administered that it shall be an everlasting guide in the city of its birth, in this, the greatest melting-pot of our citizenship.

Yours, with kindest and most grateful remembrance,

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL
City Superintendent of Schools

VII. GUSTAVE STRAUBENMÜLLER, ACTING CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
NEW YORK, N.Y.

After the multiplicity of hearty welcomes you have listened to, beginning with the salutation of the representative of the people of the state of New York, and ending with the sweet greetings of the eight-hundred thousand New York school children, can I do better, in this memorable Shakespeare year, than to hark back to the "old reliable" for my words of greeting:

"Sir, you are very welcome to our house:
It must appear in other ways than words,
Therefore, I scant this breathing courtesy."

Our house, fellow-teachers, is open to you "in other ways than words." May you not only enjoy the offered hospitality of "our house," but also profit by your experiences in it! That is the wish of Superintendent Maxwell as well as of the twenty-thousand teachers whom I have the honor of representing here today.

The fierce international competition in commerce and industry is reflected in our schools. There is a demand for some change in school work. Adaptation to the needs of

the age, cooperation of all educational agencies, some kind of school control of working children from fourteen to eighteen years of age, and thoroughness in all branches should be our watchwords.

While it is true that our schools must meet the needs of the present and the future, yet we should not break forever with the experiences and lessons of the past in the spiritual evolution of the child. While we teachers are simply transmitters of the culture and civilization of the present generation to the rising generation, yet we should not permit "hysteria or social tornadoes" to upset the judgments of our calmer moments. Let us encourage the needful and discourage the temporary and sensational.

In these days, when the nerve tissues are being overtaxt and the muscular tissues are being neglected an equilibrium should be established. How? The body must be strengthened and the brain cells must be safeguarded. But how can we do so when the inventions and discoveries during the past two decades have added so much to the stock of knowledge required, even by a child, to meet the exigencies of modern social, industrial, and commercial life? We can do so by strengthening the body, eliminating waste, improving the technique of teaching, imparting proper methods of study, and encouraging initiative.

Let us hope that this convention will close "on its most optimistic note" and that you will gather inspiration for renewed efforts in that most beautiful task of the teacher—preparing the forces that will battle for the development and improvement of the human race against those that would lead the human race to degeneration and decay.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

THE RURAL HOME AND THE FARM WOMAN

DAVID BANCROFT JOHNSON, PRESIDENT, WINTHROP NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE, ROCK HILL, S.C., PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

True education concerns itself with that which has to do with the welfare of society outside of the schoolroom as well as with the instruction and training of the children inside of it. Educators should take a broader view than they often do of their relation to society and should come in more vital and sympathetic contact with the people in all their community life. If they would do this more generally, the high calling of teaching would hold a still higher place in the esteem of men.

The institution I represent is earnestly endeavoring in its extension work to effect improvement in the rural homes, in the rural community, and in the conditions surrounding the farm women and children in our section of the country, and I wish to quicken, if possible, your interest in this great cause. The rural home has much to do with the condition of the rural school, and the rural school should have much to do with the condition of the rural home.

"The neglect of the woman in the country is one of the most serious indictments that can be drawn against our civilization," and it is one of the

main causes of the unsatisfactory agricultural conditions in our land. The farm home is the beginning and end of every day's work. It differs from the town home in this respect. The farm home is an essential part of the farm business. If the farm home and the farm woman are not what they should be, the farm business and home training cannot be what they should be. The home is the foundation stone of civilization. Upon it must rest the welfare of the people. In it originate the forces determining the public sentiment upon which the laws and institutions of a country must rest. The ideals of a country are made during early childhood in the homes, and ideals determine the character of a nation as well as of an individual. As is the home, so is the community, the state, and the nation. This is just as true of the country home as of the city home. Hence the vital importance of this question of the rural home and the farm woman. The welfare of the whole country—urban and rural—is involved in the welfare of the agricultural people who constitute such a large proportion of the whole population, and the success and happiness of the agricultural people are involved in the welfare of the farm woman and the condition of the rural home.

If the farm woman's health and strength are conserved by time-saving and labor-lightening conveniences, and she is given the requisite time and training, she can make life in the rural home interesting, wholesome, and satisfying, as indeed she has done already in so many instances. She could do much to promote the health and happiness and the mental and spiritual well-being and working capacity of her family, to enrich country life and make it attractive, and thus to reduce farm tenancy—one of the greatest obstacles of the day to farm progress. The country has many natural advantages over the city for making home life what it should be, and it only remains for these advantages to be recognized and utilized.

With a view to making some contribution to this vital problem of improving rural conditions, which we all agree need improving in the interest of all the people, both urban and rural, I have made some study of the rural home and the farm woman. A correct diagnosis must precede correct treatment of the patient. In pursuance of this undertaking, I prepared a questionnaire of thirty-eight questions for the farm woman, and sent it out over the country districts of my section, asking the county agents of county women's and girls' clubs to have the farm women of the average farm answer them. Time permits me to give neither the questions nor their answers in full. Suffice it to say that the questions were designed to secure information as to all the activities of home and community life—the economic, the social, and the esthetic. Specific replies were asked as to conveniences, food-supply, comforts, opportunities for relaxation, for entertainment, for work in the community. In all cases we asked for explanation of conditions that were not approved, and suggestions as to how desired changes might be effected. The answers demonstrated the

magnitude and the importance of the work, and the necessity, not only of strengthening the agencies already in operation, but also of setting to work additional and stronger forces. This investigation, covering but a limited part of our great country, has made only a beginning. It shows, however, that the rural home and the farm woman should claim the careful consideration of every thoughtful and patriotic citizen.

The rural home must be made more comfortable, convenient, sanitary, attractive, efficient, and educative, and the farm woman must be relieved of the deadening drudgery, grind, and monotony which now, in so many cases, take all sweetness and light out of her life, render her incapable of making the home the force for good that it should be, and of transmitting to her children the physical, mental, and spiritual vitality needed by them to succeed in life. If there were running water in the rural home, the farm woman would be relieved of much of the terrible drudgery which now leaves neither time, strength, nor interest for recreation, reading, and attention to the cultural and educative side of the home. Why is it that the men on the farm will readily buy expensive labor-saving machinery for the fields, and yet not secure such labor-saving appliances for the home, altho they cost much less than the field machinery?

One of our extension workers exhibited at one of the conferences for education in the South a modest little house designed and equipt to meet the needs of people of limited means living in the country. It was shown that a rural home could be built at small cost, with regard for the conveniences of the farm woman, and equipt with labor-saving appliances, including water-works, to do away with unnecessary drudgery. It was shown that \$200 would furnish engine, bathroom, kitchen, and stationary washtub, and the power to do the work which is now making the farm woman old before her time. It would do much to improve the rural home to place full and detailed information concerning this model home in the hands of the people of the country.

Let us remember, however, that it is not sufficient to give the farm woman running water in the house and all of the conveniences of a model home. Country life must be made socially satisfying. Clarence Poe, editor of the *Progressive Farmer*, truly says: "The rural problem, in its last analysis, is nothing more nor less than the problem of developing a satisfying country life, and such a life must respond both to the social and material wants of man. It must be both financially and socially satisfying." In some of the richest farm sections of the United States, where farmers have attained to the highest degree of prosperity, the farm owners are retiring most rapidly from the farms because farm life, even when financially satisfying, is not socially nor intellectually satisfying.

In order that country life may be satisfying, the people must have education and own their homes, must cooperate with each other in rural community activities, and must have rural community organization for

the promotion and support of an educational, religious, social, business, and intellectual community life. At the very foundation of improvement of agricultural conditions is the improvement of rural public schools. The startling exodus from the rural districts to the cities all over our country is attributed by many to the lack of proper educational and social conditions in the country—conditions which the properly organized and conducted country school might supply. From social and economic surveys it has been found that in Illinois about 95 per cent of the landowners who move to town do so because of the inadequacy of the country school. The country school which is to improve agricultural conditions and keep good citizens on the farms and make good citizens on the farms must relate its work to the full life of the people served by it, must educate the children for country life instead of away from it, and must relate universal elements of education to country community needs, must train the children for their future work in the home, on the farm, and in the social life around them; must be a "community center of education, instructing both children and adults in terms of country life and pointing the way to community prosperity and welfare"; must concern itself with the business and social life of the people, promoting helpful and profitable cooperation and neighborliness. It cannot neglect the health, the recreation, nor the social ideals of the people.

The course of study needed for the kind of country school I have described must be determined by the needs of the social and economic life of the community, and these must be clearly fixed by a social and economic survey of the community. It is not necessary to discard the fundamental studies, but it is necessary to relate these studies more closely to agricultural life. New leaven must be put into old essentials, some subjects of the old traditional curriculum which fail to express the activities and needs of the community must be discarded, and new subjects that are needed for agricultural progress must be added, such as nature-study, agriculture, manual training, domestic science and art, farm-management and marketing, and rural sanitation.

The country school which is to improve rural conditions must have an efficient teacher, and that means a teacher who appreciates both the needs and opportunities of work in a rural community and who has been trained especially for teaching a country school in the right way—one who is in sympathy with rural life. The efficient teacher of a country school must be not only a good teacher of subject-matter, "giving instruction in terms of local environment of the child," but also a good community-leader. She must be able to stimulate local campaigns for rural progress. Under her leadership there will be road-improvement, good farmers' clubs and institutes, country-church progress, and improvement in the rural home. She must be imbued with the spirit of civic service. It has been said that the master-word of the eighteenth century was "liberty," that of the nine-

teenth century, "knowledge," and that of the twentieth, is "service." Every teacher, but especially the teacher of the country school, must catch this spirit of service of the twentieth century.

In addition to the rural school organized and conducted for rural betterment, there are other agencies at work for rural uplift, especially for uplift of the rural home, and these may be strengthened and extended and made to reach and benefit more fully the farm woman. After the farm woman has been given a good, attractive, convenient home, equip with labor-saving appliances, she will have to learn how to manage the home in the best way. Of greater importance than the question of "the high cost of living" is that of "the high cost of wasting," but of greater importance than both of these is that of "the high cost of ignorance." One of the best remedies for the poor home is the teaching of home economics in all of its phases. The farm women of tomorrow may be taught home economics as pupils of today in the efficient country school, thru girls' canning clubs, and in other ways, and the present farm woman will get some help from these sources thru her children, who should be given credit at school for housework done at home in accordance with directions given at school. Movable schools of homemaking, the visiting household demonstrator, home institutes for women, homemaking clubs, housewives' bulletins, correspondence courses, and the rural-school teacher who has been trained in home economics and who will give instruction in homemaking to mothers' clubs offer much promise for the women of the open country. Of all the agencies the neighborhood teacher with agricultural and home economic training and the right spirit of civic service ought to be the most effective. I rejoice that two-thirds at least of our normal schools are contributing effectively to the solution of this farm woman and rural-life problem by giving their students training in home economics. Over two hundred and fifty colleges and universities are giving definite courses of instruction in household science. I believe that the visiting supervisory teacher of home economics for a county could render a service of inestimable value in improving school and home conditions. The home-economics extension work of normal schools and colleges for rural communities is producing gratifying results. The Smith-Lever bill offers great promise for the development of home-betterment work for the country. The Rural Credits act just now being passed by Congress will do much to better rural conditions and rural homes. On the whole, I think the outlook for the betterment of rural-life conditions is full of hope. Our people are waking up to the vital importance of the rural problem to the welfare of the whole country as never before in our history, and are girding themselves for a great, intelligent, and united effort to give help where it is most needed. I think we can thank God and take courage.

A LEAGUE TO ENFORCE WORLD PEACE

WILLIAM H. TAFT, YALE UNIVERSITY, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

This is an assembly of those who direct the forming of character of the youth of the country and who, because of their intelligence and attention to the issues of the day and their standing in the community, exercise a substantial influence in framing and making effective the popular will. This meeting, therefore, gives an exceptional opportunity to spread to the four corners of the United States the consideration of a constructive plan for national and human betterment. I seize this chance to bring before you the program of an association already organized and active to promote a league to enforce world-peace.

Our program is limited to the establishment of such a league after the present world-war shall close. We are deeply interested in bringing this war to a close, and we would rejoice much in successful mediation, but, in order to be useful, we limit our plan to the steps to be taken when peace comes, and to an international arrangement between the powers after war ceases.

The League was organized on Bunker Hill Day, a year ago, in Independence Hall, at Philadelphia. Its program contemplates a treaty between the great powers of the world, by which the signatories agree to be bound to four obligations: the first is that all questions arising between the members of the league shall be submitted to a judicial tribunal for hearing and judgment; the second, that all questions which cannot be settled on principles of law and equity shall be submitted to a council of conciliation for hearing and a recommendation of compromise; the third, that if any member of the league commits acts of hostility against another member before the question between them shall be submitted as provided in the first two articles the remainder of the members of the league shall jointly use forthwith their economic and military forces against the member prematurely resorting to war and in favor of the member prematurely attacked; the fourth, that congresses between the members of the league shall be held from time to time to formulate and codify rules of international law to govern the relations between the members of the league, unless some member of the league shall signify its dissent within a stated period.

1. Considering the fourth clause first, the question arises: What is international law? It is the body of rules governing the conduct of the nations of the world toward one another, acquiesced in by all nations. It lacks scope and definiteness. It is found in the writings of international jurists, in treaties, in the results of arbitration, and in the decisions of those municipal courts which apply international law, like the Supreme Court of the United States and courts that sit in prize cases to determine the rules of international law governing the capture of vessels in naval warfare. It is

obvious that a congress of the league, with quasi-legislative powers, could greatly add to the efficacy of international law by enlarging its application and codifying its rules. It would be greatly in the interest of the world and of world peace to give to such a code of rules the express sanction of the family of nations.

2. Coming now to the first proposal, involving the submission of all questions at issue, of a legal nature, to a permanent international court, it is sufficient to point out that the proposal is practical and is justified by precedent. The Supreme Court of the United States, exercising the jurisdiction conferred on it by the Constitution, sits as a permanent international tribunal to decide issues between the states of the Union. The law governing the settlement of most of the controversies between the states cannot be determined by reference to the Constitution, to statutes of Congress, nor to the legislation of the states. Should Congress in such cases attempt to enact laws, they would be invalid. The only law which applies is that which applies between independent governments, to wit, international law. Take the case of Kansas against Colorado, heard and decided by the Supreme Court. Kansas complained that Colorado was using more of the water of the Arkansas River which flowed thru Colorado into Kansas than was equitable, for purposes of irrigation. The case was heard by the Supreme Court and decided, not by a law of Congress, not by the law of Kansas, not by the law of Colorado, for the law of neither applied. It was decided by principles of international law.

Many other instances of similar decisions by the Supreme Court could be cited. But it is said that such a precedent lacks force here because the states are restrained from going to war with each other by the power of the national government. Admitting that this qualifies the precedent to some extent, we need go no farther than Canada to find a complete analogy and a full precedent. There is now sitting to decide questions of boundary waters (exactly such questions as were considered in Kansas versus Colorado) a permanent court, consisting of three Americans and three Canadians, to settle the principles of international law that apply to the use of rivers constituting a boundary between the two countries and of rivers crossing the boundary. The fact is that we have got so into the habit of arbitration with Canada that no reasonable person expects that any issue arising between us and that country, after a hundred years of peace, will be settled otherwise than by arbitration. If this be the case between ourselves and Canada, and England, why may it not be practicable with every well-established and ordered government of the great powers? The second Hague conference, attended by all nations, recommended the establishment of a permanent international court to decide questions of a legal nature arising between nations.

3. The second proposal involves the submission to a commission of conciliation of all questions that cannot be settled in court on principles

of law or equity. There are such questions which may lead to war, and frequently do, and there are no legal rules for decision. We have such questions giving rise to friction in our domestic life. If a lady who owns a lawn permits children of one neighbor to play upon that lawn and refuses to admit the children of another neighbor, because she thinks the latter children are badly trained and will injure her lawn or her flowers, it requires no imagination to understand that there may arise a neighborhood issue that will lead to friction between the families. The issue is, however, a non-justiciable one. Courts cannot settle it, for the reason that the lady owning the lawn has the right to say who shall come on it and who shall be excluded from it. No justiciable issue can arise, unless one's imagination goes to the point of supposing that the husbands of the two differing ladies came together and clashed, and then the issue in court will not be as to the comparative training of the children of the families.

We have an analogous question in our foreign relations, with reference to the admission of the Chinese and Japanese. We discriminate against them in our naturalization and immigration laws and extend the benefit of those laws only to whites and persons of African descent. This discrimination has caused much ill-feeling among the Japanese and Chinese. We are within our international right in excluding them, but it is easy to understand how resentment because of such discrimination might be fanned into a flame, if, thru lawless violence or unjust state legislation, the Japanese might be mistreated within the United States.

We have had instances of the successful result of commissions of conciliation where the law could not cover the differences between the two nations. Such was the case of the Behring Sea controversy. We sought to prevent the killing of female seals in the Behring Sea and asserted our territorial jurisdiction over that sea for this purpose. The question was submitted to international arbitrators, and the decision was against us, but the arbitrators, in order to save to the world the only valuable and extensive herd of fur seals, recommended a compromise by treaty between the nations concerned, and accordingly treaties have been made between the United States, Great Britain, Russia, and Japan, which have restored the herd to its former size and value. So much, therefore, for the practicable character of the first two proposals.

The third proposal is more novel than the others, and gives to the whole plan a more constructive character. It looks to the use of economic means first, and military force if necessary, to enforce the obligation of every member of the league to submit any complaint it has to make against another member of the league, either to the permanent international court or to the commission of conciliation, and to await final action by that tribunal before beginning hostilities. It will be observed it is not the purpose of this program to use the economic boycott or the jointly acting armies of the league to enforce the judgment declared or the compromise recom-

mended. These means are used only to prevent the beginning of war before there has been a complete submission, hearing of evidence, argument, and decision or recommendation. We sincerely believe that in most cases, with such a delay, such a winnowing-out of the issues, and such an opportunity for the peoples of the differing countries to understand one another's positions, war would generally not be resorted to. Our ambition is not to propose a plan, the perfect working-out of which will absolutely prevent war, first, because we do not think such a plan could perfectly work, and, secondly, because we are willing to concede that there may be governmental and international injustice, which cannot be practically remedied except by force. If, therefore, after a full discussion and decision by impartial judges or a recommendation by earnest, sincere, and equitable compromisers, a people still thinks that it must vindicate its rights by war, we do not attempt in this plan to prevent it by force.

Having thus explained what the plan is, let us consider the objections which have been made to it.

The first objection is that, in a dispute between two members of the league, it would be practically difficult to determine which one was the aggressor and which one, therefore, in fact began actual hostilities. There may be some trouble in this, I can see, but what we are dealing with is a working hypothesis, a very general plan. The details are not worked out. One can suggest that an international council engaged in an attempt to mediate the differences might easily determine for the league which nation was at fault in beginning hostilities. It would doubtless be necessary, where some issues arise, to require a maintenance of the *status quo* until the issues were submitted and decided in one tribunal or the other; but it does not seem to me that these suggested difficulties are insuperable or may not be completely governed by a detailed procedure that of course must be fixed before the plan of the league shall become operative.

The second objection is to the use of the economic boycott and of the army and the navy to enforce the obligations entered into by the members of the league upon the recalcitrant member. I respect the views of pacifists and those who advocate the doctrine of non-resistance as the only Christian doctrine. Such is the view of that Society of Friends which, with a courage higher than that of those who advocate forcible means, are willing to subject themselves to the injustice of the wicked in order to carry out their ideal of what Christian action should be. They have been so far in advance of the general opinions of the world in their history of three hundred years, and have lived to see so many of their doctrines recognized by the world as just, that I always differ with them with reluctance. Still it seems to me that in the necessity of preserving our civilization and saving our country's freedom and individual liberty, maintained now for one hundred and twenty-five years, we have no right to assume that we have past beyond the period in history when nations are affected by the same frailties and the same

temptations to cupidity, cruelty, and injustice as men. In our domestic communities we need a police force to protect the innocent and the just against the criminal and the unjust, and to maintain the guaranty of life, liberty, and property. The analogy between the domestic community and that of nations is sufficiently close to justify and require what is in fact an international police force. The attitude of those who oppose using force or a threat of force to compel nations to keep the peace is really like that of the modern school of theoretical anarchists, who maintain that if all restraint were removed and there were no government, and the children and youth and men and women were trained to self-responsibility, every member of society would know what his or her duty was and would perform it. They assert that it is the existence of restraint that leads to the violation of right. I may be permitted to remark that with modern fads of education we have gone far in the direction of applying this principle of modern anarchy in the discipline and education of our children and youth, but I do not think the result can be said to justify the theory, if we can judge from the strikes of school children or from the general lack of discipline and respect for authority that the rising generation manifests. The time has not come when we can afford to give up the threat of the police and the use of force to back up and sustain the obligation of duty.

The third objection is that it would be unconstitutional for the United States, thru its treaty-making power, to enter into such a league. The objection is based on the fact that the Constitution vests in Congress the power to declare war. It is said that this league would transfer the power to declare war away from Congress to some foreign council, in which the United States would have only a representative. This objection grows out of a misconception of the effect of a treaty and a confusion of ideas. The United States makes its contract with other nations under the Constitution thru the President and two-thirds of the Senate, who constitute the treaty-making power. The President and the Senate have a right to bind the United States to any contract with any other nation covering a subject-matter within the normal field of treaties. For this purpose the President and the Senate are the United States. When the contract comes to be performed, the United States is to perform it thru that department of the government which by the Constitution should perform it, and which should represent the government and should act for it. Thus, the treaty-making power may bind the United States to pay to another country under certain conditions a million dollars. When the conditions are fulfilled, then it becomes the duty of the United States to pay the million dollars. Under the Constitution only Congress can appropriate the million dollars from the treasury. Therefore it becomes the duty of Congress to make that appropriation. It may refuse to make it. If it does so, it dishonors the written obligation of the United States. It has the power either to perform the obligation or to refuse to perform it. That fact, however, does

not make the action of the treaty power in binding the United States to pay the money unconstitutional. So the treaty-making power may bind the United States under certain conditions to make war. When the conditions arise requiring the making of war, then it becomes the duty of Congress honorably to perform the obligation of the United States. Congress may violate this duty and exercise its power to refuse to declare war. It thus dishonors a binding obligation of the United States. But the obligation was entered into in the constitutional way and it is to be performed in the constitutional way. We are not lacking in precedent. In order to secure the grant of the Canal Zone and the right to finish the canal, the treaty-making power of the United States agreed to guarantee the integrity of Panama. The effect of this obligation is that if any other nation attempts to subvert the government of the Republic of Panama or to take any of her territory, the United States must make war against the nation thus invading Panama. Now, Congress may refuse to make war against such a nation, but if it does so, it violates the honor of the United States in breaking its promise. The United States cannot make such a war unless its Congress declares war. That does not make the guaranty of the integrity of Panama entered into by the treaty-making power of the United States unconstitutional. So here, when conditions arise under this league to enforce peace which would require the United States to lend its economic means and military force to resist the hostile action of one member of the league against another, it would become the duty of Congress to declare war. If Congress did not discharge that duty, as it has the power not to do under the Constitution, it merely makes the United States guilty of violating its plighted faith.

Again, it is said that to enter into such a league would require us to maintain a standing army. I do not think this follows at all. If we become, as we should become, reasonably prepared to resist unjust military aggression, and have a navy sufficiently large, and coast defenses sufficiently well equipt to constitute a first line of defense, and an army which we could mobilize into a half-million trained men within two months, we would have all the force needed to do our part of the police work in resisting the unlawful aggression of any one member of the league against another.

Fourthly, it has been urged that for us to become a party to this league is to give up our Monroe Doctrine, under which we ought forcibly to resist any attempt on the part of European or Asiatic powers to subvert an independent government in the Western Hemisphere, or to take from such a government any substantial part of its territory. It is a sufficient answer to this objection to say that a question under the Monroe Doctrine would come under that class of issues which must be submitted to a council of conciliation. Pending this, of course, the *status quo* must be maintained. An argument and recommendation of compromise would follow. If we did not agree to the compromise and proceeded forcibly to resist violation of

the Doctrine, we would not be violating the terms of the league by hostilities entered upon thereafter. More than this, as Professor Wilson of Harvard, the well-known authority upon international law, has pointed out, we are already under a written obligation to delay a year before beginning hostilities, in respect to any question arising between us and most of the great powers, and this necessarily includes a violation of the Monroe Doctrine. It is difficult to see, therefore, how the obligation of such a league as this would put us in any different position from that which we now occupy in regard to the Monroe Doctrine.

Finally, I come to the most formidable objection, which is that the entering into such a league by the United States would be a departure from the policy that it has consistently pursued since the days of Washington, in accordance with the advice of his farewell address, that we enter into no entangling alliances with European countries. Those of us who support the proposals of the league believe that were Washington living today he would not consider the league an entangling alliance. He had in mind such a treaty as that which the United States made with France, by which we were subjected to great embarrassment when France attempted to use our ports as bases of operation against England when we were at peace with England. He certainly did not have in mind a union of all the great powers of the world to enforce peace, and while he did dwell, and properly dwelt, on the very great advantage that the United States had in her isolation from European disputes, it was an isolation which does not now exist. In his day we were only three and a half millions of people, with thirteen states strung along the Atlantic seaboard. We were five times as far from Europe as we are now in respect to speed of transportation, and we were twenty-five times as far away in respect to speed of communication. We are now one hundred millions of people between the two oceans and between the Canadian line and the Gulf. We face the Pacific with California, Oregon, and Washington, which alone make us a Pacific power. We own Alaska, the northwestern corner of our continent, a dominion of immense extent, with natural resources as yet hardly calculable, and with a country capable of supporting a considerable body of population. It makes us a close neighbor of Russia across the Behring Straits; it brings us close to Japan with the islands of the Behring Sea. We own Hawaii, two thousand miles out to sea from San Francisco, with a population including seventy-five thousand Japanese laborers, the largest element of that population. We own the Philippine Islands, one hundred and forty thousand square miles, with eight millions of people under the eaves of Asia. We are properly anxious to maintain an open door to China and to share equally in the enormous trade which that country, with her four hundred teeming millions, is bound to furnish when organized capital and her wonderful laboring populations shall be intelligently directed towards the development of her naturally rich resources. Our discrimination against the Japanese and the Chinese

presents a possible cause of friction in the resentment that they now feel, which may lead to untoward emergencies. We own the Panama Canal in a country which was recently a part of a South American confederation. We have invested four hundred millions in that great world-enterprise to unite our eastern and western seaboard by cheap transportation, to increase the effectiveness of our navy, and to make a path for the world's commerce between the two great oceans.

We own Porto Rico with a million people, fifteen hundred miles out at sea from Florida, and we owe to those people protection at home and abroad, as they owe allegiance to us.

We have guaranteed the integrity of Cuba, and have reserved the right to enter and maintain the guaranty of life, liberty, and property, and to repress insurrection in that island. Since originally turning over the island to its people, we have had once to return there and restore peace and order. We have on our southern border the international nuisance of Mexico, and nobody can foresee the complications that will arise out of the anarchy there prevailing. We have the Monroe Doctrine still to maintain. Our relations to Europe have been shown to be very near, by our experience in pursuing lawfully our neutral rights in our trade upon the Atlantic Ocean with European countries. Both belligerents have violated our rights and, in the now nearly two years which have elapsed since the war began, we have been close to war in the defense of those rights. Contrast our present world-relations with those which we had in Washington's time. It would seem clear that the conditions have so changed as to justify a seeming departure from advice directed to such a different state of things. One may reasonably question whether the United States, by uniting with the other great powers to prevent the recurrence of a future world-war, may not risk less in assuming the obligations of a member of the league than by refusing to become such a member in view of her world-wide interests. But even if the risk of war to the United States would be greater by entering the league than by staying out of it, does not the United States have a duty as a member of the family of nations to do its part and run its necessary risk to make less probable the coming of such another war and such another disaster to the human race?

We are the richest nation in the world, and, in the sense of what we could do were we to make reasonable preparation, we are the most powerful nation in the world. We have been showered with good fortune. Our people have enjoyed a happiness known to no other people. Does not this impose upon us a sacred duty to join the other nations of the world in a fraternal spirit and with a willingness to make sacrifice if we can promote the general welfare of men?

At the close of this war the governments and the people of the belligerent countries, under the enormous burdens and suffering from the great losses of the war, will be in a condition of mind to accept and promote such

a plan for the enforcement of future peace. President Wilson, at the head of this administration and the initiator of our foreign policies under the Constitution, and Senator Lodge, the senior Republican member of the Committee on Foreign Relations, and therefore the leader of the opposition on such an issue, have both approved of the principles of the league to enforce peace. Sir Edward Grey and Lord Bryce have indicated their sympathy and support of the same principles, and we understand that M. Briand, of France, has similar views. We have found the greatest encouragement in our project on every hand among the people. We have raised a large fund to spread our propaganda. I ask your sympathy and support.

ORGANIZED RECREATION

WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER, DEPARTMENT EDITOR, "THE YOUTH'S COMPANION,"
BOSTON, MASS.

No better demonstration of my subject could have been arranged than the music we have just had. In any plan for organizing recreation, music must play an important part. Here we thousands have been singing together the common hymn of our common country. Singing together in the solemn joy of the singing has tended to weld our many thousands of individual minds into one great community mind. That welding is the task of organized recreation—to create the community mind. I am going to tell you how one town made this community state of mind its own, and, by so doing, organized its recreation. Perhaps I should better say that, by organizing its recreation, it made this state of mind its own. The two go hand in hand.

This town—Homewood is a good name for it—had real community pride, not community bumptiousness. Homewood said, "Homewood is a good town, but can make itself a much better town by organizing its recreational life." Homewood admitted without argument that all boys and girls—and their fathers and mothers—are entitled to the joy of life. It admitted that having a wholesome good time is a social, not an individual matter. Homewood knew that it was under bond to humanity to see that every one of its children had that sort of carefully planned play that would carry him victorious thru the struggle of life.

Homewood knew that the organization of recreation is a highly specialized profession. In it, competence must be supreme over incompetence. Homewood lookt about for that one of its institutions that would lead in organizing its recreation. Homewood realized that all the people and all their institutions had to be back of its attempt to organize its recreation. In its search for leadership, Homewood came upon the one institution that represents all the people, is paid for by all the people, the one institution that has within it more trained leadership than all the others put

together. So it was the Homewood schools that organized Homewood recreation. And nearly everywhere else it will be the school, the one all-embracing democratic institution, that will perform this task.

Perhaps you teachers are tired of being told of new tasks that only you can carry. You will be told of more in the future than you have been told of in the past. Until the sunset of all time, it will be you teachers who will lead in the fight to socialize humanity. You cannot educate man unless you socialize him. Men and women who are not trained in soul and mind to labor together efficiently for the common good are not educated. You do not educate a lad until you give him the will and the means to devote himself to the well-being of the common run of plain folks. The educated man is the man who can do heartily and well for the joy of the doing.

Organized recreation is the doing together of that which gives joy in the doing. It is primarily unselfish, cooperative. Tom Sawyer helped Homewood get its working definition. Tom made the whitewashing of Aunt Polly's fence the most desirable thing in the eyes of his boy friends. The whitewashing was well done because the whitewashers took joy in the whitewashing, even to the strip for good measure along the ground. Homewood remembered that work is effective in so far as it takes on the great characteristic of play—joy in the doing. The Homewood school man began his task by taking account of stock. He found that the need was knowledge of what to do and how to do it. Homewood had most of the play machinery that it needed. Much of it was in the wrong hands, in the hands of those who were using it for selfish, not community, ends.

Then, knowing conditions, the Homewood school adopted a recreation platform for Homewood. Senator Depew has likened the platform of a political party to that of a car. "You do not stand on it; you use it as a means of entrance." So Homewood used its recreation platform as a means of entrance into a thoroly socialized community life. Homewood combined the parts of its recreational program into a living organism that put Homewood life upon an efficient cooperative basis.

1. *The Community Center*.—Everything in organized recreation focuses at the community center, the most vital factor in every recreation program. Homewood followed L. J. Hanifan's definition: "The coming together of a group of people for social intercourse, intelligent stimulus, and constructive plans of common interest constitutes a community center." A community center is an idea, not a place.

Homewood soon learned that it is not what you do nor where you do it but how you do it that brings success. Your center must be the very embodiment of neighborliness. At the same time you must manage each activity with precision and skill. The center will not manage itself. Its technique is highly specialized. Homewood school men mastered it because they open-mindedly set themselves to do so and hired the best professional help.

The motion picture, used for community service, brought Homewood people to the centers and there gave them something very much worth while. Homewood's motion pictures competed successfully with commercial theaters, yet presented nothing which was not in harmony with the dignity of the school and in furtherance of its broad educational purposes. Just plain folks discovered that the motion picture takes everywhere to them, that it destroys for them the otherwise galling limitations of time, space, and circumstance. It gives them not pictures but actual transcripts of life as it is and life as they want it to be. Do we wonder that over night the motion picture has become a great teacher? or perhaps the great teacher? that we hail it as the greatest aid to education since the invention of printing?

In Homewood nothing was wrong with the motion picture. Something was decidedly wrong with the hands that had seized upon it. The Homewood school had left the motion picture to the commercial amusement interests instead of putting it to work for educational and social ends. At last, however, the school made its alliance with the motion picture. It had found that schools, women's clubs, and churches everywhere are presenting recreational motion pictures for community service. In its own community centers and schools Homewood is now using the best in drama, literature, science, and travel. Young folks and old come to be entertained—as is their right—and stay to be entertained and educated. Homewood finds that good motion pictures cost money, but that its people are more than willing to pay for what they get.

I cannot go into detail, for Dr. Johnson has given me a topic as limitless as the power of the motion picture. The brief statement of what Boston, Springfield, and other cities have done and what you can do is told in a leaflet that you can secure free from Eva Whiting White, director, Department of Extended Use of Public Schools, School Committee, Boston.

2. *Special-Day Festivals*.—All Homewood comes together to celebrate special-day festivals that promote good-fellowship, encourage intelligent cooperation, develop local leadership, and relate constructively to the life of Homewood.

The fall "get-together" occasion is a community fair, tied right into the life of the people. Homewood had always said that the farming country round about was part of the town, but the farmers never believed this statement until this community fair was held. The fair makes the growing of good potatoes and the baking of excellent bread a matter of community interest and pride. The community fair gilds the common tasks of daily life. That gilding, you know, is recreation: the putting of joy into the doing.

3. *Music*.—Homewood uses music as the great welding and socializing force of its community life. Homewood realizes that music is the only art that is within the reach of the trained and untrained alike. Homewood

makes community music accomplish as much for community solidarity as did the singing school beloved of its grandfathers.

Homewood paid attention to the example of a near-by village, the leaders of which had tried again and again to form a successful cooperative onion-selling society. The farmers were unable to do business together. Then they organized a singing society. They sang together for the fun of singing together, not for the music they produced. They acquired the habit of doing things together efficiently. A successful cooperative onion-selling organization was the inevitable result.

4. *Clubs in Agriculture and Home Economics.*—The Homewood boys' corn clubs teach the farmers of today and tomorrow how to grow more and better corn. More important, however, they teach farmers of today and tomorrow how to do worth-while things together for the joy of the doing, not for cash prizes.

The canning clubs perform great service in conserving tomatoes that otherwise would go to waste. The greatest product they conserve, however, is the girlhood of today and the womanhood of tomorrow. In the districts about Homewood, the canning club made the first effective attack upon the lonely monotony of rural feminine life. And making rural feminine life happy again is the first prerequisite to the solution of our greatest American problem—the rural problem.

In Homewood, mothers' clubs, millinery clubs, cooking clubs, manual-training clubs, and half a dozen other different kinds, put the spirit of cooperative fun into the teaching of utilitarian subjects. The girls invite their fathers and mothers and brothers and other girls' brothers to simple school feasts of their own preparing. The schoolhouses take the place of many a questionable resort as a meeting-place for the young men and women of Homewood. Their fathers and mothers, too, have learned that the school really belongs to the people after all. When the time comes for action upon the school budget, the city government is liberal in its appropriation. The politicians do not care about education, but the people do, because of Homewood's organization of recreation. Indeed, Homewood's organized recreation is not very popular with the politicians because it has transferred title to Homewood from them to the plain folks.

The parent Chautauqua Institution is an excellent example of the successful mixing of school work and recreation, much to the added effectiveness of each.

5. *Cooperation with Outside Agencies.*—In Homewood, the Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, Audubon Society, Knights of King Arthur, and half a dozen other organizations are useful. No one of them tries to answer the whole recreational need of the community. Homewood makes each one much more useful, however, by binding it up into the whole community enterprise.

6. *Drama and Folk-Play.*—Homewood gives simple dramas really its own. Homewood knows that the drama has no substitute as the free and

natural mode of expression for the passions, longings, and ideals of the people. Careful and intelligent planning put drama and folk-play actually at work in the daily life of Homewood.

7. *Athletics and Playground.*—I have told Homewood's story backward. Homewood began its organization of recreation with athletics and the playground, really the most unimportant part of its community enterprise. In Homewood, as everywhere else, many people thought that recreation is confined to the athletic field and playground. Homewood was wise, however, in proceeding from the definite, physically tangible playground to the much more important but less easily sensed recreational undertakings that I have outlined. In Homewood, no child has to walk more than a half-mile to reach a playground. In addition to regular physical training instruction in the schools, Homewood teaches every child games for playground and home use. Athletics are for all. The emphasis falls upon teamwork, not upon individual competition.

The corn-club boy near Homewood who raises more corn than his father has become a useful community institution. Just as useful, however, is the working farmer of forty whose record in the pole vault at a county meet is better than that of his son.

After Homewood had experimented briefly with volunteer direction, it hired a professionally trained supervisor. At first Homewood worried about the cost, but it soon found that, altho recreation costs money and a lot of it, recreational enterprises ultimately come very near paying their way. Money is not the important factor. The best steel equipment is expensive, but the apparatus for the first country playground in which I had a hand cost \$7.40. Since that time, however, we have not been so needlessly reckless in spending money for country playgrounds.

If you really want to know how to build a country playground with brains instead of money, and if you want a copy of Homewood's recreation program, write to either the United States Bureau of Education, Washington, or to the Extension Department of *The Youth's Companion*, Boston, Mass., for a copy of *Neighborhood Play*, published jointly by the United States Bureau of Education and *The Youth's Companion*. The booklet is theoretically out of print, but I have hidden a few thousand copies which will be available to you as long as the supply lasts.

You may be interested to know, in passing, that more than half a hundred of America's leading authorities cooperated to formulate this simple recreation program of Homewood. Before its publication in *The Youth's Companion* for April 8, 1915, it was tried out in several typical communities. Later it was developed by the Recreation Committee of the Southern Conference for Education and Industry. I have been told of literally hundreds of communities that have adopted all or a part of this simple Homewood recreation program. There is not anything new in it.

It is merely a simple formulation of principles and methods that are obvious—or should be.

Probably you have been saying, "Homewood has confused recreation and life." You are right. Homewood has confused recreation and life. That is why Homewood has made its recreational life efficient and its community life efficient. No more than education, is recreation a thing apart from life. Recreation is life itself, for without it life will not go on.

There are thousands of Homewoods. This simple recreation program is transforming community life everywhere. When you have this recreational program, or a large part of it, read into the life of your community, you will have it started well on its way toward the millenium.

Why? Because the efficient operation of these principles inevitably makes for the right state of mind—community mind. Organized recreation is doing something together for the joy of the doing. Organized recreation is that which puts zip, fire, force, spirit, *élan*, driving power, organization, cooperation, into the community.

THE ELIMINATION OF ILLITERACY

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The movement to eliminate illiteracy started in Rowan County, Kentucky, in the year 1911, when the moonlight schools were first established for the redemption of illiterate women and men. Moonlight schools now dot portions of a territory extending from the coast of Maryland to the coast of California, and from Michigan in the north to Louisiana in the south. And even in quarters where the movement exists and does not bear the name of the moonlight school, it bears the unmistakable stamp of an idea that emanated solely from it. In 1914, the first illiteracy commission in the world was created by the Kentucky legislature, its purpose being to seek illiterates and to bring to them speedy relief. Now the popular fancy of statesmen wise and great, who wish to prove their devotion to the people and their interest in the welfare of the state, is to create illiteracy commissions. The time will come when this age when counties have their thousands, cities their tens of thousands, and states their hundreds of thousands of illiterates will be known in educational history as one of the dark ages. Excuses will be sought for our long negligence and explanations will be made for our seeming indifference. Relief from illiteracy will appear so simple that such a waste of human intellect will seem unnecessarily criminal.

Some of us now excuse our negligence of the adult illiterate by saying that he is difficult to approach. Others say that, in reality, he does not wish to learn. "This is the most unkindest cut of all"—to deny him his

portion and then to say that it is done by his own desire. It is unkind, first, because it is untrue. Then it is unkind because, even if he chose to remain in ignorance, his judgment should not be accepted in this any more than in any other matter vital to himself and to the state. But he does not choose to remain in ignorance. He craves to learn. He hungers and thirsts for knowledge. You seldom find an illiterate who does not accept with joy and gratitude an opportunity when that opportunity is offered in a spirit of sincerity and good faith. In Rowan County, out of 1152 illiterate, we found but four who refused instruction, and these did not refuse it, I am sure, because they did not want it, but simply because they in some way misunderstood. Our county illiteracy agent in Leslie County last year visited 1000 illiterates to offer them instruction in the moonlight schools. He found but two out of the thousand who were not eager and glad to learn.

Most of the illiterates labor under the fallacy which has been communicated to them by those who are educated, and ought to know better, that the state of plasticity of the mind is limited by the law which fixes the age of school attendance, and that at twenty and twenty-one, or whatever the limit of the school age may be in the different states, the undeveloped brain dries up or evaporates, or that the walls thicken and nothing can penetrate. One of the first needs in the elimination of illiteracy is to remove the doubt of illiterates and to convince them that they can learn; next to teaching them, this is the highest privilege that I know. No sweeter revelation was ever made to mortal than that which is made to an illiterate when a friend of education and of his tells him that simple truth, that he can learn to read and write much more quickly than can a child. Whether it is his earnestness of purpose, whether his hunger for knowledge long denied, whether because of an already large store of knowledge gained in the school of life and needing but the perusal of a book to crystallize it or the use of a pen to express it, or whatever may be the cause, it is true that he can learn, if normal, within a time so incredibly short that those who never saw him do it cannot even conceive. Of course, there are some dense minds, and there are teachers who make learning a long-drawn-out process—a tiresome thing. Mrs. A. J. White, the woman who wrote the first letter to me from the moonlight schools, learned to read and write in ten lessons.

The best way of eliminating illiteracy is to teach the illiterates. The best plan we have found for reaching illiterates is to approach them in person in a humble spirit and offer them an opportunity. Since they cannot read placards, letters, nor notes of invitation, how else are you going to reach them? The best hour to teach them is at evening time; for illiterates, more than any others, are chained to labor by day, and evening is their leisure time. The best place that we have found for teaching them is in the moonlight school. There are other places, I grant, but since

illiteracy is twice as prevalent in rural as in urban sections, of necessity, the moonlight school, which is a rural and small-town institution, will minister more largely than any other in its elimination. We have moonlight schools principally in the public schoolhouses; but not in the schoolhouses alone. In Kentucky, we have moonlight schools in the schoolhouses; moonlight schools in homes; moonlight schools in the women's clubs; moonlight schools in distilleries and factories; moonlight schools in the mines; moonlight schools in penitentiaries and jails. The proper persons to teach the illiterates are the public-school teachers. They are trained, prepared, and stationed for the work. It is their duty and their privilege and their opportunity for distinguished patriotic service. We should not expect laymen, or church people to cure an evil in our field, nor should we submit to their performing a duty which is so clearly and essentially our own. No paid service to illiterates can equal that of the volunteer teacher. His service has in it a spirit which paid service can never approach. Some day I expect to see institutions in all communities, rural and urban, where grown men and women receive elementary instruction, and to see them provided with salaried teachers, but I prefer not to see it while the purpose of such schools is solely the emancipation of illiterates; for I do not believe that there should be a charge for helping a brother out of the ditch, nor for loosing his fetters, nor for unlocking his prison door.

I repeat that there is but one way to eliminate illiteracy and that is to teach the illiterates. There is but one time to teach them, and that is now. It is a problem which has come up in this decade for solution and it will not down until we have solved it and given to every illiterate his chance. They cannot wait for a system of state or governmental aid. We must work out such a system at the same time that we are eliminating illiteracy, so that illiteracy once rooted can never appear in alarming numbers nor blight any individual long in the future. We must so quicken the public conscience that the pages of statute books, now so silent as to the treatment of adult illiteracy, will have on them laws both for its prevention and its cure. We must create such overwhelming sentiment in favor of providing opportunities for illiterate women and men that states will vie with each other in provisions for their redemption. We must make illiteracy statistics appear so shameful, so lurid, and so startling as to appall all who read them. We must bring those who read them to see in such figures the pathetic picture of the benighted men and women which they represent. We must make them understand that behind those figures there are facts, fearful, appalling, startling facts, for behind them lurk most of the poverty, the degradation, lawlessness, the shiftlessness, the crime to be found in this country. We must create such public sentiment that the county or state with an illiterate in it must explain and feel compelled to explain, and being unable to explain, will apologize and reform. We must so perfect our methods of taking the census that every illiterate in county or state will be

known and will know that he is known, and unfavorably known, to the entire citizenry. We must create a wholesome contempt for a wilful illiterate, a profound pity for a helpless one, and an extreme pride in a redeemed one.

If the states which are striving to eliminate illiteracy are attempting an impractical and impossible thing, if they are wasting time and energy chasing a will-o-the-wisp, then the leaders here can do no more kind or noble deed than to restrain them from further effort, to dissuade them from their course. If, on the other hand, they are solving a vital educational problem and solving it successfully; if they are eliminating illiteracy and with it are eliminating its attendant evils, then, those from states which are neglecting their illiterates and leaving them to grope in darkness must feel that they are guilty of a serious omission, if not a flagrant wrong.

You who live in states where illiteracy has not concerned the public conscience, and where its elimination has not been agitated nor discussed, and where no effective remedy has been proposed or tried, may believe it when the skeptic tells you that it cannot be done, that it is not worth while, or that the time might be more profitably spent in the elimination of child illiteracy alone. But let the skeptic tell it to Ambrose Witton, that Kentucky teacher who taught eighty-two illiterates within six weeks last year—all that his district had—let him tell it to Leslie County, where six hundred illiterates broke their chains and escaped last fall from the bondage of illiteracy; let him tell it to Tatnall County, Georgia, where from 1835 illiterates, they have subtracted all but 50, and these they propose to subtract this year. Let him tell it to North Carolina, where, says Dr. Joyner, they taught 10,000 to read and write in one month of moonlight school last year; let him tell it to old Kentucky where, in two years, we have taught 40,000, and where, by the year 1920, we intend to wipe it out. Let him tell it to any who have ever known the thrill of teaching a single illiterate and have witness his ardent pursuit of knowledge, his ready mastery of the subjects taught, his joy in the discovery of a single truth, his gratitude for a little help; let him tell it to those who know that next to his own development the dearest gift that can be bestowed upon a child is an enlightened parentage, and that if it cannot come before his birth and before his own development, it had better come after than not to come at all. Let the skeptic tell it to any of these and read in their eyes the measure of pity for one so deluded.

Those who delight in transferring to canvas the beauties of earth and sky, in tracing fair form and beauteous color may do it; those who delight in transforming marble block into figures of noble proportion and speaking likeness may do it; those who delight in perfecting the form and fragrance and color of flowers and in enriching the flavor and hue of fruits may do it; those who delight in impressing first lessons upon the plastic mind of a little child, molding his character and coloring his very soul, may do it;

but let it be mine to carry the light to the illiterate man as he sits in his mental darkness, straining his eyes gazing after his vanished opportunity, and agonizing in his secret soul over the precious thing which he has lost. Let it be mine to bring to him a new opportunity, a new hope, and a new birth. It is a task too holy, too Christ-like for me, I must confess, but I crave that merit and that alone which will fit me for this task.

*FIRST AID TO THE COUNTRY TEACHER—A SUGGESTION AS
TO VITALIZING THE COUNTRY SCHOOLS THRU
OUR PRESENT TEACHERS*

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In the time at my disposal, it is impossible with so large a subject to give more than a bare outline of suggestions. What is here outlined is being done in spots, here and there, in the country districts. It needs to be done everywhere. Nothing is suggested here that has not been tried successfully.

From examination of statistics published in 1913 by A. C. Monahan, of the United States Bureau of Education, it is perfectly obvious that, for the next generation or two, at least, from 30 to 40 per cent of all children who live in the open country will remain in the hands of teachers in the one-teacher schools. The instability of the rural teaching force of the United States is well known. In fact, statistics show the average term of office of rural teachers in the United States to be about three years. What is the preparation of these teachers for the business of citizen-making? A study made by the superintendent of public instruction of Kansas shows that of the total number of rural elementary teachers in both one- and two-room schools, less than 5 per cent were college and normal graduates; 31 per cent were high-school graduates; 4 per cent had a partial college or normal course; 20 per cent had partial high-school courses; and 36 per cent had no high-school education at all. The number of experienced teachers was only 20 per cent of the whole. Statistics from other states show that similar conditions exist throughout the country.

If all the teachers in our rural schools were competent citizen-makers; if they were men and women not only with energy and foresight, but also with the proper training and the vision of the country community as it might and should be; if they were all backed by school boards anxious and able to make their work effective—then it might be excusable to drop them down into their respective schools to do their work with only such help as the county and state superintendents can give them, supplemented by teachers' institutes, summer normal courses, and the very limited forms of extension work which the states offer. But, however well the modern

normal schools may fit the teachers of the future for rural work, statistics show that few of the teachers actually in service have had any normal-school training, or indeed, any professional training at all.

Now, fortunately, most of these teachers are willing, and even eager, to learn. But to expect them to adopt a social outlook, and to evolve a course of study outside of the textbooks without help, is to expect the impossible. What, actually, do they face when they enter the schoolroom for the first time? A lifeless course of study, a variety of "subjects" required by law, and usually required to be taught from a prescribed textbook! The duck-and-goose method of stuffing the children with materials scooped out of a textbook will not justify the faithful labor of the teachers, trained or untrained; will not justify the sublime and pathetic faith of the children; will not justify the financial outlay of the taxpayers. And yet, the great majority of untrained and inexperienced teachers are as little capable of freeing themselves from it unaided as the average farmer is capable of freeing himself from worn-out and inefficient agricultural methods without the aid of a demonstration agent. So long as teachers are unable to attend the normal schools, it is essential to the development of efficiency in the rural schools that the normal schools, or their equivalent, should go to them. Yes, more. Demonstration methods must be used with them as with those who have received the traditional training in agriculture. They need not merely to be told, but to be shown how to base the course of study upon the activities of the community; how to derive the materials of education out of the everyday activities of the children as normal members of the community.

Who is going to be the actual demonstration agent for the country teachers? Hitherto we have relied principally upon the county superintendent, not only to administer the business affairs of the school system under his jurisdiction, but also to supervise the work of the teachers and to give them the outlook and the training which only the few have been able to secure from the normal schools. It has become increasingly evident that the county unit is so large that not even the most competent superintendent can attend to both the administrative and the supervisory work.

To carry inspiration and technical training to the teachers who cannot go to the training schools, several states have made statutory provision for closer supervision than the unaided county or township superintendent can possibly give. In different states these new officials go by different titles—supervisors, inspectors, supervising teachers—but under any name, their work is to carry first aid to the rural teacher while she is on the job of citizen-making. The work of the supervisors has resulted in better daily programs and courses of study; better equipment and buildings; more school libraries; a deeper interest among the patrons; and, best of all, the quality of the teaching has greatly improved.

In some of the southern states, the emphasis in supervision has been placed on simple industrial work. I wish to dwell on this somewhat at length, because, with a great many other students of the rural-school problem, I hold that the country school is not performing, and cannot perform to its full ability, its function of making citizens, by the mere extension of the present school term, and by a continuance of the present course of study largely based on textbook work, and only slightly related to the life of the community in which it is situated. I believe this to be universally admitted now. The day is already at hand when the rural school must control the food-supply of this nation. The child should get, at the school and thru the school, everything that he needs for his normal growth as a citizen. A purely academic course of study—the kind that we now have—causes the school to become an active emigration bureau, and either depopulates the community, or, at least, keeps it at a stagnant standstill. The value of any theory is in its application—the value of an education likewise.

Those of us thruout our common country who have taken an active interest in this matter of revitalizing the rural schools have been imprest not only with the great benefit that has been the result of the supervisory work mentioned above, but also with the new life that has come into our rural communities where agricultural demonstration and extension work has been done, and with the new life that has come into the country schools where there has been a cooperation between the schools and the extension forces.

The general plan as workt out in some of the counties is for the school authorities and the extension departments of agricultural colleges to employ jointly supervising industrial teachers, whose duties include the supervision of the teaching work of the country schools during the session, and the organization and supervision of the girls' garden and canning clubs during the spring, summer, and early fall. In this way the supervising teacher comes into intimate contact with, and helps to direct, the school work of the boys and girls, and also directs these school girls in their garden and canning work during vacation. This work is done by women. Thus far we have been unable to link the boys' club work directly with the course of study, except in a limited number of schools where agriculture is taught.

In addition to supervising the schools during the session, these teachers organize garden clubs in the spring, and act as demonstration agents in gardening, poultry-raising, and domestic science for the girls, and their mothers, during the vacation months. Many of them therefore are employed the year round. They do anything and everything that will show the community how to improve its school and its life. They insist on painted or whitewasht schoolhouses; on clean school yards; clean windows; clean rooms; clean floors; fresh air in the schoolroom; clean outhouses; and clean children. They help the teachers to arrange their

daily program; they sometimes take charge of and teach their classes; they introduce cooking, sewing, and manual training, even into the most isolated one-room schools. They show the teachers how to correlate work; how to use the abundant, but now neglected, materials of community life to enrich the course of study; they visit the homes of the people and organize school leagues; they suggest ways to raise money for school improvements.

The supervising teachers are required to submit a monthly accounting of their time, and they themselves are supervised by the county superintendents and other school and extension authorities.

I have visited counties both before and after this supervisory work was undertaken, and I do not exaggerate in saying that I have seen the school work and the agricultural work of community after community literally revolutionized. What a thrilling thing it is to see the people of a community absolutely a unit in community-improvement, with the school as the center and the dynamo, sending out both the inspiration and the direction of everything that goes to improve the community life. And to me one of the most beautiful things about this form of cooperation is that it need not, and should not, draw the color line. In fact, in some communities this revitalization began first in the schools for colored children, and the results were so marked that it attracted the favorable attention of the white people. In the last eight years, this cooperative supervisory work has caused the schools for colored children in the state of Virginia to make more progress than in the previous thirty-six years combined.

I know of two very rural counties where a supervising teacher began work in the one-room and two-room schools, equipping each of them at an expense of \$12 for the cooking utensils and \$5 for the tools for the boys. The boys used the tools to make cupboards, tables, and shelves for the workroom, which was built by the community. The girls made muslin curtains for the cupboards; the cupboards were made from ordinary boxes. The girls made napkins for the tables by hemstitching sugar-bags, saved at home. The pupils bring the supplies for the kitchen larder from home and cook potatoes, rice, soup, eggs, coffee, breads, and cakes. The cooking class serves something hot for lunch every school day. The girls and boys learn how to set the table, how to serve a meal, and how to eat a meal—much neglected factors in educating our country children.

By studying the distribution of food stuffs, the sources of textiles, the measurements necessary for making garments, the relative quantities of materials needed for cooking, the children learn the geography, arithmetic, spelling, writing, reading, and language of the everyday life, instead of learning these things as subjects related to an artificial life.

How is this started? Simply by having a teacher who knows how and who goes from school to school and shows the teacher and children in each school how to do these things, and in this way develops in the teacher, and

in some of the pupils, the capacity to lead, so that before long the visits of the industrial teacher need not be so frequent.

The boys go into the woods, select the wood, cut and prepare it for use. They have made farm rakes, ax handles, tables, bookshelves, tabourets, umbrella stands, hatchet handles, picture frames, hall trees, etc. As this industrial teacher well says: "These country boys may not turn out as many articles, or as well-made ones, as the more regularly conducted classes of the city schools with elaborate equipment, but we are aiming to make men, not furniture."

In the schools in these counties this teacher has shown the teachers and children how to make good mats and baskets out of the wild honey-suckle that grows profusely along the roadways, and how to make baskets out of pine needles and corn shucks and the ordinary willow. One of the prettiest sights in one of these counties was that recently seen of a group of twelve happy children making baskets under the trees at the school, while another group of the older girls were in the workroom, cooking and sewing, and the larger boys were in another part of the school yard making a fireless cooker and a seed-tester—every child busy doing something purposeful, and, therefore, every child happy and keeping good order, even if they were laughing and talking. This is education. This is making efficient citizenship. This is the function, and the sole function, of the public school. And out of all this work, and out of the boys' corn-club work and the girls' garden-club work can be got, and should be got, and, I am glad to say, in schools like these that I have just described are got, the very best lessons in language, writing, reading, spelling, geography, arithmetic, geometry, and botany, as well as lessons in industry, in keen observation, in judgment, in patience, in will-power, in that purposeful work which goes to mold into efficient citizenship the boy power and the girl power now going to waste in most of our country communities; in that purposeful work which spells character—the only thing on God's earth that is worth living for, the only thing on earth worth dying for, and the only thing we can and must carry into the presence of that great Maker whom all of us must meet.

Practical industrial training for rural children can be taught in the smallest rural schools. If we are to wait for elaborate equipment, for a full school treasury, and for teachers already trained for this purpose, we will wait until Gabriel blows his trumpet. I have never seen a community so poor and so backward that practical industrial training could not be introduced in its schools, and successfully conducted.

At present this work is being done only in spots; it should be universally done. And one of the best things about it is that it takes more effort than it does money; it is a matter not so much of finance as of attitude. It does not need an elaborate equipment, but it does need a consecrated and profound belief that such work is education of the very best sort—the

sort that makes good citizens. It requires nothing in the world but a little piece of land for farm or garden work, and not even that much for the indoor work. Manual training can be started with a boy, a broom handle, and a knife. And it is a fact that when we find a method by which the very poorest and most needy person in a community can improve himself or herself, that method can reach equally well every other citizen in the community—rich or poor. The method here outlined comes nearer than anything else I know to enabling men and women, boys and girls, to turn adverse conditions into solid achievements.

The plan, as already tried, helps to break up the isolation to which the citizen-maker in the small rural school is subjected; gives her a definite and interesting aim, and this tends to hold her in one place; helps her to prepare herself while teaching; and puts life into a moribund course of study.

THE SECULAR FREE SCHOOLS

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The public schools of today were known originally as the free, the common schools. The state constitutions under whose authority state-supported school systems were established employ the terms "free" and "common"; "free," "common," and "public" are used interchangeably at the present time.

"Free" was written into the title of this paper because it points the American spirit and attitude toward education. Thought is free. "The universe of experience is her province." Therefore education, thought's assistant, helping mind to deepen and interpret experience, should be made free to all. "Secular" does not appear in the articles on education in the state constitutions, but "sectarian" is used in forty-six of the forty-eight constitutions now in force. "Secular" is introduced here as the opposite of "sectarian."

Important questions have arisen in the life of the free school. Occasionally they have become local issues in politics, but they have not developed into crises hostile to the perpetuity of the public-school systems. Interest in different questions has not always been of equal intensity in all sections of this widespread country; but the variations in interest have been in intensity only—the lines of thought that map the course of the public schools are essentially coincident throughout the nation.

The aim of America's free schools is to develop intelligence and morality in individual, community, and political life. A government of the people, by the people, and for the people must, if it is to continue, be supported by a people intellectually awake and morally courageous. How to elevate the individual and a special part of the community is the problem of education in the limited confines of the private and the church schools, but how to elevate

the individual, the community, and the state thru common possession, common understanding, and common practice of the higher moral and intellectual life is the special problem of America's common schools. The doors of the common schools open to all children and youths, whatever be their ancestry, their social life, their belief or non-belief in eternal life.

Education is not a problem in and of itself; it is not a problem whose solution can ever be arrived at for all time. It is a problem whose origin and solution are in the traditions, the quality of the social consciousness, and the trend of present-day activities of the people, the nation wrestling with its conditions. It is a problem whose conditions change with the life of a people. When a new condition is injected into the problem of education, its meaning is often obscured by the medley of traditions, the confusions in the social consciousness as regards its purpose, and the rapidly changing trend of present-day activities in this young nation of many religions and of many Old World peoples.

The solution of the problem with its new condition is often far afield from what in the beginning seemed to be the issue at stake.

Each of the forty-eight states controls its public-school system, yet the issues in the forty-eight systems may be grouped under two heads: subjects of instruction, and taxation for maintenance. Sometimes the issues sway to and fro under both heads, so closely related are ideals of universal education and ideas of its pecuniary value. Today the first group, subjects of instruction, is in the foreground, with vocational training and religious instruction pressing hard for attention, to the exclusion of other subjects. Vocational training is rapidly approaching settlement in those states in which differences of opinion have been greatest. It promises soon to have passed the stage of discussion and to be considered wholly from a constructive point of view. Religious instruction is much more a subject of discussion among the clergy of the various communions than among the members of the public-school teaching force.

With a full realization of the unreadiness of this Association to touch the question of religious instruction in its public meetings, altho it is a common subject of private conversation, I shall make a brief statement of the influence of secularism on public-school instruction. The subjects that have been influenced by secularism are history, science, mathematics, and ethics.

History is often the innocent cause of anxiety and trouble for teachers in the free schools. Sometimes the public-school teacher finds himself quoting with commendation an author whose treatment of controverted points, all unwittingly to the teacher, savors of infidelity or condemnable theology to the sectarian watching with the tenets or history of his church in mind. And yet with experience the teachers in the secular schools learn to read with intelligence the accounts written by writers of opposing sects, and to appreciate the necessity for reading both sides if an attitude of fairness

is to be developed in the minds of American high-school boys and girls, so that they shall be just, not bigoted. Certainly one is obliged to admit that it needs a Daniel to speak of the theological wars of mediæval times, the relation of Henry VIII to the Church of England, and other subjects that form the major part of the history of the Middle Ages as now written. The history of our own country presents only a few instances in which reference is made to sectarian difficulties: the settlement of the Puritans in New England, the banishment of Roger Williams, the settlement of Maryland by Roman Catholics and Protestants. In the public school, the ecclesiastical history of the Puritans is centered on the separation effected in England, the banishment of Roger Williams is accompanied by a remark on the lack, at that time, of religious toleration as known in the United States today, the settlement of Maryland is pointed out as one in which religious and political toleration was practised, Catholics and Protestants living and working together harmoniously.

With the present tendency to rule out of the free or public school all sectarianism, there will be developed ere long an equally strong tendency to question the ability of a teacher whose knowledge of history has been acquired in a sectarian school to teach history as required in the state schools. A partial solution of the difficulty may seem to lie in the omission from school histories of all wars and controversies based upon religion. But the fact remains that to do so would mean the elimination of whole centuries of European history, and make the progress of civilization and even the fate of nations largely inexplicable. Moreover, it would be especially calamitous at a time when historians are raising history to the rank of a science, and offering, in their impartial treatment of the data of the past, an example of that disciplined spirit and universal outlook which are perhaps the most precious elements of citizenship as well as of education.

Science is taught in the secular public school as a study of the life-processes of nature. The idea of development, evolution, is basic. The hypotheses that were accepted in the past as the unchangeable laws of the universe are presented briefly, in order to point out the strides made by scientific study in gaining a conception of the coherency of the world. The openness of mind of the scientist, his readiness to recognize the unexpected, and the need for modification of accepted hypotheses, fit the boy and girl for citizenship in a country in which the people are to be the government. The problem of reconciling a supernatural origin of the universe with the hypotheses of twentieth-century science does not arise.

Mathematics has settled its problems of theology in so far that there is neither secular nor sectarian arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Since the days of Galileo and Copernicus, astronomy has not occupied a prominent position as a subject of dispute.

We now come to our last subdivision of subjects taught—morals and ethics, or the foundations of character. This Association has, in lectures,

in discussions, in committee work extending over several years, and in declarations of its fundamental principles, iterated and reiterated its demand for a higher, a more intelligent type of morality, if this country is to fulfil its high destiny. With varying degrees of success the public schools in widely separated districts are working out a constructive morality that shall buttress the moral conceptions of the boys and girls coming from homes representing many nationalities, all types of religions, and innumerable moral standards.

The free schools are, in their character as secular schools, constructing a new ideal of the state or public free school. Some superintendents, principals, and teachers have not the educational insight necessary to work out the meaning of morality and intelligence in self-government as the chief aim of America's public schools. Intelligence in commerce and industry, in science and letters, seems to such minds to comprehend the whole. But, in many schools throught this country, the public free schools, the secular schools, are incorporating in their daily practice the beginnings, the foundations, of civil and political liberty. A few specify their efforts by giving them a new name: pupil government, a self-governing school, student-control. The great majority seek no name; they merely develop a better government, one more nearly like that which a democracy should have. Teachers who are studying the causes of the failure of education to prepare all boys and girls to encounter successfully the duties that will be theirs after graduation from the elementary and high schools know the cause of much of the failure. Knowing it, they have ceased to conduct the school as the kingdom of the teacher whose young subjects are graded in morality in due proportion to their degree of obedience to the laws of that kingdom as laid down by the principal or teacher. Thirty years ago Colonel Parker, who understood government by the people as a government whose beginnings should be practised by little children as well as the older ones, used every morning to ask all gathered in general assembly of the Cook County Normal School, ranging from kindergartners to elementary, high-school and normal students, and teachers: "What is the word for to-day?" Back came the answer, "Responsibility." It was not responsibility in obedience to laws promulgated as laid down by a being who could not make a mistake. It was active responsibility—active in doing the right; responsible in endeavoring to know the right at that particular moment, and under that particular condition, and then doing it. The colonel had vision that connected the training of the free school with our form of government and its special needs. In the reaction against the old conception of school government and discipline, many traditions have been eliminated, particularly those founded on the assumption that unquestioning obedience is of itself the cardinal virtue. But certain traditions of this democracy are retained, chief among which, written into the preamble of the constitutions of forty-one states, is the belief that thru "the goodness of Almighty God

we enjoy the blessings of civil and religious liberty." The phraseology is not the same in the forty-one preambles, but the content is unflinching recognition of the Supreme Ruler of the universe and gratitude for the freedom, the liberty, which is to be perpetuated for posterity. Five states, New Hampshire, Delaware, Vermont, Tennessee, and Oregon, while not writing such belief into their preambles, have asserted in their respective declarations of rights, or bills of rights, incorporated in their state constitutions, "the right to worship Almighty God according to the dictates of conscience." This tradition of the godly foundation of our state governments, express in the documents authorizing the establishment of systems of free schools, is treasured by the great army of public-school teachers—an army whose rank and file are, almost without exception, communicants in some one of the divisions of the church of God.

In each state constitution is an article on education. The articles on education or on school lands, with two exceptions, contain positive restrictions on the levying of taxes or the making of appropriations for "sectarian schools" or for "religious instruction." Different constructions are given to the meaning of religious instruction. The secular schools have construed such instruction to include lessons in the catechism and tenets of any church, the repetition or recitation of church prayers, the singing of church hymns, the practice of genuflections or bodily attitudes associated with church service. This construction makes religious and sectarian instruction synonymous. The judiciary in some states, notably in Wisconsin, has defined religious instruction; the judiciary of each and every state will in time be called upon to define religious instruction for its state. Years hence, this National Education Association may attempt a new definition.

Thus far, however, no construction of the meaning of religious instruction obliges the secular free schools to limit their instruction to a commercial, a utilitarian view of life; and no construction of sectarian or religious instruction forbids the common schools to teach so that the boys and girls shall impress on their minds and engrave in their hearts the truth that purity in life and thought is the first essential in achieving dominion over oneself.

The men and women who for a long time insidiously, and in recent times boldly, have tried to reduce the enrolment of girls in the public high schools in different sections of this country should weigh well the significance to their own souls of their un-American procedure.

Two communions, the Roman Catholics and the Lutherans, where they have been able financially to build schoolhouses, have withdrawn hundreds of thousands of children from the public free schools, in order that all subjects taught them shall be presented from the standpoint of the church. The Religious Education Association, comprising in its membership clergy and laity from all the Protestant denominations and from the

Episcopal church, adopted in March of this year a declaration of principles in which it is insisted that opportunity for religious instruction shall be given those being educated in the public schools, but that such instruction shall be given by the home, the church, and the private school.

What is the corollary to this conviction of the church, Protestant and Catholic, that more religious instruction and training must be given to the public-school children? I sincerely hope the corollary is not that in course of time sectarian schools will supplant the public schools. If such a corollary follows, the solution of the problem of religious training will be far afield from the issue that now seems to be at stake—a higher degree of spirituality in America.

The instruction that will develop a fine conscience, reverence for the good, a life of action and renunciation worthy to be everlasting, is greatly to be desired. The freedom, civil, political, and religious, that was written by the American people into their respective state constitutions is greatly to be desired.

We, the secular free-school teachers, must be a potent force in the solution of this problem before us. As we advance and retreat in our efforts to divine the means by which this instruction and this freedom shall be made effective in education, we can say, "America, because you build for mankind, we build for you."

THE PLACE OF THE UNIVERSITY IN A DEMOCRACY

CHARLES R. VAN HISE, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.

The university movement reached its first large development in this country in the endowed institution. Indeed, until 1850, secondary education was mainly in the private academy. The university as a tax-supported institution was only slowly recognized, and the great development of institutions of this class has been within the past twenty-five years. Until a few years ago, the endowed institution was dominant; but in recent years the rise of the state university has been marvelous. The two classes of institutions have special peculiarities which are sources both of strength and of weakness.

THE ENDOWED INSTITUTION

The great strength of the endowed institution is its relative freedom from the necessity to reflect immediate needs. This has given it great advantage in development along its own lines. The humanities, the social sciences, the pure sciences, art—all are strong in the endowed institutions. The trustees of the institutions do not feel the necessity of considering to any greater degree than they desire the special needs of the community or state in which they are located. In consequence of this situation, and

because of the development of the endowed institutions before the expansion of applied science, the endowed universities in their teaching, in their productive scholarship, in the languages broadly, in pure science, and in art are stronger than the state universities. They have accomplished great things in the past in the advancement of knowledge and the creation of scholars. In these fields, and doubtless in others, they will maintain their primacy for a considerable period in the future. These characteristics are matters of special pride and gratification to the professorial staffs of the endowed institutions.

With the undoubted advantages which go with this situation, there are dangers. One of the dangers of the independence of the endowed institution is that it may think too much of its own advancement and not recognize sufficiently that it is in fact a public trust. In consequence of this, its students, its faculty, its alumni, its staff may think too much about the advancement of the institution and too little about the advancement of the commonwealth in which it is located.

The second danger in the endowed institution is that it may feel a special obligation to one class of men—those that support it. Of necessity the funds of the endowed institution come from the well-to-do or the rich. In consequence of this fact the institution may to an undue extent reflect the spirit and interests of this class. In saying this I do not mean to imply any dishonesty; but it is inevitable that the spirit of the institution does to some extent respond to its environment.

THE STATE UNIVERSITIES

The earlier state universities, in both the South and West, were modeled as closely as possible upon the eastern institutions; and the development of the two classes has been in a large measure parallel. In all fundamental lines there is no substantial difference between the endowed and the state university. As compared with their points of likeness, their elements of difference are subordinate. Still, in recent years there have appeared in state institutions certain tendencies which differentiate them to some extent from private foundations.

Some time ago I asked a professor who, for a number of years, had been at a state university and since that time has been in one of the largest eastern institutions, as to the most characteristic difference between them. I explained that I meant as to spirit, not as to size, prestige, nor income. The answer was that the state university feels a special obligation toward the state which supports it, whereas the endowed university feels no exceptional obligation to the commonwealth in which it is located. It appears to me that this statement gives the chief distinction between the two classes of institutions.

The state university does feel a special obligation to the commonwealth in which it is situated. Indeed, it recognizes this obligation as a first duty.

By all known methods it disseminates information discovered in all parts of the world to the people of the state. The state university feels bound to become the scientific adviser of the state. It feels bound to investigate those questions which concern the interests of the state. If its state is a potato-producing region, it studies the diseases of potatoes; it inquires into the conditions of tuberculosis in the state, both animal and human, and devises laws for its elimination; it values the public utilities for the state officers; it assists the legislative committees in problems of political science; it develops courses for training teachers for the secondary schools; it provides for professional training, from courses in agriculture to courses in household science. Its field of investigation covers all of the practical problems of the state—agricultural, industrial, political, social, and moral. In short, the university aims to become the instrument of the state in its upbuilding—material, intellectual, and spiritual. Beginning with the same aims as private foundations, this has gradually become the special purpose of the state university—a purpose which is more nearly realized in the highly developed institutions than in those less advanced.

Because of the development, as applied sciences, of a large number of subjects which in the past were merely arts, the state university has made a great contribution. Agriculture, home economics, and many other sciences are rapidly becoming professions; and the number who follow these vocations in the professional spirit is increasing at an amazing rate. Thus these subjects are transformed from manual to intellectual vocations. In this work of expanding the boundaries of the professions beyond law, medicine, and the ministry to include a vast number of vocations, the endowed institutions have shared, especially as regards commerce, engineering, and journalism; but in this great movement the state universities may fairly claim a very important position, if not one of leadership.

The state universities, like the endowed institutions, have special points of strength and of weakness. The strength of the state university lies in its close relations to the state. These relations between the university and the state bind them closely together. The growth of the university is dependent upon the state. The state owns the university; and every citizen feels himself to be a stockholder in that ownership. But associated with these close relations, which are the strength of the state university, are also its most serious dangers. These are that the university may be politically controlled, and that it may be hampered in its work.

To the first of these dangers, a state university is especially exposed in its earlier years. It speaks well for the democracy of this country that, as the states have developed, the danger of political interference in the university government has steadily become less. At the present time, there is no serious danger of political control in any of the older and stronger state universities.

The other danger of the close association of the university with the state—the danger of interference with its work—has two aspects: first, it may be demanded that the teaching which looks toward material ends shall be strong, while the humanities may be allowed to remain weak or not properly developed; and, secondly, freedom of teaching and investigation may be interfered with. The former is probably the more imminent danger for the majority of the institutions.

It is natural, indeed inevitable, that the people should demand that effective teaching, research, and extension of knowledge shall be provided in agriculture, in engineering, and in other lines from which a financial return from the investment may be shown. These demands are right and should be fully met by the university, but "the life is more than meat and the body is more than raiment." Shall the people demand of their university that it provide for their material needs and neglect the people themselves—their intellectual, artistic, moral, and spiritual development? The capacity of a state university to make the man himself, as a subject of study and capable of advancement, maintain a paramount position, will be the crucial test of the state university. The university authorities must insist that man shall not become subordinate to material gain. If the people will support a state university in which these ideals obtain, then it can be truly said that a democracy is a success.

The remaining danger of the close association of the state with the university is the possibility of interference with the freedom of teaching and investigation. If such interference occurs, it is likely to be indirect rather than direct, and is therefore all the more insidious. A sentiment may be developed or a situation may arise in a state such that the professor feels that he is not free to teach the truth as he sees it. To quote a phrase, he may feel that he must shade the truth somewhat.

For my own part, I have no doubt that in all the states in which the state universities are strongly established the overwhelming majority of the people are in favor of absolute freedom of teaching and investigation. But frequently the deep-seated dominant sentiment does not express itself, and there are always some who would place limitations upon the field of a university. But a university must insist that the whole domain of physical and human phenomena belongs within its scope; pure science, applied science, politics, morals, religion, are proper fields of study for a university. No part of the domain of human experience, knowledge, and ideas can be set off as forbidden ground.

In making this statement I do not mean to imply that the state university should dogmatize. The facts concerning any subject should be broadly dealt with; none should be hidden; their bearings should be considered with reference to the principles which flow from them, and always without bias. The attitude of the professor in regard to every subject should be that of a candid judge, not that of an advocate—the attitude of

an absolutely free and fearless judge who feels heavily the responsibility of his position of trust. The professor should consider the problem before him in the light of pure reason, with no thought but to find the truth, wholly uninfluenced by popular sentiment or passion. Shall the university be free to teach that a certain practice in agriculture is wrong, and to advocate a new and improved practice, and shall the same principle not apply in politics and in morals? Such a position would be intolerable. No institution which does not handle the humanities, in all their amplifications, under the same principles under which it handles the pure and applied sciences, is worthy of the name of a university.

THE COMMON IDEALS OF THE ENDOWED AND STATE UNIVERSITIES

The development of the graduate school in the state universities, which has brought to the foreground in those institutions the advancement of knowledge and the creation of scholars, has eliminated the greatest difference which existed between the endowed universities and the state universities. The recent deliberate adoption, by a number of the larger endowed institutions, of the definite policy of carrying out knowledge to the people, has brought the endowed institution closer to the state university. In every fundamental, their duties are alike. They are the institutions of the country upon which democracy must depend for leadership in the humanities, in science, in art, in politics.

It is by the free contest of ideas and ideals, often widely diverging, that progress is made. It is evident that no group of men has the right to assume that it has a monopoly of truth. The staff of a university, above most groups of men, should recognize the complexity of the facts, the impossibility of arriving at the absolute, and so without fear and without bias, with firmness, but with profound humility, present their ideas to the world to be accepted if found good and to be rejected if found inadequate.

At the inauguration of President A. Lawrence Lowell, of Harvard University, among the many high notes sounded, one clearly rang out above all others. Said James Bryce: "The university should reflect the spirit of the times without yielding to it." That is to say, the university must truly serve present needs, but it should also stand above them and lead to higher ideals.

The unrest which has characterized the first decade of this twentieth century has led to many new proposals in all fields. The conservatives have sometimes been disturbed because questions have arisen which in the past have been regarded as settled. On such questions, it has sometimes been said that the university should let the battle be fought out by others without any attempt at leadership. This position the university must firmly resist. Times of unrest, when new and important issues are arising, when old convictions are being questioned, are times when the men of

learning, who should know the facts broadly, and who have no purpose but the greatest good of the greatest number, should be absolutely free.

The progress of the nation will continue. The old ideals and ideas will be modified. The human race is ever moving upward and onward; but such movement always involves vexation, strife, dissention, often pain on the part of those who are disturbed in their convictions. No advance has ever been made without suffering; such is the cost of progress. Times of unrest, of changing ideas and ideals, are, above all, the times when the university should be most active in the guidance of public opinion. Advancement in the entire realm of ideas and ideals is the place of the university in a democracy.

THE PLACE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN A DEMOCRACY

JOHN R. KIRK, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

The question of the place and function of the normal school in a democracy raises other questions which are preliminary and fundamental. These questions are: (1) whether the people in a democracy should express the will of the democracy; (2) whether the judgment and the will of the democracy should determine the character and the extent of its institutions; (3) Whether there should always be in the democracy a dominant group constituting a specialized higher intelligence to do the thinking of the democracy for the democracy, and to determine for the democracy what the character and the limitations of the institutions and the utilities of the democracy should be.

The answer to these questions is that a democracy is not obliged to do its business by proxy. The people of the democracy have a right to think and act for themselves. Otherwise there is no democracy.

There is great temptation to base official action upon the idea that educational advancement must have origin and first take form in the minds of the highly cultured few; but a great deal of the most serviceable part of American education at the present time did not have birth in the brain of higher education circles. As a matter of fact, a large part of what is best in our scheme of education was first into the curriculum, and many of the former, traditional, non-functioning elements of the now somewhat expurgated curriculum were first out of the curriculum by the pressure of the will of the awakening democracy.

It is altogether fortunate that the rank and file of the democracy at times overrule the tradition-bound judgment locked up in higher education circles; and it is quite certain that there would now be no question as to the place of the normal school in the democracy, if the will of the democracy could be allowed to get at the issue.

The normal school is of the democracy and for the democracy. From the outset in the days of Horace Mann and David P. Page, the normal school has been, by reason of its agitations, a source of contention and rivalry, or, by reason of obsequious conservatism and flabby formalism, a negligible quantity in educational advancement. Its chief obstacle has always been traceable to higher education circles; and whenever the democracy has sought to establish normal schools, just then the existing higher education institutions have obstructed *in toto* the will of the democracy, or they have sought to dictate specifically what the curricula of such schools should not contain. They have not as a rule cared very much what superficialities or dogmas might get into the normal-school curricula, provided there could be assurance that the alleged sphere of existing institutions was not trespass upon.

Until some twenty odd years ago, college and university men, as a rule, regarded the professional preparation of teachers as unnecessary. Hence they naturally enough opposed the normal schools. But they now seem to believe in the preparation of teachers. In any event, about 80 per cent of all the colleges are obliged to have departments of education in order to avoid bankruptcy, while the best student-getting agency of the university is its school of education.

But the adjustment of the normal school to its place and function is gradually being grappled with by the people of the democracy. Each organized movement, on the part of external agencies, for the limitation of the normal school brings the issue to a more acute stage and final settlement nearer.

The long-dominant minority in each of the great political parties of America finds increasing difficulty in obstructing or manipulating the will of the democracy. The political dictator no longer enjoys a bed of roses. And so in education, any group of interested existing institutions combining to limit the field of an institution established by the democracy, and for the service of the democracy, must more and more reckon with the sensitized will of the democracy.

The initiative and referendum, the political equality of men and women, the recall of judges and their decisions—these and kindred ideals are working in the minds of the democracy. Universal education awakens the democracy. The elements of the democracy begin to think more freely for themselves. In education, the normal school, long limited and handicapped by external interference, begins more effectively to function, and thereby it justifies the hope and the confidence of the democracy.

Let one illustration suffice. A great educational foundation, with benevolent tho misguided purpose, enters a state of the Middle West. After investigation, it instigates reorganization of public higher education, with view to the establishment of one single, centralized, dominating institution in the state, with power to confer all the higher degrees, and thereby to

subordinate and control all other public education agencies. There are some months of agitation. Finally, representatives of the democracy in overwhelming preponderance make reply, and say, in substance: "You must take your hands off this institution of the democracy, which is to prepare teachers for all the public schools of the democracy. We, ourselves, will determine the place and function of our normal school."

The investigators, in turn, declare that it is unwise and uneconomical and wasteful for the democracy thru its own representatives thus to transact its own business, but the representatives of the democracy promptly proceed to enforce the will of the democracy, and vote larger sums of money for an expanding teacher-producing agency, with great buildings, laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, hospitals, athletic fields, and faculty, such as the earlier college man had not dreamt of; and the representatives of the democracy make these incontrovertible declarations: "All public-school education is the business of the democracy. You of the centralized higher education circles have had your eyes too much on the dead past. You have not wanted our children to have the instruction that would best function in their lives. You have obstructed the highest good of the greatest number. We are obliged to declare our freedom, and to think and act for ourselves. We have decided to have schools of our own, in which to educate teachers to direct all the activities of all the children in all the schools of the democracy."

The ideal of the democracy is further expressed by a young governor of a middle-western state. He had graduated from the university. He loved his Alma Mater, but he believed in the democracy. The schoolmaster visited the governor, and said: "Governor, the people want teachers in the high schools and in the elementary schools to teach manual arts, fine arts, domestic arts, cookery, civics, commercial studies, physical education, music, and other motivating subjects. Ought the normal school to do what the people want done?" And the governor answered: "The normal school is to produce teachers for the public schools of the democracy. The law says so. The people say so. The normal school must find out what it takes to produce capable teachers. You cannot wait for the college to do any part of it. The college has no exclusive sphere. No part of the subject-matter in education can be monopolized for the sake of anybody. Therefore, in the normal school you may teach Horace or calculus or whatever else is needed to make good teachers."

The place of the normal school in a democracy, therefore, is defined and determined by what it is called upon to do. It is an exclusively vocational institution. The full-grown normal school with means and opportunity and freedom prepares mature men and women to teach and supervise teaching in the public schools of every kind and grade. It covers four or more years in academic and pedagogic studies of college grade. Its requirements for entrance and for the Bachelor's degree are exactly equal

to those of the best colleges. Its graduates do not need to be recast, nor regraduated, nor relabeled by any other institution in order to secure permanent recognition in the teaching profession. They take rank, as they should, with the graduates of the medical college and the law school. A few of them already have good standing as graduate students. In the near future, large numbers of them will, after varying periods in teaching, enter graduate courses at their own will and pleasure. Not all of the states will in the near future have the full-fledged normal school. This will in part be due to interfering outside interests, in part to the unfruitful conservatism and caution of the normal-school administrators themselves.

But the short-course normal school, prematurely cut off at the end of the second year beyond the high school, cannot be regarded a permanency. Its inadequacy too often has to be explained by those who love it best. In many states it has been, and in some states it is now, reasonably serviceable. It is representative of a transition stage. It will be outgrown because good teachers cannot be made out of typical high-school graduates in two years' time.

The short-course normal school will have to be abandoned because the classifying of young intending teachers at the time they leave high school places public-school organization on an unsound basis. It arbitrarily puts one group of intending teachers, without regard to natural endowments, into the shorter-course normal school, there to be mechanically trained and drilled as professional elementary teachers, while another group, with equal disregard for natural ability, is sent into the longer-course university or college, to be made over into high-school teachers.

This traditional, arbitrary, and indefensible classification forces upon us the policy of keeping all the children from the first grade to the eighth grade inclusive under teachers who have the shorter preparation and who draw the lower salaries, and of furnishing for all the children above the eighth grade teachers of longer preparation and higher salaries. But it is perfectly clear, as any sensible man or woman ought to know, that it takes as much scholarship and skill and ability to teach successfully in the sixth grade as it does to teach in any class in the high school; and a square deal demands as much salary for the one as for the other.

Whenever we analyze these conditions, we see how unnatural and wasteful is the arbitrary classification of intending teachers which we now so widely practice. But the full-fledged normal school of the twentieth-century does not artificially and abnormally force one group of students into the mold of elementary teachers, and another group into the mold of high-school teachers. It differentiates the students gradually by natural processes, and not by premature conventional classifications.

The typical student does not, and cannot, begin to know himself or herself, until some time in the third or fourth year beyond the high school, and is not known by teachers earlier than that time. Therefore, it is a

wasteful and indefensible classification which seeks to determine the special professional function of the intending teacher prior to the junior or senior college year.

But the twentieth-century normal school is in process of constant readjustment. It will always have many forms of undergraduate college courses. It will always include a large part of the now slowly dissolving college of liberal arts. It will utilize all the available knowledge needed by public-school teachers in the elementary schools and high schools of city, town, village, and rural community.

The place of the twentieth-century normal school is within and of and close to the community life of the democracy. It will always conduct extensive and intensive studies, rational experimentation, and never ending but always varying demonstrations of all serviceable pedagogical procedure. Its place will always be among the leaders of constructive and productive educational thought in the state and the nation.

CITIZENSHIP IN A REPUBLIC

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN, LINCOLN, NEBR.

It is worth crossing half the continent to be able to join with the teachers of the United States in celebrating this, the 140th anniversary of our nation's independence. Your Association represents thirty thousand teachers, the responsible instructors of the great majority of our twenty-five million school children. You stand next to the nation's spiritual advisers in the importance of your work—the head being second only to the heart in the influence which it exerts on human destiny and happiness.

"Out of the heart are the issues of life," says the Wise Man, but the heart needs a trained mind to assist it if the life is to be largely fruitful. The heart directs, but education multiplies the individual's power and capacity for service. As educators you deal with morals as well as with mind and manners, and you share with the clergy the distinction of being the most poorly paid of all public servants, if payment is measured by salary alone. This injustice may be remedied in part, and should be remedied as far as possible, but there is one factor in the equation which cannot be eliminated. The preacher and the teacher find a satisfaction in the consciousness of being helpful to others, and this satisfaction is, in itself, no small compensation. It is a great privilege to be able to enter into the life of the young, to lead their thoughts into the right channels, to mold their opinions on vital questions, and to implant in them the ideals which control their lives. This opportunity, and the joy which comes with it, must be taken into account in estimating relative success. What educator, approaching the end of his career, would exchange his place in the hearts of his pupils for all the money collected by one who has

absorbed from the world without contributing in like proportion to society's progress?

While the teacher is primarily concerned with the development of mind and character, he cannot be indifferent to that which affects the body's welfare. Physical exercise is so essential that the gymnasium has come to be a part of every well-equipped school, and the teacher is expected to share in the enthusiasm which athletics excite.

Just now an effort is being made to substitute military training for the games of the playground. I hope that the teachers in our public schools will not yield to the clamor of militarism. Peace and not war is the normal state of man, and the teacher may well insist upon the postponement of any proposed changes in school method until such changes can be considered with calmness and deliberation.

If it is thought wise to give more attention to the physical development of our youth, the means can be found in a closer imitation of the Greeks, who by their national games provided contests which contributed to physical development. This Association might with propriety consider the wisdom of encouraging such a system. State and national prizes would stimulate an honorable rivalry which would be immensely valuable to our boys and girls, as measured by progress toward physical perfection. Ten million students contending for the honors awarded for skill and endurance in athletics would materially raise the average of health and strength.

As the teacher deals not only with students but with embryo voters—a term which will soon be applied to women as well as to men—it is in keeping with this day that I submit for your consideration a few fundamental propositions in connection with our government. I am led to do so by the conviction that we delay too long the teaching of the science of government. A majority of our voters do not go beyond the eighth grade of the common school, and therefore assume the responsibilities of citizenship without a clear and comprehensive understanding of the principles and methods of the government under which they live. I am sure I voice your sentiments when I plead for greater simplicity in the treatment of this subject, that it may be brought to the attention of the students at an earlier period in their school life.

I venture to present ten propositions:

1. The social ideal toward which the world is moving requires that human institutions shall approximate toward the divine measure of rewards, and this can only be realized when each individual is able to draw from society a reward proportionate to his contribution to society.

2. The form of government which gives the best assurance of attaining this ideal is the form in which the people rule—a government deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed—the form described by Lincoln as “a government of the people, by the people, and for the people.”

This being the people's government, it is their duty to live for it in time of peace, and to die for it, if necessary, in time of war.

3. The chief duty of governments, in so far as they are coercive, is to restrain those who would interfere with the inalienable rights of the individual, among which are the right to life, the right to liberty, the right to the pursuit of happiness, and the right to worship God according to the dictates of conscience.

4. In so far as governments are cooperative, they approach perfection in proportion as they adjust with justice the joint burdens which it is necessary to impose, and distribute with equity the incidental benefits which come from the disbursement of the money raised by taxation.

5. Competition is so necessary a force in business that public ownership is imperative wherever competition is impossible. A private monopoly is indefensible and intolerable.

6. "Absolute acquiescence in the decision of the majority" is, as Jefferson declares, "the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism."

7. As acquiescence in the permanent existence of a wrong is not to be expected, it is the duty of every citizen to assist in securing a free expression of the will of the people, to the end that all abuses may be remedied as soon as possible. No one can claim to be a good citizen who is indifferent. Civic duty requires attendance at primaries and conventions as at the polls.

8. The government being the people's business, it necessarily follows that its operations should be at all times open to the public view. Freedom of speech is essential to representative government, and publicity is essential to honest administration. "Equal rights to all and special privileges to none" is the maxim which should control in all departments of government.

9. Each individual finds his greatest security in the intelligence and happiness of his fellows, the welfare of each being the concern of all, and he should therefore exert himself to the utmost to improve conditions for all and to elevate the level upon which all stand.

10. While scrupulously careful to live up to his civic responsibilities, the citizen should never forget that the larger part of every human life is lived outside of the domain of government, and that he renders the largest service to others when he brings himself into harmony with the law of God, who has made service the measure of greatness.

PREPARATION THRU EDUCATION FOR A DEMOCRACY

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The tersest, truest definition of democracy yet formulated by an American was that which burst from the breaking heart of Abraham Lincoln on the battlefield of Gettysburg: "Government of the people, by the

people, for the people." Beginning with this inspired definition of the most difficult and beneficent form of human government, let us consider together this highest and hardest responsibility and duty of the American teacher, "Preparation thru Education for a Democracy."

The most important task and duty of the American school and the American teacher is preparation of the American children of each generation, who are to become the American people of the next, for government by the people and for the people. Upon the wise performance of this task and duty depend the strength and perpetuity of our American democracy, and, in the light of world-conditions today, upon it may depend the preservation and perpetuation of democracy in all the earth. The trinity of agencies for the performance of this high task are the home, the church, and the school. From the very constitution of our civilization, the heaviest part of this task in America must fall upon the public school.

From the very nature of a democracy, all authority must be derived from the consent of the governed and must be exercised for the benefit of the governed. Democracy, therefore, lays a heavier burden upon the individual than any other form of government, and its perpetuity, success, and strength are more dependent upon the intelligence and character of the individual citizen. Liberty, fraternity, equality are cherished and distinctive principles of democracy. Government of the people and for the people is more dependent than any other form of government upon the cooperation of the people, upon a recognition of the brotherhood of man, and upon a correlative consideration for the rights, duties, and obligations, moral, civic, and political, each for each, each for all, and all for each.

Education that provides preparation for democracy must lay special emphasis upon the distinctive principles and the distinctive virtues demanded for efficient democratic government.

Vocational education for the preparation of the great industrial masses, constituting 90 per cent of the total population of the United States, for more efficient and profitable work is not only an economic necessity in a democracy, but also a democratic right and obligation. Without it this vast majority cannot have equality of opportunity to work and to live, to get the most for themselves, and to contribute the most to others. But vocational education will prove in no high sense a preparation for democracy unless there be developed with it a sense of obligation and a desire and determination to use increased efficiency to give more as well as to get more.

The dominant aim of education in a democracy should be preparation for the patriotic performance of the duties and the obligations of citizenship therein thru the acquisition of the knowledge and the cultivation of the virtues demanded therefor. Education is a process of growth, not of manufacture. The teacher's relation to it is one of guidance, stimulation, and cultivation. Every public school in America, therefore, should be a place for the inculcation of democratic principles and for the

cultivation of democratic virtues. These flourish most and grow best in an atmosphere of democracy. First of all, therefore, the school must itself be a democracy, and the teacher, a democratic governor, not a despot—a wise guide, not a dogmatic dictator. Virtues grow from the practicing of them, not from the preaching of them. The school that is to prepare for citizenship in a democracy must offer the widest opportunities and the strongest stimulation for the constant exercise of the virtues most needed for it.

Self-reliance, self-determination, self-direction, self-restraint, self-government are individual virtues most essential to the successful exercise of the privileges of political self-government and for the proper restraint of the freedom of democracy. Cooperation, teamwork for the common good, consideration for the rights of others, tolerance of the views of others, freedom and independence of thought, and prompt obedience to properly constituted authority are other virtues the cultivation of which is an essential part of preparation for citizenship in a democracy.

The wise teacher whose dominant aim is preparation thru education for a democracy will find innumerable opportunities in the schoolroom and on the playground for the stimulation and cultivation of these virtues. He should make his schoolroom and his playground a little republic where lessons in good citizenship in a democracy are taught every day by precept and example, where the characteristic virtues of democracy are constantly called into practice, and where its highest ideals are constantly held before the children. Here are to be found the same human types and classes—rich and poor, strong and weak, selfish and unselfish, gentle and rude, modest and brazen—the same human relations and obligations, tasks and burdens, joys and sorrows; the same human passions, ambitions, and temptations, as are to be found in the larger schoolroom and playground of the republic, but all in a formative and directable state.

Here, then, is the task and the opportunity of the teacher as a citizen-trainer: wisely to direct and stimulate and help to regulate the work and conduct of each child, to aid in the creation of the right atmosphere and of the right public opinion, to make everything count most toward the formation of the character, the ideals, and the habits of good citizenship in a democracy.

It is a belittling of this great work to postpone special attention to it in the school till the last year or two in the high school, and imagine that we have discharged our duty in this respect when we have given the children a few hours' instruction a week, for a year or less, in some textbook on civics. However valuable such instruction may be in its proper time and place, it is but a minor part of this larger and longer work.

Training for citizenship for the child begins consciously or unconsciously with his first day in school and continues to his last. With him school is life, and everything that he thinks and feels and hopes and suffers and learns and does and hears and sees there has its part in his training for

citizenship. He is daily living the life, forming the character, fixing the habits of good or bad citizenship in a democracy, by the way he does his work, regulates his conduct, performs his duties, and discharges his obligations growing out of his various relations to schoolmates and teachers in schoolroom and on playground. There is scarcely a school task, duty, or play that cannot be made to contribute to this end.

Far more important as a preparation for a democracy than the knowledge acquired during these school days are the habits formed, the desires kindled, the ambitions awakened under the wise and sympathetic guidance of a teacher with soul and consecration and dynamic personality.

Above all, the child should come out of the public school of this republic filled with a spirit of democracy, fired with a love of democracy, aflame with a zeal for democracy, grateful for the blood-bought blessing of democracy, determined to live for it, and, if need be, to die for it. Feeling, desire, motive—these are the steps to action. Constant appeal must be made to these thru history, biography, literature, thru the celebration of patriotic days, thru the dramatization of patriotic events, and thru the utilization of patriotic emblems.

The crowning gift of God to man is democracy builded upon Christian citizenship. Every public schoolhouse in this republic should be a holy temple of democracy, every public-school teacher a high priest daily ministering at its altar. The direst calamity that could befall humanity would be "for government of the people, by the people, for the people to perish from the earth." Preparation thru education for its duties and obligations is the ordained means for its preservation.

Centuries ago in England, because of his influence in making two kings, the Earl of Warwick won the title of "king-maker." In America today, every teacher in every public school is, in a truer sense, a king-maker; for, if he be true to his high calling, he is a maker of many good American citizens, every one of whom is a ruler and a king.

THE COMMON SCHOOL AS AN INSTRUMENT OF DEMOCRACY

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For two and a half centuries, the American common school has stood as the most notable instrumentality for advancing and strengthening and perpetuating the sentiments of democracy among the people of this nation, and the most powerful agency for giving American hearts to the children of immigrants from foreign lands, which any nation has ever known.

The founders of the Republic looked upon a national system of public schools as an institution primarily of social and political nature and expediency. It seemed to them not a means of producing elegant and cultured

or even intelligent men and women, except as intelligent citizenship could the better ground itself in the traditions and the underlying principles of our government; it was not thought of as a plan by which the industrial efficiency or the vocational value or skill of the people might be promoted and built up. A national system of public schools seemed to them desirable because from its then scattered schoolrooms might come forth a homogeneous people, speaking a common language, familiar with the same literature, fired by the same burning eloquence of the national leaders with which the school had made them familiar, filled with the sentiments of political equality and personal responsibility for good government without which our system of public rule must break down.

It is true that since the crusade of Horace Mann two generations ago we have added to our idea of the state's duty; we have come to think not only that the school should give this fundamental and primarily political education to all its children, but that every youth reared in the state should have open to him the higher education which can be had in the high school and the university.

We believe that this more extended education pays, not only in the old sense of giving to the state more competent and better disposed self-governing citizens, but also in that the more extended training, besides the added capacity which it gives for appreciating and practicing the duties of good citizenship, is a good financial investment, increasing the citizen's value to himself or to his employer, as a producer, as well as his value to the community, as a spender of that which he has received for his produce. But still the excuse for a public-school system remains what it was. It is a means of rendering more successful the working, and more certain the perpetuity, of democratic government.

For many years it has been true that the industries once carried on in the American home no longer form a part of the home's activities; the children in fewer and fewer families are trained by their parents in habits of useful labor; more and more of our people live in towns, where, as things are now, children not only have less chance to work, but less opportunity for play, and for engaging in any kind of vigorous, wholesome physical exercise. For these and other reasons, the boys and girls in our schools miss an important part of their education, which was once carried on at home and which greatly assisted the school in its work of turning out resourceful and successful men and women, fit to grapple with life. Our common schools have not been, and are not, as successful in their work as they might be. Many boys and girls, failing to receive the benefits of the home work and training, and, as a result, lacking industry and application and initiative and mental and physical power, do not do as well as they ought to do in the school. Many of them fail to pass, and clog up the primary and lower grammar grades. Many, humiliated and shamed by their failure, leave school, unfit to meet the duty which lies beyond the school.

From another direction, our educational system has had trouble. The university has been built up on top of the college. Four years in high school, four years in college, four or five years in the university, or in the professional or technical school, bring the student, who often suffers a year, or two or three, of retardation, to the end of his professional preparation and to the beginning of his professional career at twenty-eight or twenty-nine or thirty years of age, or even at an age beyond thirty. This is from three to six years too late, and there is now tremendous pressure to shorten the system of academic preparation. The university wants its students earlier; the college wants the high school to send its product on to college sooner; it also wants the high-school student to come to college better versed in Latin and algebra and other studies on which the college studies are, to a large extent, based. High-school people are nervous and restive under this criticism and demand. They have been accustomed to defer to the colleges and universities, and are in many instances anxious to carry out the later suggestions, in order to rehabilitate themselves in college good graces.

Public-school men have tried different remedies to retain their unpromising and unsuccessful pupils thru the grammar grades. The industrial class, the prevocational class—which is usually the industrial class under another name—and the disciplinary class for laggard and troublesome grammar-school pupils, all of these have been tried at one time or other, at various places. Some degree of success has sometimes been attained; the public schools are still working on the problem from their standpoint.

But now comes another proposal from the standpoint of the college. It is remembered that in Europe—notably in England and in Germany—those boys who are to go to college are taken out from the mass of the children at ten or twelve years of age and set to learning Latin and algebra and the other subjects which are considered most important as college preparatory work. In this way, the children of the families of the upper classes, and that small number of children of humble birth who give brilliant intellectual promise, are separated from the children of the masses at the age of twelve or thereabouts, and are given a preparation for college that is most satisfactory to the authorities of the higher schools.

In the United States today, the universities wish to demand the college course from those who come to them; the colleges wish the high school to give more thoro grounding in college-fitting subjects; the high schools wish to please the colleges. Over all hangs the necessity of sending young men out to the work of life two or three years earlier than at present. Neither the university nor the college wishes to have these years cut from its apportionment of time; the high school is willing to become a relatively more important factor. Hence comes the proposition that the two years be saved by taking them away from the elementary schools. The seventh and eighth grades are to be cut away from the other elementary grades and

attach to the high school. The six-and-six plan is to be adopted—a six-year elementary school, followed by a six-year high school.

Looking at this first from the high-school standpoint, a number of young persons—that relatively small contingent who go to college—would go more thoroly trained and prepared in those things which the college demands. These might even come in at such an age that they would save a part, or all, of the two or three years which are now worrying the college and university.

But it would do another thing. It would bring the boys and girls at the age of twelve years into the high schools, where the essential feature is differentiation of courses, the separation of students into groups, according to the ultimate purpose of their studies. Thus at the age of twelve, instead of at the age of fourteen as under the present plan, we should have our young people in the high school separated into groups on the basis of "probable future employment."

There are enough agencies already which tend to separate our people into classes and to destroy their solidarity and to give them a narrowed and selfish outlook on life. Powerful economic and social agencies of this sort assail them constantly after they leave the schoolroom. It would be inexcusable for the school to contribute to this growth of separateness and lack of a common knowledge and of common experiences, which would result if the time of making choices and entering upon careers were to be moved downward from the end of the fourteenth year to the end of the twelfth year—young people looking toward commerce by themselves, those destined for industries by themselves, those directed toward the higher education by themselves. No more powerful wedge to cleave our people into classes has ever entered into our public life than would be the establishment of this twelve year limit of the time during which American children should be educated together, with common experiences and common aims, and permitted to grow together toward a common American citizenship.

Turn now to the common school as part of the six-and-six plan. Every practical school man knows that the leadership of the younger children in a school by the members of the higher classes is a tremendously important affair. The younger students are interested in their older schoolmates and in their doings, and, to a large extent, take their ideals and standards from them. To take the seventh and eighth grades away from the elementary schools would be to deprive those schools of the benefit which the influence of those older students might confer.

It is known to all practical school men also that it is not easy to keep strong men and the more competent women in the service of the elementary school; these are constantly tempted away by the more attractive salaries and working conditions of the secondary schools and by the competition of business. With the seventh and eighth grades transferred to the high school, the outrush of these people would be very greatly increast, both because the increast high-school membership would require more high-

school teachers, and because the young children left in the elementary schools, including the sixth grade and the grades below, could be controlled by persons with less personality and less force, so that the positions in the elementary schools would to a large extent fall to those less qualified for leadership.

In schools of this sort, then, the children of the people would be educated—schools filled with children too immature to understand or to receive the impress of Americanism and national consciousness; schools in which the children would be deprived of the leadership of their elder, and bolder, and more capable companions; schools presided over and taught by instructors who could control and manage young children still in the obedient stage, but who would be in many instances deficient in the higher and more important qualities of leadership.

The stamp and hallmark of citizenship would thenceforward be put upon the future American citizen in the secondary school, the six-year high school; and this secondary school can never produce the kind and quality of citizenship most to be desired. Grouped, from the time they reach an age when the ideals of citizenship and nationalism are formed, in separate courses, each with reference to his "probable future employment," that common knowledge and common experience which might in the years from twelve to fourteen do so much to mold the coming citizens into a true and common pattern of thought and sentiment would no longer be possible, nor thought desirable in the secondary school, which would swallow him up two years earlier than now. In that school his standards and ambitions and attitude toward life would be swayed and shaped by his already determined future career.

On the other hand, the American common school, so long the nursery and stronghold of common national knowledge and experience, the laboratory where Russian, Polish, Italian, Irish, and German children, with those of our early American stock, have met and studied, and worked, and played, and been transformed into young Americans, will be no longer the American common school as we have known it, but will have become the American infant school.

No duty just now resting upon the American people is more vital or pressing than to see that this thing, this mutilation of the common school, does not come about—that the American common school be not reduced to a position of little influence as an instrument of democracy.

THE WAR AND EDUCATION

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In regard to teaching in the schools and colleges on the subject of the present war, in its many and rich relations to geography, history, economics, etc., we find, in a recent survey of local conditions, measures ranging all

the way from timid prohibition of all allusions to the war, to the heroic extreme of giving it a weekly and even daily place, and of utilizing to the uttermost, and in as many subjects as possible, the unprecedented wealth of interest it has everywhere generated. To my own mind there has been nowhere in the whole history of education a more sublime spectacle than that of the children and youth in this country, representing all the warring nationalities, following together the actual incidents of the great struggle, and their relations to place, time, and human welfare—doing this impartially, as befits the true spirit of neutrality, in the effort to know and understand. Education here has an unprecedented opportunity. The awful heritage of racial and national enmity that has come down thru so many centuries, even from the Crusades, and which has been fanned by so many wars, has, thank God, no place on these shores. All of us, save the Indians alone, are immigrants or descendants of immigrants; and while Jews, Irish, Teutons, Germans, Saxons, and all the rest who have come here not only may but should maintain loyalty to their fatherland, conserve its traditions and customs, cultivate its literature and language, to give our own national life variety and to prevent stagnation, we insist only on a paramount loyalty to America, and that all must agree to differ and never to allow these Old World rancors to break out into open conflict here nor to interfere with the prime duties of citizenship. I have heard college and even high-school pupils, lined up in debate, advocate with all the ardor of youthful conviction the cause of both sides of the war, singing alternately "Rule, Britannia," "Die Wacht am Rhein," and the "Marsellaise," but in the end joining, sometimes hand in hand, in singing "The Star-Spangled Banner" as a doxology; and I lately attended a three-day university conference where eminent statesmen and professors of each of the belligerent powers in turn presented the cause of his fatherland, each having innings on successive days or sessions, and, while each remained unconvinced, all agreed to differ as by a gentleman's agreement. This high and ideal neutrality is possible only in this country. It is such illustrations of the impartial judicial attitude that make us thrill and tingle with patriotic pride, and realize that the true verdict of history about this war, whenever it comes, will be that of intelligent and matured American opinion. To develop and strengthen such sentiments in the rising generation is, in my judgment, the supreme and unique present duty of the half-million American teachers. This is the way of freedom and permanent peace, and it is our true national destiny, which the world now looks to and calls upon us to lead in realizing.

One thing that war is surest to do is to bring members of a common country together. As all gregarious animals huddle in danger, so in war men drop differences of party, creed, and rank, and unite against a common foe. There is greater toleration and mutual sympathy and aid. Early in August, 1914, trains in France, Germany, and other countries were

crowded with people flocking from their summer homes in the country back to the city, six weeks earlier than usual, simply to be with others, to join the crowds on the street, early and late. Social barriers were forgotten, strangers became friends, and everywhere the instinct of the herd dominated the selfish interests of the individual. In war the state tends to approach the condition of the hive, where the worker bee works itself to death in a few months for the good of the hive—which goes on perpetually—or of the ant hill, where the warrior class seems to long to die for its insect country. So in desperate crises of battle soldiers face greater odds in closer formation, because even contact of elbows makes for psychic unity, strength, and bravery, so that they attempt feats of valor they could and would not be made to perform if they were a few yards apart. Thus, as some offset to its horrors, war reduces egoism and inclines people to sacrifice property, time, ease, and even life itself to a larger whole, the common weal; and getting ready to do this is the true inner preparedness that should now and here have its appeal to us and thru us touch and form the hearts of the rising generation.

And what is country, which now calls men to rally to and face the awful chance of death under its flag? Hegel said that the state was the supreme embodiment of absolute reason, and therefore the best mundane incarnation of the Divine. Rothe thought that it should now take the place in man's love and devotion of the church itself. The education department of France has for two decades striven to develop the highest possible love and devotion to *la patrie* and to make this a veritable religion; and Japan has made the state almost a divinity, the supreme object of the love and devotion of all its citizens. Devotion to the state and its institutions, which even in ancient Athens was good enough for Socrates to choose to die for, makes perhaps the best and highest fore-school of religion; and as the soul so naturally passes from nature to nature's God, so patriotism impels us to rise from love of country to love of God. Precisely this transition is now occurring, and the present war is already beginning to bring about a great and unique revival of religion.

All the now voluminous literature on war psychology shows that it is reversionary, plunging man back to his basal nature, or immersing him in primitive instincts and emotions. When the soldier reaches preparation camps, the work of drilling and the close day and night companionship with his fellows makes his old life seem dull and monotonous by comparison, and even home, after the first few weeks, begins to seem a little far off and unreal amid the intense occupations and interest that absorb his energies. When he reaches the trenches, he can think of nothing but his own personal comfort and safety, and when the charge of attack or defense comes, he is so mad with the brutal instinct to kill in order not to be killed, that he often acts with the utmost heroism, or perhaps cowardice, without knowing it; and when it is all over it often takes hours for him to realize what he has

been thru, done, suffered, or seen, so that he comes back to the memory of his larger environment and recalls his distant home and family as if waking up to his old self again. Sometimes, after it is all over, the grip of battle persists so that he remains long under the spell of its delusions and thinks himself still in the awful fray. His soul, nerves, muscles, and eyes have been subjected to such strains that he may never be quite the same again, even if he has had no scratch of harm; and the quality of his future parenthood may have suffered subtle deterioration from fear, rage, and tension that utterly possess him. The psychic life of the soldier is narrowed and intensified and he is thrown back to the old plane of the brutal struggle to survive by overcoming the enemy.

Amid all this regression, there are old, half-forgotten, good instincts also that awaken. For immemorial ages, historic and prehistoric man has always and everywhere been a religious animal, subject to countless gods, rites, and superstitions. For ages he lived in tribes, hordes, clans, to the members of which he was bound by ties closer even than those of classic friendship—closer even, some tell us, than those of romantic love. The individual was little more than a single cell in the larger social organism, while he and it alike were felt to be always subject to higher powers that controlled the life and fate of both the units and the whole which they composed. From the closest of all brotherhood ties that once bound each to each, and also from the constant sense of dependence upon supernal agencies, which in the childhood and youth of our race were so long an ever-brooding presence, science, industry, and civilization have long tended to set man free, so that the ties that once bound man to man and all to the unseen have grown weak as selfishness has grown ruthless, and each tries to be, do, and get the most that is possible for himself, ignoring the claims of others and forgetting the interests of the whole. Between companions in arms the ancient close ties of brotherhood strongly tend to be restored; and never so much as in moments of great danger, is the sense of being in the hands of a power not ourselves, so irresistible.

As in the field, so at home, differences of party, creed, race, wealth, education, tend to be forgotten in a common purpose, and radicals and conservatives, rich and poor, Jews and Gentiles, laborers and capitalists, skeptics and believers, aristocrats and peasants, work together and contribute each in his way to bear the common burden with a new sympathy and solidarity. The colonies of England and France, the loyalty of which had seemed wavering, volunteered regiments, and home-rule advocates, parties of opposition, and even militant feminism reduced and even suspended activities, and many a workingmen's organization resolved not to strike till peace came. In Germany most socialists fell into line; in Belgium men, women, and children died and suffered in the interest of the one supreme cause of country, while in England millions volunteered for the front without conscription. If love is measured by what men will sacrifice or

risk to attain its object, how dear must each country be to those who have paid such a price for it and made it in a new sense the larger self of each!

This war is bringing about a remarkable revival of religion, both at home and in the field. We have all wondered that France could fight so persistently and desperately with no great victory or glory to sustain its courage. One (if not the chief) reason for this moral miracle is found in the new religious soul that appeared in her literature on the very eve of the outbreak of the war.

Only a few years ago, near the end of the hundred years of the Concordat, when France threw off the power of the church, she seemed drifting back toward the secularism of the Revolution or the Commune. But now many of the most influential intellectuals have become God-seekers, and some of them might almost be called modern apostles of religion. Bertrand's *Saint Augustin*, the chief literary sensation of three seasons ago, read everywhere, is fairly infectious with the spirit of the last of the church fathers, and the author ends by calling upon all who read his book to pray for him that he may be like Augustine; and the book itself is an appeal to all to help the great Bishop of Hippo to establish the eternal City of God on earth. Juliette Adam, dean of literary women of France, the George Sand of today, who not many years ago wrote her very confessional book entitled *The Pagan*, now, in a new work entitled *The Christian*, renounces the paganism she has professed for a lifetime and announces her conversion to Christ, and is no less ardent in her new faith than was Tolstoy. Psichari, a grandson of Renan, who lately fell at the head of his battery of artillery, left a story that thrilled France, telling how after a stormy youth he had found religion at the head of a military expedition in Mauretania. The text of his book is the story of the Roman centurion in the *New Testament* who sent to Jesus, with faith that he could heal by word at a distance. Soldier and Gentile tho the petitioner was, Jesus hastened to do all that he wisht, which shows how our dear Lord on earth respected the true soldier, for he did thus to no one else. A grandson of Pasteur, who died heading a charge on the Marne, also a literary star, left behind him a book sold and read everywhere, urging that no man can be a mature, complete man who is not a Christian, and that every true Christian is a soldier, and every true soldier a Christian, because both consist in finding something the individual would die for if called to do so. *The Holy Mother*, *Saint Genevieve*, (the patron saint of Paris), *Joan of Arc*, three lives of whom appeared in a single year, are especially glorified thruout France now, because each of these three greatest of women represents the life of devotion and self-sacrifice to which men are called and instinctively inclined in times of great public trouble and danger. I cannot pause even to name here many other novels, dramas, poems, great pictures, which show how a renaissance of the very heart of Christianity in academic, cultured France, all of it spontaneously, independent of the church, has developt. This, when seen a

little later in its true historic perspective, will show, to paraphrase Augustine, that as the hearts of youths and maidens turn to love in its season, so the soul of man is normally Christian and, however far it may seek, can never find true rest save in God.

So, too, in Germany we now find the very same trend, altho it came a little later and is shown in a different way. Here much if not most of the best literature of the last few decades centered about the problems of Nietzsche and his superman, whose chief duty was to make the most of himself, develop himself to the uttermost, with little regard for the interests of inferiors. There is a long list of such writings, from Widmann's *Beyond Good and Evil*, to the effusions of the fecund tho unspeakable Wedekind who, as the war broke out was read and played everywhere, and who teaches that life means a struggle in which the weak should be left, if not helpt, to perish, while the best is he who gets the most and best of everything he wants by whatever means. Now, however, if we can accept the testimony of the most competent witnesses, the tide here has turned in the opposite direction. Bergmann says that the chief culture effect of the war in Germany is the development of deep and strong religious feeling, and that the student soldier who went out with Nietzsche in his knapsack now reads the *New Testament*, the sale of which has immensely increast. In this war, he says, "men desert philosophy and become like children seeking their father's hand." Köhler tells us how *Gottesdienst* has developot with *Kriegesdienst*, and says that in the trenches we are seeing how no man can really offer his life for his country without being toucht by the divine love of his fellow-countrymen and native land. Another writer tells us that in addition to the three fronts Germany faces she is now facing a fourth, God and heaven. At home and at the front men are reconsecrating themselves to the God of their childhood and their parents. Hirschfeld tells us of the religious mysticism and high moral idealism war is developing as it drags on its awful train of disaster.

In France and Germany, where culture had so largely separated itself from the church, the war is bringing a great and spontaneous turn of the tide back to the very core of Christianity, viz., the subordination of self to the service of God and man. The flood tide in this direction may be quite as strong in England or in Russia, but so far it has found expression mainly in the channels of the establisht church, and has not, as among the Gauls and Teutons, broken out new ways for itself; but it is there.

Here, then, we see the only ray of hope that good may in the end come out of this awful holocaust. Was this river of blood and tears necessary to wash away the sins of selfishness which have developot in those lands that are most advanst in modern civilization? Was it necessary to bring them back to the first principles of altruism and to teach the lesson that life is service? Will the millions of lives and all the newly inflamed hates teach those who dwell together as citizens in each land to live more as

brethren among themselves, and, if so, is this precious treasure worth the awful price?

Meanwhile, what is the lesson wafted to us more clearly every day from the long-drawn battle lines and from the afflicted homes? Is it not that of a preparedness that is not mere parade, procession, or pageantry, but inner and moral? Is not every class prejudice, every racial or religious antagonism, every social barrier that is broken down, the most effective kind of preparedness? Must we not all now feel the call to rich and poor, laborers and capitalists, learned and ignorant, to get together, understand each other, pool our interests, and to devise new ways of cooperation? Does not the spirit of true preparedness suggest to our legislators that there are things above party, and also that in coming political campaigns zest for opposing candidates and platforms be tempered with moderation, because we are all members of one body? We are told that the most thrilling slogan in Germany is the cry, "Deutschland über Alles." What about the same slogan, "America above all," here? Are we not each and all called to rise to a higher moral and religious plane and to find new points of connection here between patriotism and religion, since a republic is, after all, more or less a theocracy? Should not North and South, East and West, wage-earner and employer, men and women, members of every and of no church, seek fresh points of *rapprochement*, sympathy, toleration, each with each, and is there not a new oracle, the voice of which is now heard in every earnest soul, telling us that all men or organizations that set any class against any other in this great republic are treasonable to true preparedness?

Preparedness makes a yet closer and yet more personal appeal. As the Greek athletes and the German *Turners* under Jahn celebrated physical beauty—the former, youth and health for the glory of Hellas and its gods—so now personal duty and the motive to keep our own condition, both physical and moral, at its highest point, should have an added motive in the thought that our country may need the very utmost we have or can be or do. Not only the idle rich, but cloistered and sequestered knowledge, not put to practical service, have now new and merited censure. But the most efficient of all preparedness always was and will be personal purity and social righteousness, a life of justice and integrity, and of appetites and passions controlled and ever refined for higher functions.

Thus the war calls each of us today to examine ourselves and, first of all, to make peace, harmony, and poise within, till we find something in our own breasts which we love so much more than we love life itself that we would live or die for it as the gods decreed. Only those who have found this precious super-personal worth or value, and performed in their hearts the choice that must be made if the call comes, have learned in so doing the chief lesson taught us by these awful days, and are fitted for true and full citizenship in the new world that ought to, and doubtless will, emerge out of what now seems the greatest moral catastrophe that has ever befallen Christendom.

WHAT THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS CAN DO TOWARD THE
MAINTENANCE OF PERMANENT PEACE

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In these days of world-war we feel more keenly than ever the responsibility of the great trust imposed upon us as educational workers. Fired with a deep sense of loyalty, we are eager to assume the obligations which the new national conditions may demand. We are not yet clear as to the course, for the world is still unsettled, but we do know that this greatest crisis of the world's history will effect a new conception of the meaning and purpose of the educational process. No one can ignore the fact that after the European war we shall live in a changed world. The terrible events of the past two years have brought us face to face with this startling reality, and no one conversant with the history of education can fail to understand what its significance may become as an agency for restoring civilization. We are first to ask ourselves the question: What part shall the American public school take in the new world-order?

Our first problem is to determine what the service is which education should render to the state. We have long understood that education is intended to preserve and to promote a true devotion to American traditions, but we have been driven by the succession of events to recall to our minds the definition of American ideals. The founders of the Republic proclaimed freedom, democracy, and justice as the principles in which they put their faith, and when the great conflict came for the preservation of the Union, these principles survived. Today, as the United States plays a mighty rôle in the family of nations, she still proclaims freedom, democracy, and justice as her abiding principles.

It was inevitable that the political development of the United States should be influenst by the dominant ideas in world politics. We became an independent nation when individualism absorbed the thoughts of people. As this idea was gradually supplanted by that of nationalism, which found expression in the desire for conquest, gave rise to the concert of the great powers in Europe, and enunciated the Monroe Doctrine in the Western Hemisphere, the United States focust its purpose on the building of a nation in which freedom, democracy, and justice should be the governing principles. This was a mighty task, but after a century of national life we were able to show the world the unique spectacle of a union of forty-eight states containing representatives from all the races of the world, working together and abiding by the laws of the central government, each state retaining its identity, having its local laws and local government, pursuing its own ideals, yet remaining loyal to the whole. But the nineteenth century pushed the idea of nationalism to its extreme limits. The nation came to be conceived as an end in itself and a form of patriotism developt

thruout the world which recognizes the nation as the highest human purpose. The logical result of this conception is the present war of empires, the culmination, let us hope, of that idea which has so permeated the world with its baleful influence.

And what was the rôle of education during this period of nationalism? It reflected the political ideal. The heroes of each nation were those who had contested most successfully against the welfare of other nations. The teaching of geography was mostly confined to the growth of the individual nation, with little regard to its relations with other peoples. The emphasis in history was placed on wars and political history, with almost entire ignoring of the economic, social, and educational development of the nation, and the connection of these forces with world-wide movements which made this development possible. The German system of industrial and commercial education, inaugurated by Bismarck, developed that intensified specialization which to a supreme degree ministers to the one idea of nationalism. Education in England, altho providing for a broader outlook on human relations, is in its true essence but a devotion to the internal needs of the British empire.

Following the impulse of nationalism, the idea of internationalism began to develop. At the very end of the nineteenth century representatives of the nations met for the first time in the world's history in a conference to consider the maintenance of general peace. This first Hague conference is described by international jurists and statesmen as the beginning of a new epoch for international law and international relations. It seemed to have ushered in a period in which the endeavor should be to substitute the reign of reason for that of force. The idea of internationalism appeared to be gaining increasing support thruout the civilized world when the present war checked its progress and stunned the hopes of those who had expected that the new idea would usher in an era of peace and justice. These hopes were founded, not merely on the action of the governments, but also upon the unity and solidarity of the human race, illustrated in the last half-century by a myriad of examples of interdependence and active cooperation in all the lines of human activity.

The spirit of internationalism is reflected in education by the international exchange of university professors and students, the international visits for the study of educational systems and methods, the formation of international polity clubs in colleges and universities thruout the world, the organization of the school peace leagues of the United States and of Great Britain, the increase of interest in the study of international law, and the holding of international educational congresses and conferences. The recommendation, outlined in the resolutions of the International Congress on Education at Oakland last summer, for the appointment of educational attachés to the legations and embassies thruout the world, is a potent manifestation of the spirit of internationalism. This idea is most strikingly

illustrated in the calling of the International Conference on Education by the Dutch government for the purpose of discussing educational problems common to the nations and for the ultimate aim of establishing an international bureau of education. It is indeed a marked contradiction that this diplomatic conference, aimed to create world standards in education and to promote those world ideals for which all civilization should strive, should have been put aside on account of war, participated in by those very nations which had appointed delegates to the Conference. Neither the political nor the spiritual internationalism was able to prevent this war, for the idea of nationalism was still too predominant.

In this condition of world disorder, what is the service which education should render? Heretofore the rôle of education has been to serve the nation as the nation has defined its service. Hereafter, if education is to become effective in imparting ideals that will advance the higher interests of civilization, it must lead over all other forces. Education should become the essential agency in the restoration of civilization. It should teach the people of each and every nation to understand the true place of their country among the nations of the earth; it should inculcate the idea that the peoples are partners in ideals and purposes, and that above all other things they should prize the fruits of their own civilization; it should develop a new conception of national rights and international obligations; and it should help to spread the conception of world-friendship and world-loyalty. Education will be able to serve this larger cause of humanity only if it comes to its own as the intellectual and moral guide for the nation. This calls for high leadership, for it implies nothing less than the creation of a new national life in all countries, the breaking down of national barriers, and the internationalization of education itself.

And what part shall the American public school take? Have we the leaders who can act in this momentous time? Reared in a country whose foundation principles are freedom, democracy, and justice, what group of educators is better prepared to take up the task? World-brotherhood is but the expansion of American faith. But it is a new task and fraught with great difficulties. It involves a reorganization of the instruction given in geography and history, an extension of the work in civics and ethics to a world basis, and a simultaneous effort to secure the cooperation of educational workers in all lands for the realization of a world patriotism based on justice and good-will. It is a different problem from the proposed plans for the readjustments of courses of study, for the training of leaders in educational positions, or for reorganizations in educational administration, but it in no way conflicts with these necessary and urgent reforms.

The new task involves the putting-forth of a national ideal in education. The present situation forbids delay, for at this very time an attempt is being made to force ideas into our educational system which are hostile

to our traditions. There are some people in this country who, in the name of patriotism, are asking the schools to stir up fear of other nations thru compulsory military training. The American public school needs an official spokesman, a national department of education, which can speak with authority. When proposals are made to introduce new ideas into the schools, the opinion of this department should be sought. Experts in education, and not the military, commercial, religious, nor any other class of people, should decide what should go into the schools. This expert judgment should be based on a well-established educational ideal, and there should be but one ideal for the nation. In the midst of the extraordinary circumstances of the time in which we live, when the United States seems to be destined to assume a responsibility in laying foundations for a new civilization, when educational duties imply contacts beyond our border, the functions of our educational department should be officially sanctioned. The office of the United States commissioner of education should be second to no other office in our government. He, with an advisory staff, should define our educational ideal and should devise measures to incorporate it into our educational system. It should be the patriotic duty of every town, city, and state to foster this ideal in the schools.

What should this ideal be? Certainly it should be international. It should imply some motive lying outside and beyond ourselves. It should be impelled by the impulses of freedom, democracy, and justice, and by the high hope that on the pages of the world's history the United States will stand out as a nation which remained true to its purpose in the service of humanity. God grant that it may be given to the teachers of America to lift this light on high for the illumination of the world.

MASS INSTRUCTION THRU GROUP TRAINING

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Once upon a time, not so long ago, a Rhodes scholar from South Africa spent a year in this country studying the development of our agriculture and the methods of agricultural instruction in operation here. It was my good fortune to visit some of our field workers and field meetings with him. Upon one occasion in the state of Oklahoma we attended a general round-up meeting in the morning in a certain village. In the afternoon we witness an enthusiastic baseball game between the team of that village and a good strong country club not far away. While we were looking at the game this young man said: "I should like very much to carry the great American game of baseball back to my people. How do you think I should do it? Don't you believe that I could carry two dozen baseball-rule books with me, get together a husky bunch of youngsters in a schoolhouse, and have them study the regulations in order to master the game?" I told him I did not believe he could get satisfactory results that way. That is the way not to do it. I advised him to get two nines of young men; put one bunch at the bat and the other in the field, each man in his place. The pitcher would learn to pitch by pitching; the catcher would learn his part by the same process; the man at the bat would take to his function like a duck to water, and all of the rest of the team in the field would soon learn that it was their business to stop the runner at the first, or, at all events, to prevent his going around the diamond. After the game had been going on for a week or ten days, the players could read the rule book to good advantage, and they might have frequent opportunity to use it as a book of reference. This Rhodes scholar was planning to take up some teaching work not fully covered in some of the books on pedagogy. He is a coach, or trainer. Thousands of public-school teachers have depreciated and discounted the word "teach" until it does not begin to mean as much as the word "train." Solomon evidently had that in mind when he said: "Train up the child." A trainer of wild animals has some lessons worth while for the teacher of boys and girls. A baseball coach or a football coach is a teacher of high order, because he gets other people to do things well, and furnishes successful object-lessons to thousands of people without becoming conspicuous himself.

A county woman agent enrolls seventy-five girls, distributed in groups of from six to ten in various parts of a county. These girls grow one-tenth of an acre of tomatoes each. They learn about hotbeds, cold frames, transplanting, pruning, staking, and tomato diseases. They get interested in making successful demonstrations, and they read and study books, bulletins, and papers. They make their uniform caps, aprons, and dresses; they have their own badges, emblems, pennants, and other club paraphernalia, just like

the ball teams. When the harvest season comes, they put the fruit in cans, jars, and bottles. Incidentally they learn about sanitation, sterilization, and preservation. At the community and county fairs and at the school exhibits they demonstrate their skill as a group and as individuals, just as much as the football teams do on Thanksgiving Day. They can and preserve tomatoes, make purée, catsup, and tomato paste. During the course of the year's work their families and their neighbors become interested in what they are doing, and at public meetings the girls make reports on what they have done and tell about what they have learned. Prize reports and essays are published in the papers, and circulars, leaflets, and bulletins are widely distributed. At the end of the year practically all of the women and girls in the county, and most of the men and boys, know more about the tomato and its products than they ever knew before. Because of the knowledge gained and the skill acquired these girls are prepared to look after the surplus fruits and vegetables in the orchards and gardens. Their examples have stimulated many others to do likewise. Still others strive to surpass them in similar lines of work. One small woman can swing a whole county.

When the next year begins these same girls plan to grow tomatoes again and also to grow some other vegetables which can be utilized to good advantage with the tomatoes. For instance, one group of girls in a southern county decided to grow pimento peppers. They reasoned out that, inasmuch as the pepper is a cousin to the tomato, they might be able to grow them to good advantage. They also decided that these peppers would do as well in our southern climate as in Spain. They have made delicious chutneys and other relishes. They supplied their own pantries and sold more than three thousand dollars' worth of pepper products the first year. A county agent sent in a weekly field report which read somewhat as follows: "I have not done anything for the past three weeks except to train eighty-seven girls in the making of Dixie Relish. However, hundreds of girls and women have learned how to make this relish from the club members. There has been a great deal of discussion about it all over the county, and the editor of the county paper wrote an editorial upon the subject." The agent evidently filled the whole atmosphere with the aroma of Dixie Relish. Thus the club members utilized the vegetables which they grew and also instructed the whole county.

Perhaps the most interesting phase of this system of teaching by demonstration that has been developed in recent years is that known as the home demonstration work. Nearly five hundred women agents in the southern states alone are promoting this work now. Every one begins with the idea of doing one thing at a time and doing it well. They proceed on the theory that the popular mind is as simple as the mind of a child, even tho the people may be generally intelligent. They know, too, that it takes time to get masses of people to move. A home demonstration agent may be

anxious to instal water-works, to improve sanitary conditions, to instal labor- and time-saving devices and conveniences to beautify the home and its surroundings; but she must realize that all of these things cannot be undertaken at once. So, many of them have begun with the fireless cooker. With this simple homemade device they utilize products grown by the girls and their mothers in the gardens and poultry yards, and at the same time teach incidental lessons. Incidental teaching is helpful because it meets a need which has been discovered and felt. It hits the mark. Confidence is secured and leadership established. If these same agents were to go into the homes professedly to teach cooking in an academic and didactic way, they would not be welcome. They gain their entrance in an indirect way and give their instruction in supplementary fashion, or as accessory after the fact, as the lawyers say. Some have used the iceless refrigerators in the same way. The point is that it is easy to get the second step after the first one has been properly taken. The construction of the same useful homemade device or convenience by ten or twelve women in a community is the best possible basis for a meeting for study of a phase of domestic science or even the whole subject of home improvement. Comparatively few minds deal in abstractions. The popular mind, as a whole, grasps the concrete and only the concrete.

A county woman agent who can take some shotgun cans, a small barrel churn, a thermometer, a butter mixer, and a little simple brick-shaped butter mold and get one hundred women in different parts of a county to make good butter is a teacher of a higher order than a teacher of literature, music, art, or languages in a so-called select and finishing school for young ladies. Quite a number of county agents have already done this definite piece of work in the making of farm butter. These women have scientific knowledge and skill and they also have powers of personality. Incidentally, I believe, their work constitutes a health campaign more potent than that being promulgated by health commissions and sanitary boards. They manage to get doors and windows screened and flytraps made. Oftentimes they get running water into the home because they have such fine opportunity to show the need of it. They might lecture on these things until they and their audiences both became tired, but leadership in this work is not developed by much talking. They must get results. They must establish object-lessons so that he who runs may read. They must have object-lessons so that dozens may learn from each one. If an agent should go to a home at midnight and train a girl to make better jelly than anybody else in that community, the rest of the neighbors would learn the process even if they never see the agent.

Doubtless it may be of interest to know that more than a quarter of a million men, women, boys, and girls are lined up in the fifteen southern states alone to furnish object-lessons in farm-development and home-improvement. A similar organization is being developed in the rest of the country. It is

safe to say that ten or twelve people profit directly from each example of good work done by these club members and demonstrators. It is difficult to estimate the number who profit indirectly. I believe that number really approaches the entire population of the communities and counties where the work is done. It is interesting, also, that there are about nine hundred men and nearly five hundred women in the South who are trainers of this great army. The whole organization constitutes a new system of education in this country. It has not been excelled in any other country nor in any other age. In fact, there is nothing in the history of civilization which surpasses in scope, volume, and possibility the great plans of extension work being developed by the United States Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the agricultural colleges and certain other colleges, under what is known as the "Lever Act." In five more years this fund will yield ten million dollars annually. The force of agents will increase, and if all of these agents are as effective trainers in their line as the great baseball and football coaches are in theirs, the whole map of the country will be changed and the fate of our civilization of the future determined. Other nations have fallen because of the depletion of the soil and the decadence of the homes. This nation, in cooperation with the states which compose it, will make the greatest effort in the history of civilization to build up a sound agriculture and a great home life.

The Greek housewife gave to us the word "economics." The Greek word from which it is derived means home regulation or home management. The Greek woman managed the home while her husband's occupation was mainly that of the warrior. She was responsible for supporting and rearing the family. She was wise, shrewd, and thrifty. She had rules, regulations, system, and thoroughness in the conduct of the institution for which she was responsible. Every time we use the word "economy" or "economics" we compliment this mistress of the home. Men have appropriated the word "economics" in order to give standing to their enterprises, both financial and political. They are even extending the word "economics" into other lines. This kind of appropriation has gone on to such an extent that it seems necessary now to prefix the word "home" to the word "economics," notwithstanding the fact that we are actually saying "home-management." The extension work being conducted by the United States Department of Agriculture and various leading colleges of this country is a nation-wide effort to restore, reinstate, and re-establish the wise practices of the wise and thrifty housewife.

It takes a great teacher to do a practical thing in an ideal way. We need to concrete our ideals. Too many ideals are abstract and some are too ethereal for public consumption. The best instruction that can be given to the women workers is the instruction given by the founder of this work when he said: "You can add to the comforts of the home, shape its environment into lines of beauty, and increase its attractiveness, until the

home shall become the greatest magnet of our people." The entire program calls for mass instruction, and this must be done by individual coaching and group-training.

The evolution of the organization has been as wonderful as the unfolding of the work of individuals and groups. In 12 years an organization of 900 men agents with 150,000 demonstrators has been developed. Five years ago there were only 2 women agents and less than 300 girls. Today we have 472 women agents in the 15 southern states alone, riding in buggies, on horseback, in automobiles, on trains, and even walking, in order to visit the club members and demonstrators in their gardens, in their homes, and in the schools. The total enrolment in 1916 is 63,531, including girls and women. The simple garden and canning work has grown until demonstrations are now made in bread-making, poultry-raising, butter-making, and home-equipment and improvement in general.

One of the most faithful pioneers of the work expresses the following opinion as to its future prospects:

Within my angle of vision I see, for this great work, a rich and rising day which is ours to enjoy, ours to fill with brave efforts and achievements, under the brighter light of hope and promise that now shines upon us. May the inspiration we receive enable each of us to carry more constant and vital good into rural homes and greater happiness into human lines, remembering that today's opportunities are the best of all opportunities and that the future bears, for our work, still the better best in all of its fruitfulness.

THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

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The other day I heard a thoughtful and forceful speaker declare that "the battles of democracy in the twentieth century are not to be fought for the rights of the individual, because these battles have been fought and won, and the principles of individual liberty established, but for the proper assumption of duties and responsibilities toward society by the individual."

For several decades our excess of democracy has been developing into an exaggerated individualism. So pronounced and universal and so overmastering a prejudice has it become that it is more frequently the stumbling-block of social progress in much of our community life than any other one force. But a new trend of democracy has come with the ideals of social responsibility and social service; and a new community consciousness seems springing into being everywhere as an ideal of social democracy.

With this awakening of community purpose comes a new responsibility of the profession. In what terms may a community measure the results of its school system as a social agent? In what terms may a school man measure his system by agencies already existing in his organization? Both questions are pointed toward precisely the same mark, and in answer

let me suggest that the final measure of the worth of the school system is to be found in the universality with which it trains the children of the community to assume fully the duties and responsibilities of membership within it, "saturates them with the spirit of service, and provides them with the instruments of effective self-direction."

The questions in social administration on which most of our leaders agree seem to be about as follows: (1) What is the holding power of the school system? (2) What rates of progress in the various school steps do children make as a whole? (3) What is the type and quality of instruction? (4) What is the type and quality of the supervision? (5) What is the social quality and method of development of the curriculum?

The crux of this scale of measurement lies in the social quality of the curriculum and in the methods used in its classroom application. A curriculum and a type of classroom process which eliminate from the school system at the adolescent period, or shortly thereafter, all children but one-half of 1 per cent, and graduate only fifty-six at the apex of the scale for each thousand entering at its base (in an average of 386 cities), is not assuming its responsibility in community development. A system which maintains a curriculum and classroom activities so slightly attractive, so little related to the real life of the community, that 67 per cent of those dropping out at the adolescent period leave from "choice," and not from economic necessity (Alice P. Burrows' survey of labor certificate pupils, Borough of Manhattan), is hardly the social agent that the modern ideal of democracy has a right to expect.

We must have the socialized curriculum as an expression of the activities, the life, and the ideals of the best in the community, working itself out thru the socialized recitation process, in which the center of gravity is not in the teacher nor in the subject-matter, but in the child and his practice of life-activities. Dr. Dewey has blazed the way with this:

I should like to refer to the recitation. We all know what it has been—a place where the child shows off to the teacher and the other children the amount of information he has succeeded in assimilating from a textbook. From this other standpoint, the recitation becomes pre-eminently a social meeting place; it is to the school what spontaneous conversation is at home, excepting that it is more organized, following definite lines. The recitation becomes the social clearing-house where experiences and ideas are exchanged and subjected to criticism, where misconceptions are corrected, and new lines of thought and inquiry are set up.

The vital element in such a recitation process is its connection with the life of the community. Children must learn citizenship and acquire the ability to get along in the world by practice in meeting the problems of youthful citizenship which their miniature communities of home and school have to offer them. They will do real thinking, gather real data, work them over in an organized way, and form conclusions from them only as real problems confront them. Teachers can no longer delude themselves with the comfortable belief that piling up a storehouse of information for

use at some future time and in case of emergency, and the concomitant whetting of the mental activities that incidentally goes with it, constitutes education. Nor can they take refuge behind that ancient and convenient bulwark, the theory that the habits and abilities develop in the acquisition of knowledge in a given field are transferred instantly and without loss to any other convenient and desired field. It has become all too apparent to the world of practicalities, and has been proved to all reasonable intents and purposes by the profession, that no such thing happens; that abilities to think and to do in given fields of endeavor come as a result of continual practice in meeting and overcoming obstacles in those fields; that ideals of life and of right relationship to one's neighbors, and of service to one's fellow-men, take root and grow and fructify thru contacts with small social groups that occasion the formation of conclusions upon these matters. No amount of precept nor of textbook knowledge acquired thru schoolroom practice ever accomplish these ends. If the essential practice is not offered in the home and school, it will be got elsewhere, and under unfavorable environment, and thru the spur of wrong stimuli.

But a recitation may offer real problems, and may stimulate the right sort of habits and activities on the part of the children in their solution, and yet fail in the one great essential as viewed in the light of modern social democracy. Unless there be a real stimulus to group thinking and co-operative effort, rising out of the school experiences of the children and their contact with each other, the recitation has done nothing more than accomplish an added step in the development of a little group of individualists. To quote Dewey again:

Where the school work consists of merely learning lessons, mutual assistance, instead of being the most natural form of cooperation and association, becomes a clandestine effort to relieve one's neighbor of his proper duties. So thoroly has this been the prevalent atmosphere of the schoolroom that for one child to help another has become a school crime!

To summarize: The socialized classroom should be the product of the socialized course of study. It should be motivated from contact with real life. It should offer stimulus to the pupils to solve real problems upon their own initiative rather than because of the pressure of authority from the teacher. It should lead the pupils into original research in which they gather data, organize them, learn to recognize values in their use, and reason to conclusions concerning them. And, more important than all, it should inspire in the pupils a spirit of social cooperation in their thinking and doing.

This ideal for our schoolroom activities is not merely the mental vaporizing of the theorists. It is already a practical reality in many schools. It has been applied to the classroom work of teachers in all subjects, from the manual arts of the primary and intermediate grades to the most formal of the high-school classics.

The boys of the technical high schools of Los Angeles plan the elementary-school buildings built by the board of education. The pupils of the Woodward High School in Cincinnati operate a large farm successfully. I have personal knowledge of a group of boys in an elementary school who constructed all of the concrete walks on the grounds of their school.

Let me cite an example from my own experience in the development of cooperative activity in civic instruction. In Lincoln, a Junior Civic League has been organized thru the cooperation of a Commercial Club which is thoroly alive to its civic duty. This league has a club in each school consisting of the boys of Grades V to VIII. The total membership is over 1400. Two clubs of this league meet each week at the Commercial Club Building. There the members listen to an address of some twenty minutes, upon a topic concerning citizenship, given by some leading business or professional man. They then divide into groups of twenty or thirty and spend the remainder of the half-day visiting the civic or industrial institutions of the city. During the past year they made over 122 such visits. To become members the boys take the ephobic oath as their pledge of assumption of civic responsibility:

We will never bring disgrace to this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice. We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city, both alone and with many. We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul or set them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty. Thus in all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less but greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

The various clubs have succeeded in accomplishing many things in a civic way. One club succeeded in running a near-by tobacco shop out of business thru a boycott of its wares. Others have succeeded in getting vacant lots and unsightly places cleaned up and made sightly and attractive. They have succeeded in numerous instances in getting the city authorities to place street lights where needed. Recently they took a complete census of the city, in cooperation with a committee of the Commercial Club. During the summer, in conjunction with a like organization of the girls, they conduct a market for the school and home gardens. I know a group of them who have attackt with much zeal a problem suitable for organized charity work. The boys of this club learned that the mother of a small baby and several other small children living in their neighborhood had not sufficient funds to buy milk for the baby. These boys undertook in an organized and cooperative way the problem of furnishing this family with milk thruout the winter.

Almost all of the civics instruction, much of the geography, and some of the history work in actual classroom practice centers about the activities of this league. Why should not instruction in history, civics, and geography

so gravitate toward the real work and life of the community? Why should not as much of real value and real thinking come from the use of knowledge and of subject-matter in the solution of everyday problems as in the mere parrot-like exercise of memory in classroom reproduction? Is there any good or sensible reason why such questions as the following should not constitute the bone and marrow of our instruction in the formal subjects? (These questions have been used in history- and civics-tests.)

Suppose that a large, new factory has come to Lincoln, bringing 500 working men, largely foreign, who settle with their families in an isolated community, living as cheaply as possible. From what you have learned of civics and citizenship what can the community do for these people, (1) thru its government, city, county, or state; (2) thru its schools; (3) thru the Commercial Club; (4) thru its religious and civic organization; and (5) thru the management of the factory itself as influent by public opinion?

Should a community take care of its poor and unfortunate thru some well-organized society or thru promiscuous giving? (Outline your answer under three good reasons, writing a paragraph on each.)

Should the United States maintain and defend the Monroe Doctrine at the cost of war with a foreign power?

NOTE.—Arrange your answer in the form of four specific and definite statements which give the evidence you have gathered in your history studies. You may defend either side of the question.

In your judgment, what attitude would George Washington take toward the nations engaged in the present European War, if he were president of the United States at the present time? Answer this from what you have learned of George Washington as a man and from what you know of the way in which he handled the questions of his administration. List the things which he did which cause you to answer as you do.

Should the United States keep a standing army of one million men, of which Nebraska's share would be about 10,000? (This would probably mean military service of about one year for each young man between eighteen and twenty-one years of age.) Answer from what you know of our own wars of the past and of the European wars you have studied. Number and list your reasons.

Should the United States keep a navy as large as Great Britain's? Answer from what you know of the Civil War, the War of 1812, and the Revolutionary War. List your reasons.

Why should not our English themes concern matters of everyday living? Literature of eternal merit has always grown from the life of the generation that produced it. Let me give you an example of an oral composition produced by a lad of twelve years during a sixth-grade recitation in English in a city having a well-socialized curriculum and a socialized type of classroom process. I believe you will agree with me that it possesses real literary merit.

THE FIRST MONEY I EVER EARNED

About seven years ago my father was an engineer on the G. R. I. R.R. One night in a fierce snowstorm, he ran his train into another train and killed a man. They said that he was not guilty because it was not his fault. He felt so bad and it worried him so that he gave up his job. He bought a ten-acre tract of land and we raised vegetables. In about two years, my father died. Mother says he died of a broken heart. After this my mother, my little sister, and I worked very hard to raise the vegetables, and my

biggest brother peddled them. One evening mother called us all to her and told us we would have to give up the place and do something else as we could not go to school and keep up the place. She said we had best sell and go down town. We bought a home and mother takes in washing and we children help her all we can.

Last fall at fair time, as I was passing the fair grounds, I thought maybe if I askt the manager for a job he would give me one. So I did. He told me to come the next morning. I workt all week and made ten dollars. That was the first money I ever earned. I bought these clothes and my books and gave the little I had left to mother.

I want to grow up to be an honest man. I want to earn enough to make me comfortable but not enough to make me unhappy. I would like to be an engineer, but every time I mention it mother cries so, I do not know for sure what I will do.

What has been done in attacking this problem of creating a social-minded generation thru the schools of the country is only a beginning. The wave of faith in the efficacy of the doctrine of socialization must spread thruout the length and breadth of the land. It must become the dominant mental and moral attitude of our great democracy. Our schools will then come into their own as agents in perpetuating the best of our ideals of the past and in building a grander social democracy for the future.

THE EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO

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Last February, in the town of Tuskegee, Ala., I attended the funeral of Booker T. Washington, a former pupil of mine at Hampton Institute, one of the most distinguisht citizens of this country, and perhaps the foremost Negro of the world. Henry Watterson, of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, declared that no man since the Civil War had meant so much in the uplift of the South as had Booker Washington. In the simple funeral service that was held these words were used: "Thanks be to God which giveth us the victory."

Booker Washington's life was a distinct victory—a victory for Tuskegee and Hampton, for the state of Alabama, for the whole country, for the whites as well as the blacks—that a Negro, born in slavery, could have secured the opportunity for such wonderful service. It was a victory for true ideas of education—education which trains the heart and the hand, as well as the head, education which produces faith, love, humility, service, for these were his distinguishing characteristics, and these he owed largely to that excellent white southern Virginia home from which he came, and to the school where he learned to believe in love and labor with the whites and blacks; where he learned to have a high respect for the moral and intellectual value of the labor of the hand; where he gained humility in coming in contact with that great man, General Armstrong, the principal of the

Hampton School; and where he gained the great thought of service to men of every race.

After Washington's death, meetings in his memory were held in every part of the country. In the poor log churches of the South, Negro men and women gathered, and, as they sang "Swing Low, Sweet Chariot," they told of their great leader who was gone. In the city of Washington, members of the Cabinet joined with private citizens in a great public meeting to do honor to this son of a slave. In New York City, thousands were turned away from a great meeting, held in Carnegie Hall, where Seth Low presided, and William G. Willcox, the president of the Board of Education of New York, told of Booker Washington's influence on him. James Hardy Dillard, a southern man and the head of the Jeanes Fund Board, said that as he stood by Washington's grave he tried to think of another man who had done as much for the South as Booker Washington had done and he could not think of such a man.

When the question of Booker Washington's successor was raised, the minds of the Tuskegee Board of Trustees turned to the same school from which Booker Washington had come. They thought of Robert R. Moton, a man who had been trained in the Hampton School and had for years held a responsible position as commandant of cadets. The vice-president of the board, the president of an Alabama bank, was sent to Virginia to make inquiries as to the candidate. From the governor of the state of Virginia, from business men, from working men, from all classes, there came only one testimony as to the tact, the kindness, and the devotion of this Virginia Negro. Robert R. Moton had won, as had Booker Washington, the confidence and respect of the whole community in which he lived. He had started in Virginia an association known as "The Negro Organization Society," thru which at least 350,000 Negroes in Virginia have been influent toward securing better homes, better schools, better farms, and better health.

A few weeks ago I attended the inauguration of Principal Moton at the great Tuskegee School. Charles Henderson, governor of Alabama, the heads of the leading white and colored institutions of the commonwealth, the leading men of the town of Tuskegee, thousands of Negroes from all parts of the country, representative leaders from the North and the South, all came to welcome Robert Moton to this most important position to which he had been called—a position which is considered by many to be one of the greatest importance in the country.

I have called your attention to these two Negroes because their lives and work seem to have illustrated, as fully as any I could have chosen, the type of education which should be given to all Negro youth—in fact, to all youth, whether white or black.

Washington and Moton had become, thru their education, possessors of certain great qualities which are the finest fruits of education—faith, love, humility, service.

Thru contact with the best representatives of the white race in Virginia, they had gained faith. Washington, in the Virginia home where he was brought up, gained a strong belief in an unseen force called Education. By faith he worked his way thru the school by the labor of his hands. By faith, being called like Abraham, he went to Alabama. He saw the vision of another Hampton, and, in the midst of difficulties that would have overcome a faithless man, he built up that great institution, known thruout the world as Tuskegee Institute. Washington's education gave him faith in the white race. We speak as tho what we call race prejudice belonged to the Anglo-Saxon race. This great war is largely the result of the inability of one race to understand and believe in another.

Perhaps education has no more important duty than to help our youth to see the good in other men of other races. This knowledge and this faith Washington gained early. He lived in a home in Virginia where two races worked together in harmony, and he was trained in a school where the red and the black and the white races are taught to cooperate. Washington learned, as he said in his Atlanta speech, that "the representatives of two races can be brothers-in-Christ without being brothers-in-law." In all the work of the Hampton School, where Booker Washington was trained, white and black men, from North and South, worked together and he learned to work with them. He gained a faith in them which made possible the tremendous achievements of his after-life.

The education of Booker Washington and Robert Moton gave them a belief in the Negro race. In his speeches thruout the country, Dr. Moton has been accustomed to dwell upon the great advantages that have come thru slavery, in that millions of this black people have gained a knowledge of the English language, of the Christian religion, of regular habits of work. Dr. Moton, however, has deplored the lack of faith which some of the members of his race have in their own people as one of the results of slavery. Dr. Moton has expressed his thankfulness to Hampton because it has brought him to love and respect the Negro melodies, the Negro folk-lore, and to believe that, just as truly as God brought the children of Israel out of Egypt for a distinct purpose, so he brought the Negro from Africa to this country to accomplish a definite end.

Booker Washington and Robert Moton gained from their education the greatest power in the world—the power of love. As Moton learned his letters from the daughters of his father's master, he gained at the same time a love for the people of another race which has never left him.

When asked what was the secret of Washington's success, Moton declared without hesitation: "His love for his fellowmen." It was his love for his fellowmen which made it possible for Booker Washington honestly to declare in his Atlanta speech: "No man, either white or black, from North or South, shall drag me down so low as to make me hate him."

At the Hampton School where Booker Washington and Robert Moton were trained there was an earnest endeavor to make the ordinary duties the chief means of an education. The academic department was used to dignify and glorify the work of the hand. Washington and Moton went forth from Hampton with the love of men who believed that thru the daily activities of life their race was to be trained for service. The result was that a Tuskegee soon followed a Hampton.

Almost the only recreation Washington found was in his garden, with his horses and cows, his chickens and pigs. It was this which made him feel that his mission in life was to help the common man do the common things in an uncommon way. The education of Washington and Moton brought with it the love that is not puffed up—the most real humility.

No one could meet Booker Washington without being impressed with his modest self-respect. I knew him perhaps as well as any white man. I do not remember that he ever talked to me of himself nor of what he had done. He received the highest honors which the universities of the land could bestow. He was received by the Queen of England. He was accustomed to hold large audiences spellbound by his wonderful power of speech, and yet he remained to the day of his death the same quiet, unassuming man.

After one of his greatest honors had been conferred upon him, on his return to Tuskegee, his wife observed him taking down one of his oldest suits of clothes. When she asked him why he was doing this he said: "I am going down to see my old friends in the town of Tuskegee and I do not want them to think I have a swelled head."

What was there in the education he had received which gave him this modesty? His life had to do with things rather than with words. He had come up against the great laws of nature and of God in the things that he had had to do. The word "modesty" comes, as you know, from the word *modus* which means "measure." Washington had measured himself alongside the great things that had been done and were to be done, and he felt his own littleness. Again he was a devoted follower and disciple of that modest soldier, General Armstrong. He had known some of the best representatives of a race that had far greater advantages than had come to the African. That contact brought modesty. "Blessed," says the Good Book, "are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth." And the great inheritance of this Negro came largely thru his meekness.

Perhaps the most striking characteristic of these two Negro leaders was their thought of service. From their earliest days they had learned to serve. In those Virginia homes from which they came, like the great Master whom they followed, they were the servants of all. Their thought was not that of being ministered unto but of ministering. In the Hampton School, where they were trained—in the sawmill and on the farm—they were daily working for the good of that institution. The result of this

training was to make them seek the good of others rather than their own. Instead of seeking the city after graduation, both of them went forth to the rural districts where the great masses of their people lived. Instead of devoting themselves to a type of education which laid emphasis upon the ornaments, they both gave themselves to industrial education, which was most unpopular in the early days of the Negroes' freedom. It is true of both of them that instead of seeking their own they sought another's good. There is a verse of Scripture which is quite as true in education as it is in religion: "He that saveth his life shall lose it, and he that loseth his life shall save it." Washington and Moton have given their lives, not to their own aggrandizement, but to the service of their people.

"It pays," said General Armstrong in the memoranda which he left after his death, "to put God and country first and one's self afterward." This was Armstrong's great educational platform, and because he taught it and these Negroes learned it, all men have risen up to call him blessed.

Upon a bulletin, in front of a church in New York, I saw these sentences: "Faith, humility, charity, cheerfulness—these are the things we need to be converted to," and underneath was the name of Ruskin. Faith, love, humility, service—these should be the results of Negro education, as well as of all education.

I have tried to show you that in the case of Booker Washington and Robert Moton we have Negro leaders who are largely the result of the kindly training of Negro youth by the best representatives of another race that had a broader and better inheritance. In at least one of the southern states, it has been made unlawful for teachers of the white race to instruct their brothers and sisters of the black race. In several others, compulsory segregation of the two races is being advocated. Dr. Moton is accustomed to say in his public addresses that the Negro, like the Italian, the Frenchman, the Slav, is happier with the men of his race, and that there is a natural segregation among races, but that compulsory segregation which results in poor, unpaved, ill-lighted, poorly policed streets, filthy cars, unsanitary homes and schools which produce crime and disease, is a menace to the white man and produces in the black man a fear for his own well-being.

John E. White, of Atlanta, who represents an increasing body of intelligent southern white men, pleading before a northern audience that the whites and blacks be allowed to live and work together, told this story recently:

The guests of a Swiss hotel looking out from their veranda saw three men bound together by a rope making their way along a difficult mountain path. Suddenly there was a cry of horror as two of the men were seen falling and dangling over the abyss, held only by the rope which connected them with the third man, who held a secure position. They watcht in suspense. After a few moments, the rope gave way. The two men fell into the awful chasm below and were dash't to pieces on the rocks. The third man returned to the hotel, but he observed that he was shunned by all the guests. Even the waiters seemed to avoid him. He finally approacht a man and askt the reason for this strange action toward one

who had escaped from a great danger. Said the man whom he address: "Sir, it was found on investigation that the rope was cut."

The white race is heir to all the ages. Its members have a secure position gained after centuries of struggle. These blacks are the disinherited children. Don't cut the rope.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

JOHN D. SHOOP, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

In entering upon the discussion of the subject assigned to me by those who have formulated the program of the evening, I am deeply conscious of the conviction, that doubtless rests in the minds of this audience, that no roadway of approach is possible that does not already bear the foot-prints of thoughtful investigation, no angle of perspective remains that gives promise of novelty of research. Nor is it necessary that we assume the attitude of the aggressive promoter or of the forensic enthusiast. In logical conviction the question has long since advanst beyond the argumentative stage. In restricted, tho effective application, the movement has triumphantly past the tests in the field of experimentation. It may be well, for a brief period, to review the evolutionary stages that mark the roadway of progress, and to enumerate certain tenets of faith which have, by common consent, found permanent lodgment and organic embodiment in our modern educational creed.

1. Continuity of progress in the line of individual and social achievement is conditional upon the maintenance of the parity of hand and brain.
2. Our education, if it is to create the standards of efficiency which the age demands, must be underlaid with the substructure of realism.
3. In harmony with the inexorable laws by which the processes of civilization have been directed, actual and individual experience is essential to an understanding and appreciation of any field of action in the domain of life.
4. Discipline in the abstract, and power undirected, may be produced by running the educational machinery empty, but it fails in the dynamic tests which are applied in the world of affairs.
5. Motive and purpose are strengthened by a consciousness in the student mind of an objective point toward which a line of action or effort is directed.
6. Training for a specific calling in life to which natural tendencies are adapted is a legitimate function of public education.
7. Preparation for a chosen sphere of action, if rationally supported and reinforst, is a training for any calling or vocation, kindred in nature.
8. The intangible and immeasurable attainment that we call culture is not of the aerial type, which draws its sustenance from heights

inaccessible to the masses, but is rather in its basic proportions the fifth essence, that which we distil from the common experiences of life.

It is not our province nor purpose to amplify these declarations, which are axiomatic in their nature, except as they may serve to reinforce the foundations that should underlie the structure of vocational education.

The realistic foundation in education for which the age is calling is born of an extremity for which vocational education is the opportunity. The burden of criticism of the product of our schools today finds expression in the charge of the lack of the sense of individual responsibility. The extent to which this deficiency may be charged against the school itself is open to question. That the condition exists may well be adjudged sufficient reason to demand our attention. Someone has said that you can always distinguish the dog that has been raised in a flat. He invariably wags his tail upward and downward. There is not space at command for the lateral swing. The absence of the sense of responsibility in the youth of today indicates only too plainly that the training of the earlier home to habits of regularity and promptitude is lost in the transformation of our domestic existence into vertical neighborhoods. Let us bear testimony to the wisdom of those who as a remedial agency have originated the boy-scout and the camp-fire girls movements. Vocational education must come into the breach that is being created thru the readjustment of our mode of life. The companionship of father and son is waning to a condition that is almost incidental. The era of domestic apprenticeship of the child to the occupational interests of the parent is passing. Despite our aversion to distinct forms of paternalism, the child is more than ever before in our history the ward of the public, and the future is increasingly contingent upon the sacredness with which this same public regards the duties of its legitimate guardianship.

We have mentioned the inconsistency of running the mental machinery empty. The touch of the realistic gives zest to the work and joy to the worker. The school may not be able to cope with the problem. The multiform and multitudinous channels thru which the currents of industry are directed baffle the resources of the schools to imitate or duplicate. Nor is it consistent to anticipate that we shall ever be able to cover the field in detail.

Cooperation and capitalization are the media of connection. The genius of educational management is in no place more forcibly exemplified than in its ability to capitalize, thru the creation of cooperative relations, the educational resources which should be available in the provinces of industry, commerce, and the professions. The interplay of interests between the school and the shop, the classroom and the commercial world, constitutes the most promising and hopeful indications of the final solution of the problem of vocational education. Nor do we fear the danger signals flaunted by those who wail over the possibilities of error in choice. The

same law of conservation which precludes the destruction of energy in the changing forms to which the world of matter is continuously subjected applies in the machine which we call human. Your own lives will afford the convincing illustration.

In the retrospect and review of the agencies of experience and education that mark the pathway of the one with whose life history the writer is most familiarly acquainted—the years of apprenticeship on the farm, employed in the mastery of the crude implements of the earlier type of the husbandman, a term of service in the remote section of the commercial world known as the country store, a series of vacation engagements in the steaming and stifling atmosphere of a canning factory, an introduction to the exacting requirements of entries involving debits, credits, and balance sheets behind the counter of the village bank—should each present itself for evaluation and justification, the decree would be that while in the range of possibility for each a more potent substitute might have been selected, none of the experiences mentioned could be eliminated from the elements out of which the composite of personality is formed without reducing the resultant in the scale of value and efficiency.

For a moment I would dwell upon the vocational tendencies of our education as an antidote for the erroneous tests which we sometimes apply in determining the values of our school products. Only a few days since I was in conference with a business man of large responsibility. During the interview an incident occurred which left its impress as a forcible illustration of the standards of efficiency which the business world is now establishing. An applicant of experience presented his plea for a position on the strength of his claims of ability as a salesman. The shrewd man of affairs withheld all inquiries or interrogations, but reaching down in his pocket he placed upon the table a few crisp bank notes, and said: "Here are two hundred dollars. I am in the market to purchase. Sell me something." The test was significant. It sets forth in forcible manner the attitude of the world toward the schools. The determining factor in efficiency is quality, not quantity. The question is one of a working capacity whose efficiency is measured in units of dynamic achievements.

In the sphere of constructive ethics, vocational education has intimate and vital association. The problem of morals is one of transmutation of energy. Virtue and vandalism differ, not in quality of force, but in the channels thru which the creative energy finds its outlet. The most significant term in the language, aside from creation, is control. Vocational education, adjusted to a happy balance that gives poise to the actions and efforts of youth, will create righteous channels for turning the overflow of life into fields of constructive and creative promise.

The problem that remains for us is that of wisdom in guidance and rational control. In our eagerness to realize on the field of promise which vocational education offers, we should not be insensitive to the dangers that

may attend. In the heat of a strenuous political controversy the inquiry was submitted to a distinguished American statesman: "What is an insurgent?" The reply was prompt and characteristic, "An insurgent is a progressive who is exceeding the speed limit." The incident has its analogy in the province of education. Conservatism, the great governor of the engines of progress, must hold to its legitimate limitations the force that is carrying our schools into the province of vocations. For we live in an age in which values are measured increasingly by material standards. Industry is supreme. The commercial spirit is in the air. The hunger for industrial empire will not be appeased nor thwarted by the readjustment of our world relations at the close of the mighty conflict. The province of education and the highest duty of the educator must ever be that of the sentinel who challenges the attempt of the unrestrained ambitions of industry to encroach upon the God-given liberties of the child. To this sacred trust we shall ever be true, and it is fitting tonight that, in this great assembly, canopied by the colors that quicken the spirit of loyalty, and encircled by the emblem that stirs to the depths the well-springs of patriotism, we plight anew on the altar of devotion our vows of fidelity to the cause of popular education, the perpetuity of democracy, and the rights of childhood.

And from the deliberations of such as these there will come forth a vocational education in which there will be no place for avarice or greed, a vocational education consonant in purpose with the spirit of the Occident, a vocational education unhyphenated in its origin and nature, a vocational education peculiar to a nation on which the decrees of fate have set the seal of destiny, and whose form and content shall embody the freedom and virtue that we call "American."

NATIONAL AID TO VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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Distribution of power.—In perfecting the union of states in the organizing of the United States government, it was agreed that everything should be left to the authority and the management of the separate states, except such functions as were admittedly of a general and universal interest at the time. Recognizing the necessity for progress, development, and improvement, provision was made whereby the future citizens of the new country could amend, reorganize, or expand this fundamental law of the Union, adapting the government to later-day necessities and requirements. It was not recognized in this beginning how many and how great would be the interests and the needs that would become universal and therefore national as consequence of the changes in civilization and the requirements of government that a few years of experience and develop-

ment would bring, because it was assumed that the American people and their descendants would be residents from generation to generation in the same states where they were then living and hence they were thereby better prepared to initiate, organize, nurture, and manage the several movements that had to do with their own amelioration, as well as with the training and education of their children. It was not realized in 1776 what a vast extent of territory would eventually constitute the United States. It was not anticipated what extensive influence the new form of government would have in world affairs. It was not appreciated what multitudes of immigrants of all nations and of all races would make America their home. It was not recognized what problems of the mightiest kind were to call for solution at the hands of the masses. In consideration of all these things and the limitations of a weak and scattered people divided on fundamental issues, the construction of a constitution of such wide application and of such capable efficiency as a permanent basis of organization is a constant tribute to the statesmanship of the members of the convention that gave it to the world. At that time, commerce, transportation, means of information, opportunities for culture, interest in world enterprises, and public demands for human enterprise and service had not yet appeared as the mighty problems of civilization that the present age is compelled to recognize. At that time, it was believed by the leaders of society and government that state and local affairs were of much more importance in their aim, much more essential in their purpose, and much more notable in their influence than would ever be those kinds of business that were national in character and universal in application.

The power to amend.—Recognizing the inability to know the future or to construct human government as a perfect plan for all time, provision was made whereby the greatest developments could be accepted and the most astounding changes in policy could be made to meet adequately the exigencies and the experiences of administration and of legislation. History shows that many developments that were originally local and state have become universal and national and that many modifications and changes that have had to come from decade to decade have given the people of the present as important problems to solve as were ever considered during the days of settlement, of controversy, or of union. So true has this been that there is today scarcely any important and great interest that does not have both its state and its national problems, which are receiving state and national attention. Legislation, administration, control, have thus become joint interests rather than separate interests, joint aims rather than separate aims, and joint necessities rather than separate necessities.

The province of education.—There may have been a time when the community interests were so large, the state interests so minor, and the national interests so indefinite, that the educating and training of the children was solely a community affair. Thereby the community protected itself against

ignorance and inefficiency by seeing to it that the coming people were prepared to maintain the civilization, the morality, and the character of this individual locality. Life was simple in those days because the industries, the occupations, and the activities were limited in their scope, their serviceableness, and their intensity; because the tendency for the people to go into remote places, there to organize new interests and undertakings as new opportunities offered was still an unknown experience. But after awhile there came a time when it became necessary for the state as a corporation to assume charge of certain developments formerly communal in scope, when it was recognized that it was the absolute duty of the state to see that every child born within its borders should have the guaranteed opportunities of education and training. This was done by granting state subsidies in money, and then by requiring supervision, organization, and inspection, so that all schools should possess certain absolute standards, and so that the heritage of the citizen, guaranteed by the policy of the Republic, was able to be realized and appreciated. Since the actual residence of the uneducated and the untrained was easily transferred to any other location within the state, the burdens that accompanied incapability, degeneration, and degradation, occurring from the neglect of the state to care properly for the children and youth, rested upon society in general rather than upon the community that produced such conditions. This fact made prevention of ignorance, dependence, and indigence of the highest importance, since it emphasized the fact that education and training, when realized in their completeness, reduced the necessity for discipline, correction, and restraint, and insured the prosperity and success of civilization. So prominent did this doctrine become that illiteracy of any kind at any place was considered a menace to democratic government, that a lack of a knowledge of the English language was regarded as very undesirable in the United States, and that incapability to work efficiently at some productive occupation was decided to be entirely unnecessary and incompatible in these modern attempts at civilization. Hence there developed compulsory attendance laws, restriction of the previously accepted rights of the immature and prospective citizen, increasing expenditures, and the enforcing of penalties that were originally deemed unimportant and unnecessary.

The introduction of the nation.—With the widening of interests and the expansion of the territory governed, with the enlarging of population by immigration and the resulting increase of illiteracy, with the confusion in the accepted notions of patriotism and liberty, with the growing lack of homogeneity and social sympathy, with the increase of dangers of distintegration and demoralization, it became evident to all students of the evolutionary methods of civilization that national cooperation, encouragement, and supervision of education were urgent and prominent undertakings that could not be indefinitely postponed, even if they modified greatly the original notion of the function of the state. The newer states were settled from the

older states and from foreign countries, and they develop needs and requirements which were unthought of in Colonial times, but which became notably urgent when national recognition and acceptance as participants in government followed. It was appropriate that Congress should enter upon a policy that would insure to the new states the privileges that the original states had ascertained to be essential. From simple beginnings, a spirit of cooperation was developed and natural participation became the next step in nation legislation. That this national spirit was gradually coming into existence became evident when the United States Congress adopted the Ordinance of the Northwest Territory in 1787, asserting that morality, religion, and education were fundamental essentials to good and prosperous government. The next steps came with land grants for the endowment of the common schools by providing a public school fund, with land grants for the endowment and development of state universities and state colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, with the establishment of the United States Bureau of Education, with the authorization of educational enterprises and undertakings thru the activities of the Departments of the Interior and of Agriculture, with numerous efforts of many kinds that were of an indirect nature rather than of a direct plan, and with the expanding of the extension service and the experiment stations until these activities contributed in a large way to the uplift and to the improvement of the common people in industry, in successful achievement, and in possible happiness and prosperity. All this has been done by the national government because of the apparent necessity for having results absolutely certain in these newer states for the good of the whole country, because it had become apparent that citizenship and public prosperity and improvement were United States questions rather than state questions, and because it had been positively accepted that such problems as universal education are too comprehensive and too far-reaching in their consequences not to call for the cooperation and the coordination of all the forces found to exist in both the states and the nation.

The development of industry.—The progress of the masses in becoming absolute factors in modern civilization is a certainty. The value of every acre of land, the value of houses and improvements, the value of business and enterprise, the value of wealth and capital, the value of prosperity and success depends entirely upon the quality of the people who possess and use them. The future values of every great undertaking such as transportation, commerce, manufacturing and business establishments of all classes and kinds, depend for their significance and their permanence upon the conditions of society that exist in the generations that follow. On this fundamental proposition, democratic institutions stand or fall, the freedom of humanity depends for its interpretation, and the outlook of the future is determined and decided. The industrial progress of the last fifty years has been remarkable in its material qualities, and the demand for a trained

manhood and womanhood prudently to occupy and conserve these gigantic resources has been great. The necessity for bending every pound of energy and every factor of intelligence to attain this mastery of competency, initiative, and individuality among the nations and civilizations of the world makes certain that all differences of opinion should be suppressed, all fears of modifications of fundamental government should be controlled, and the emergency that is upon our citizenship should be fully met with courage, confidence, and greatness. If this is not done, the most remarkable opportunity of the centuries will be omitted and the greatest national promise of all time will be unrealized. The tests of world capability and sufficiency must be past in the next fifty years. The nations of earth are competitors in no mean or selfish sense. The decision of national greatness will depend upon intellectual qualities and moral stamina. Leadership can come in this century to the people of the United States if they educate and train their children for the qualifications that are eternal and effective in the spirit of grandeur of service. American supremacy, efficiency, and greatness depend, therefore, upon the education, the training, and the developing of the masses in intelligence, morality, and religion, so that national competency is at a maximum and national integrity and efficiency are at a standard not yet realized as essential.

The vocational bill.—For some years, there have been pending before the United States Congress certain educational propositions that are unparalleled for their length of vision and their magnificence of assurance. They are not subordinated in their finality by river and harbor bills, by army and navy undertakings and necessities, by the great importance of the conservation of national resources, by the problems of revenues and political policies, by the questions of suffrage and citizenship. Despite their actual rank and precedence, despite their immediate need and positive results, despite the belief of all that education in industry is the greatest present-day problem before the American people, these benevolent measures are postponed from year to year because they are for the benefit of humanity rather than for the benefit of personal or real property, and because they are altruistic in their purpose rather than selfish, and because out of them no mature individual is to receive benefit or success in his present-day business or his present-day profession. These measures, if adopted, will not have the effect of electing any man president, they will not help in sending ambitious men to Congress, they will not make millions of wealth for any industry in the near future, they will not inaugurate policies of state nor make platforms for political parties. They are philosophical rather than financial, they are humanitarian rather than utilitarian, they are efforts for the future rather than efforts for the present.

The time for action.—When it is remembered what kind of enterprises the United States has under way and the freedom that is shown in supporting and aiding temporary undertakings, it does not seem out of place to insist

that the educational service of the whole country—a work of permanent value and importance—should be given the financial assistance that these recent measures require. Action is a good word to apply to American endeavors of the twentieth century, particularly when such endeavors have the permanent effect that vocational education of the masses promises to accomplish. The period for argument, for persuasion, and for reconsideration and delay has past. No further postponements can be accepted as based upon reasonable purposes. Preparedness is the word of the hour in politics, national defense, and financial outcome, but no preparedness for the nation equals the proper training of its manhood and womanhood for effective, productive life. The salvation of society from the standpoint of independence of personality, the development of thrift in the expenditures of life, the securing of competency in individuality thru the attainment of intellectual and moral sanity, the standardization of civilization in the elements of training that insure human welfare and prosperity, are the kinds of action that will bring efficiency and reliability and character to American citizenship.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

WILLIAM C. REDFIELD, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE, WASHINGTON, D.C.

In speaking upon the theme assigned me, I trust it will be clear from the first that neither in thought nor word is there to be implied or spoken anything that fails to do honor to the spirit, the purpose, and the work of academic education. The teacher's profession in all its forms is the great productive and the great underpaid vocation. It pays the largest returns for the least investment. Out of the service that education has rendered springs normally the call for further education. Out of that which has been well and loyally done springs the cry to do well and loyally that which is as yet left undone. The deeds of fine and high commission make necessary deeds to undo a great and sad omission. One should be done and the other should not be left undone.

Here are not two opposing ideals but one common purpose. Here are two shoots springing from a common root. Here are two branches of the one tree. Here is not enmity but appreciation. Here is no opposition but rather support. The trained mind is well, and, because it is well, it is also well that that trained mind should guide a trained hand. The trained hand, thru a mind trained to grasp the things with which the hand must deal and to understand them, shall be, thru that mind, a more effective hand. So there shall show in work the joint product of the training of the mind and of the hand until the whole man or woman shall be express in terms of that fine and fruitful service which is the giving of one's best to making the world better by productiveness and which approaches worship. If it be the spirit of academic education to preserve for the future

ages the riches of all the ages past, it is the high ideal of vocational education to absorb the fruit of the ages and to fertilize the field of labor so that each successive age shall produce more and more that which shall bless the ages yet to come.

One of the great phrases of the great Book is that which says: "Take heed how ye hear." The cry of the children did not end with Mrs. Browning's beautiful poem. It has but changed its key. It is not true, as then it was, that the physical form of childhood is crushed in the mine. More and more that hateful thing—child labor—has become intolerable. Childhood and labor are opposing things that should have nought in common, and it is almost sacrilege to place even in thought the burden of labor on the back of a child. There are two reasons why this is cruel. One is that the child is unable because he is only a child and the other is that the child is unable because he is unprepared. It is our belief that no true efficiency lies that way, but rather that the youthful years in which mind and hand respond more readily than they ever thereafter will should be the time in which the child should be taught, among other needed things, how he may best fit himself for the day of labor when it shall come, so that he may carry that burden more easily, more productively, with more of peace and less of pain, and shall become a man to whom productive work shall be a joy. The cry of the children today is, "Teach us to work and to know why we work as we do and how to work well and effectively." Vocational education then has no narrow horizons. The whole broad field of knowledge is its own. It does not seek merely to train the boy or girl for the mill. It is not long since a good Divine in whose church this subject was under discussion thought best in introducing me to warn the people against fads in education. He seemed to think that the advocates of industrial and vocational training were the antagonists of the common school, that they had some bizarre ideas of an iconoclastic sort and meant to supplant culture in all its forms with a militant system of training in toil. I remember having to revise my speech on the moment to set the good man right and to make it clear to him that we did not intend a broadly leveling process, by means of which a sort of intellectual conscription was to take place regardless of aptitude, environment, or opportunity. I take it that a boy in a soap works, a brewery, or a benzol plant would not be harmed by knowing the chemistry of his business. The apprentice in a machine-shop will be none the worse but rather the better for a knowledge of metals and the principles of mechanics. If he builds or repairs automobile engines, something about hydrocarbons will do him no harm. The truth is that industry today reaches out into all the sciences so fast and far that the field for thought is large and free and fascinating and the inspiration of intelligent effort is an incentive to larger living.

Vocational education, therefore, is the opponent of things narrow and cramping. It looks with impatience on the boy in the machine-shop who

knows how to run a drill press, but to whom the planer, the shaper, and other machines are sealed books. It would take a boy and make him a mechanic knowing the why and the wherefore of mechanics, the reasons why each tool does what it does, as well as understanding the way in which it does it. It would open to a boy and girl the recesses of knowledge out of which modern industry has sprung and on which it depends. It would make them reasoning workers and not automata. Its purpose is to make men and women flexible in their working powers and to take the rigidity out of toil. It is a human force, sympathetic and virile, leading the mind to express thru the hand the character and spirit of the worker.

It is sad to think how narrow the margin of safety is for many of our workers; how straight the groove in which as things now are they needs must run. A slight change of the industrial currents leaves many like driftwood by the stream, since they have not been taught to swim in the industrial flood but merely to float, as it were, with its current.

Vocational education has a high social function in that it does enlarge the factor of safety in human life. It makes it just so much the harder for the wolf to reach the door. It puts the presence of poverty so many paces farther off. I have often thought of the joy that will come when vocational education shall have wrought its perfect work in the form of certitude to many a humble home. No one familiar with factory life and gifted with the least imagination but knows the daily recurring tragedy in our industrial centers when the job is over, and the man out of work hunts for employment while wife and children wait and worry. We do not offer vocational education as a panacea, but certainly the man who can and who knows why he can, has an infinitely finer chance in life for the steady job than he who has never had the opportunity to know why he toils as he does and who has learned the way of his toiling without teaching and without sympathetic leading.

First and foremost, then, among the things to be gained by vocational education I should put its human value, the bringing of a greater symmetry to life. It is the motto "safety first" wrought into the fabric of the artisan's home. Second among its values I should put the bringing of power to industry. Too much our factories have been run as schools operated in their productive processes by masses of the untaught. Too much has the time of foreman and superintendent been given to work of instruction instead of to leading production. Peace and prosperity will indeed be within our palaces of industry if it shall come to pass that within each great mill all workers know their work. Consider the value to a great department store of a whole force of clerks trained in salesmanship. Consider the value to a great mechanical industry of a working force in which each unit does with reason and intelligence the work to which his hand is set. Behold under such conditions how waste goes out at the door and with her the rule-of-thumb and all things born of ignorance. Consider the

peace and power of the manufacturer in whose works blunders of ignorance are not committed. It would be almost a local millennium to have a great mill in which every worker was well trained in his or her work. This fine result of industrial training has not only human and industrial values but international ones as well. Our country is in the world's arena and it cannot retire from it. Your prosperity and mine and the wages of our workers more and more depend upon what we call our competing power, and every boy and girl in every mill who has had no chance to learn, and who therefore does not know the why and wherefore of his or her work is a missing tooth in the gears by which our industries revolve. It makes one proud and confident to think of America facing the world in the peaceful conquests of industry supported by trained and intelligent workers in all our mills and factories. It makes one rather sad to think of America trying to meet the world in competition unless and until her workers shall have had a chance at that education which has heretofore been denied them. Of infinite value are our boys and girls, but we have not made the best of their values heretofore. Most of us needs must work, but few of us have ever been taught to work, and work therefore has been harder, less productive, and less remunerative than it would have been had we done more wisely. We have seen a great light in these recent years and have learned that the means whereby we live are well worth studying and teaching, so that we may live better and with less care.

So it shall come to pass, to use again the words of the ancient Book, that "the crooked shall be made straight and the rough places plain," and toil shall be easier for the toiler and more productive for him too, and more remunerative to the captain who leads toilers, and there shall be more safety all around, and greater power and much more peace when that which we call vocational education has done its part.

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR LEADERSHIP IN ALL SPECIAL EDUCATION

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Teaching has assumed new importance during the past decade. It is developing more and more into an art and a science instead of remaining a sentiment merely. It begins to aspire to be rankt with other worthy professions. Teachers are judged more than ever before by their product, that is, by what the pupil is on and after leaving school. The outlook for teaching is growing better year by year. "But we must not," says Dr. Schaeffer, "go too far in felicitating ourselves on improvement; for, just as we cannot expect the common soldier to exemplify all the virtues of the decalog at a salary of \$13 a month, so we cannot expect teachers to exemplify all the pedagogic virtues on the salaries which they even yet receive."

Still, salaries are improving and stronger men and stronger women are engaging in teaching as their life-work.

Teaching to teach is a much higher art than simply teaching. Since the highest phase of all teaching is the teaching of teachers to teach, only men and women most able in teaching pupils should be permitted to teach teachers. The fact that people are inclined to teach as they were taught rather than as they are taught to teach emphasizes the need of the highest type of teacher in all teacher-training schools. This naturally presupposes much better financial support than teacher-training schools have at the present time. The encouraging feature on this point is that people realize now as never before the value of professional training, and therefore have a higher appreciation than ever before of the work of teacher-training institutions.

This age is demanding trained specialists to do the work of the world. The demand, so strong among the people, for specialists in education is only a part of the larger insistent demand. Both normal schools and departments of education in universities have been slow in recognizing this demand and still slower in complying with it. The normal school, starved by state legislatures, ignored by the national congress, and trampled upon by colleges and universities during the first fifty years of its existence, has during the past decade shown some very definite signs of life and possibly some growth in leadership in training specialists in education.

The department or the school of education has not apparently been so successful in freeing itself from handicaps. It has not been starved by the legislature, but it has been almost strangled to death by the college and university senate. It was of unwelcome birth into the family of university departments, and, while not disowned by the mother institution, its rights have been plainly disregarded by the other members of the family. It is still bound and gagged more or less by college practices, traditions, and prejudices. It is not even now an average personality in the university, neither is it an important factor in special education, unless the few exceptions, one or two institutions in the West and one or two in the East, standing almost alone, be accepted as the general rule.

Just as these institutions, the state normal school, and the school of education or teachers' college in universities, must prepare teachers for leadership in general education, so are they the only institutions adapted to the work of preparing teachers for leadership in special education. Professional training is as necessary for the one who is to teach domestic science, manual training, or agriculture, as for the one who is to teach arithmetic, grammar, or history.

Academic departments of domestic science and agriculture in colleges are to be avoided in searching for teachers unless these departments have a vital connection with the school of education or teachers' college. Many college professors continue to urge that those who have specialized in their

departments without professional training make the most successful teachers. Fortunately, however, superintendents and high-school principals hold to the contrary view and have succeeded in influencing most of our state legislatures to pass laws requiring a certain amount of professional training for every grade of certificate.

Yet it must be admitted that the demand for specialists and the failure on the part of the normal school and teachers' college to satisfy the demand has at times almost shaken the confidence of educators in the ability of these institutions to prepare teachers in special lines of work. But at last the problem has been taken up. Normal schools have seen the necessity of doing away with the blanket diploma and certificate good for teaching in any grade in which the holder desires, issuing instead a special diploma or certificate good only in the special line of work in which preparation has been made.

Wisconsin has taken an advanced step in her plan of giving a special department to each normal school. For instance, Oshkosh has a special department of manual training; Stevens Point has domestic science; River Falls, agriculture, etc. Each school receives additional funds for its special department. It lays stress on the work of preparing teachers in its special line.

This piece of constructive work in Wisconsin has not only given satisfactory results, but it has opened the eyes of the normal schools to the need of further constructive work along this line. As soon as the work of these special departments had developed somewhat, and as soon as people began to appreciate the importance of the step taken, a demand at once arose for laying similar stress on certain other work. It was looked upon as next to a crime to place domestic science and agriculture off by themselves, connecting the work of these subjects with home and community life, and to insist on having the work of reading and arithmetic almost entirely separate from the living problems of childhood. So another step has been taken which recognizes as one special department all of those preparing to teach in the primary grades; as another special department all those preparing to teach in the grammar grades; and as a third special department all those preparing to teach in the high school. The classes have been segregated and the work for each class has been put into more vital touch with actual things. The admirable work done in Massachusetts is also deserving of careful study. Several normal schools in other states have tackled this same problem, each in its own way with the general result that, especially during the past five years, normal schools have taken on new life and have assumed a place of importance in preparing teachers for leadership in special education as well as in general education.

The constructive element in the step taken lies in the matter of arranging for preparing specialists and for giving a preparation which includes, not only method and professional training in general, but a thorough academic

knowledge of the special subject and the special professional training necessary for doing that particular line of work. Salaries are too low in both normal schools and schools of education to secure and hold the type of teachers needed to do the teacher-training work in special subjects. The state appropriates funds for encouraging the work in special subjects in the common schools. Why should not the national government grant some aid for the work of preparing teachers for these special lines of work?

The question of training for leadership in special education is not only one of community and state importance, but it is a question of the greatest national concern. In support of this position, I quote from one of America's soundest and most able statesmen, Edward Everett Hale:

Education is a better safeguard of liberty than a standing army. If we retrench the wages of the schoolmaster, we must raise those of the recruiting sergeant.

I also quote from the address of the great apostle of preparedness, Theodore Roosevelt, delivered at our Asbury Park meeting in 1905:

You teachers make the whole world your debtors, and of you it can be said, as it can be said of no other profession save the profession of the ministers of the gospel—if you teachers did not do your work well, this republic would not last the span of a generation.

In further support of this position, I quote from a statesman and a soldier, our martyred president, William McKinley:

An open schoolhouse, free to all, evidences the highest type of advanced civilization. It is the gateway to progress, prosperity, and honor, and the best security for the liberties and independence of the people. It is the strongest rock of the foundation, the most enduring stone of the temple of liberty, our surest stay in every storm, our present safety, our future hope, aye, the very citadel of our influence and power. It is better than garrisons and guns, than forts and fleets. An educated people governed by true moral principle can never take a backward step nor be dispossessed of their citizenship and liberties.

The principle of preparedness in my judgment is a sound principle. It is sound as applied to the question of protecting the welfare and sacred honor of our country. It is sound as applied to the question of enforcing peace in the interests of humanity. But is it not even more sound as applied to the training, education, and equipment of the youth of our country for efficient service, not only in the emergencies of war, but more especially in all the wholesome and peaceful pursuits of life in our liberty-loving republic?

It means something to the home for its children to receive an education which prepares for earning a living and which trains for rendering a service to society. Only a generation or two ago, many good men believed the home should meet all expenses of the education of its children. Gradually, however, the town, county, and state have taken over the expenses of operating the schools, because the education of so much value to the home is considered fundamental to the community and the state. At first, this principle was applied to the common schools only, then to the high

schools, but finally to the universities, and even to postgraduate departments of universities. Is not this education of the youth of our country just as fundamental to the existence and welfare of our nation as to the existence and welfare of the individual state?

Is it a wise policy for the state to bear part of the expenses of teaching in the public schools such subjects as domestic science, manual training, and agriculture? If so, then why should not the federal government bear at least a part of the expenses for training for leadership in special education?

The federal government has recognized the agricultural college as a national asset. It has appropriated generously for its support. It has not, however, appropriated one dollar for the school which trains the best agents for carrying to boys and girls and to their homes the valuable results obtained from the operation of agricultural colleges. A most serious weakness in our American system of education has been the utter disregard and neglect of our teacher-training schools by our national government.

The National Bureau of Education is not in a position to aid materially the teacher-training schools of the country. It has itself been neglected. It is handicapt almost as badly as teacher-training schools are handicapt. It is not in the estimation of our government of sufficient importance to have rank. It is a sub-department only. It has no funds of its own to use in studying or surveying normal schools. In making its suggestions for improvement of methods, policies, and conditions in normal schools, the Bureau must necessarily depend not on its own data and findings, but largely on the data and findings of surveys made by agencies not under the pay of, and not responsible to, either the state or the federal government.

It is a serious matter that our federal government does not attach greater importance to the work of its own Bureau of Education. It is a serious matter that it disregards the interest of our teacher-training schools. Does our government mean to turn our public and normal-school policies over to the guardianship of outside agencies and interests? Or does it simply fail to appreciate the situation?

If these surveys are not worth paying for, why have them? If they are worth while, why not make them at public expense? The funds for these gratuitous surveys come from sources which arouse apprehension, and why should it not arouse apprehension?

The teacher-training school is linkt up with the interests of the common people. Its students come mainly from the homes of working people and from other homes of limited means. Its product goes out to serve the schools of the common people. It is the school of the people. It is democratic. It cannot consistently be surveyed by those who stand for aristocracy in education rather than for democracy in education. This democracy in education is the vital feature of our public-school system. It is the sacred principle on which our form of government rests. No outside agency ought to be permitted to lay hands on our public-school policies.

Are not these free surveys a positive menace to the cherished democracy of the public schools?

I question whether it is not possible even now that traditional aristocracy, personal prejudice, professional and commercial interests have a larger share in shaping public sentiment and in directing public-school policies than we are aware of.

There is another way in which our federal government might aid in giving a national aspect to the matter of training leaders in special education, and that is by establishing a national university. The greatest educational need in America at the present time is a national university with its teacher-training department. Both Washington and Jefferson foresaw the need of a national institution to unify the educational efforts in the various states. Ex-President Taft very often in his addresses points out the absolute necessity of our having this central university. This Association has time after time declared itself in favor of it. The elements which desire to direct public-school policies are opposed to a national university. Because of their organization and influence, no steps have as yet been taken to establish this great university.

I ask whether the time has not come for backing up the resolution of this Association by personal effort on the part of every friend of democracy in education, and whether we should not bring to bear on our senators and congressmen in every state the pressure of our profession and the pressure of the home people for this central institution as an offset to the pressure applied by organized designing interests.

We cannot go very much farther in securing unity of effort among teacher-training schools of the country without the aid of Congress. Here are some of the important things for Congress to do: to consider teacher-training schools as a national asset; to provide for pensioning teachers under public control if not at public expense; to provide for making all surveys of the public schools, normal schools, and universities out of state and federal funds; to establish a national university with a teacher-training department as one of its leading departments; and to elevate the position of our national commissioners of education to that of Cabinet rank.

EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION FOR FOREIGN SERVICE

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The subject which I have the honor to present before this great Association, organized for the practical achievement of progressive ethical and social ideals, is of paramount importance to the people of the United States and should have the commanding attention of the educators of this

country. No phase of the nation-wide movement for preparedness is worthy of greater consideration. To conserve the nation's destiny and the ideals of democracy, to prepare our young men for a career of public service in foreign fields in the spirit of these ideals, to develop and maintain material prosperity at home and abroad thru scientific methods, economic principles, and business practices in accord with Christian practices—this is the problem to be considered in educational preparation for foreign service, consular and commercial. It is a task of no easy achievement under ideal conditions. Can it be accomplished with our present educational system and practices?

We are a nation of over one hundred million souls. Two millions of this number between the ages of fifteen and twenty-two attend high school and college. Statistics gathered by me in the spring of 1915 show that only 2 per cent, 40,000, study Spanish, a commercial language of the highest economic importance to the United States. Statistics for 1910 show that the study of Spanish was negligible while for that of Latin the figure was nearly 50 per cent, for German 25 per cent, and for French 10 per cent.

Since that date a change of great moment has taken place in the foreign affairs of this country. The European war has forced us into international relations that are not of our own seeking. The nation is losing its attitude of provincialism. It can never again resume its position of quasi-isolation, but must cooperate henceforth as a world-power in determining international destinies. Whether the position it takes shall carry with it moral as well as economic leadership will depend upon the character and scope of the instruction given in the preparation for service in the foreign fields.

Our present interest in foreign relations is not due, however, solely to this war, altho, as a former president of the National Foreign Trade Council has rightly claimed, the war has created an interest on the part of the people of this country that many years of effort could not have produced. This Council has been itself a very important factor in stimulating foreign trade and in facilitating the movement of the same. The United States Chamber of Commerce, occupying a position of no less vital importance, has likewise discussed informally, at its annual meetings, the question of training for foreign service. The Pan-American Union, an international organization of the twenty-one republics of the Western Hemisphere, with a governing board composed of the diplomatic representatives in Washington and the Secretary of State, has been a potent factor in stimulating in the United States an interest in Latin American affairs, and in creating and strengthening trade and treaty alliances with our sister republics of Central and South America. The official participation of this Union, thru its representative, the director general, in the series of Pan-American Congresses, has helped in no small degree to create a sentiment that is giving a new meaning thruout Pan-America to the Monroe Doctrine, stripping it of its foreboding aspect, and at the same time commanding anew the respect of the older nations of

the world. Our executive departments, the Departments of State and Commerce in particular, have greatly strengthened their foreign trade service during the present and preceding administrations. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has assisted materially in creating our favorable trade balance, thru the appointment of commercial attachés and district agencies.

The Commissioner of Education of the United States has naturally shown a very keen interest in this subject. A Conference on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service, called by him in cooperation with others, was held Friday, December 31, 1915, in the Pan-American Union, Washington. His Bureau will print shortly separate reports on this Conference and on the labors of the Subsection on Commercial Education of the recent Second Pan-American Scientific Congress. The program of this Subsection was prepared largely with the paramount importance of this question in view, not only for economic reasons of higher efficiency in the organization of business and the marketing of products at home and abroad, but for less apparently selfish reasons of acquiring by study the international viewpoint and of assisting in establishing international amity. Some sixty papers were presented before this Subsection. Not only was an opportunity given for careful consideration of the general phases of commercial education in elementary, secondary, and higher schools, but the teaching of the special subjects in the curriculum was discust by well-known specialists in these branches. Further, in view of the fact that certain extra-mural educational agencies play a prominent part in the United States in the teaching of business-training courses, the program sought to contribute a valuable body of opinion in the papers that treat of the work accomplisht by such agencies as the Y.M.C.A., business and correspondence schools, corporation schools, university extension, commercial museums, etc.

The history of commercial education in the United States reveals the fact that private support has played a far larger rôle here than in the older nations. The educational experiment carried on in the field of commercial education between 1825 and the founding of the Wharton School in 1881 is a fine tribute to American enterprise and a sad reflection on the lack of vision of our school men. In 1863, there were more than sixty business schools in a single privately owned and operated chain or system. The Bureau of Education reports an enrolment of 115,748 students in 1893 in the private business schools. The enrolment had increast to 134,782 in 1909. There was little interest in the schools and colleges for commercial education, however, prior to 1880; and it was twelve years later before one of the pioneers in this early movement advocated the establishment of a separate commercial high school. It is significant to recall in this connection that the German *Handelsschulen*, a very successful type of commercial school, were not really well establisht until 1890; and that the type of school in England that has best related its courses of instruction to trade needs

was not established until the present century. In the United States, academic initiative and the interest of the schools in commercial education seem to have subsided after 1892, in part because of conditions in the business world after the panic of 1893, and in part because of the difficulty of adjusting an adequate course to the regular and prescribed course of study. With the establishment, by 1900, of the commercial high school in a few of our larger cities, and the introduction, a few years later, of the continuation course by the city college, the academic interest began to increase, and a marked decrease in attendance in the private business schools will be noticed. Their student enrolment, however, is still significant in the total enrolment of about 350,000 students now registered in the commercial-instruction courses of this country.

The secondary schools are showing the best reaction, altho the establishment of courses on business administration and commerce in several of our leading universities has assisted greatly in the increasing recognition of the importance of commercial study. The Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1914 gives the following ratio of commercial students to the total secondary enrolment: North Atlantic division, 22 per cent; South Atlantic division, 8 per cent; North Central division, 10 per cent; South Central division, 4 per cent; and Western division, 14 per cent. In New York City, 29 per cent of the students are pursuing commercial studies. This marked relative increase in commercial education in the secondary schools will give encouragement to all who condition a nation's prosperity on the extent and character of its commercial-education course. When one considers, however, the rich resources of the South and the trade opportunities of many of its larger industrial cities, the student enrolment in commercial studies is still insignificant in the South Atlantic and South Central states; and if one considers further that these statistics refer almost entirely to preparation for business at home, the negligible rôle the schools of the United States play in preparing for a career of foreign service is easily apparent. Let us take, for example, the teaching of Spanish in our schools and colleges. Due to a quickened interest in our Latin American relations, one would expect a very large enrolment in this very highly important commercial language, whatever the method and content of instruction. Recent statistics gathered by me for the Bureau of Education, based on about 12,000 replies received in response to a questionnaire sent to 14,847 schools, show that only 731 of these schools offer courses in Spanish while a yet smaller number, 553, are actually teaching the subject. Of this number, 226 are to be found in two states, California and Texas; 68 are in Massachusetts and New York. The remaining 44 states report, therefore, only 259 schools, an average of less than 6 schools to each state. The number of students enrolled in the Spanish classes of these schools is 29,726. The South Central states have an enrolment of only 745 students, 257 of which are in the state of Florida alone. The North Central division, with

its enrolment of 10 per cent in commercial education, reveals a relatively lower interest in Spanish than the South Central states. The North Central states, including an enrolment of 1132 in the state of Missouri, register only 2826 students in Spanish, while the South Central division registers a total of 5787. This is due to an enrolment of 4619 students in the state of Texas. The Western states have the largest enrolment of any division, 13,083 students. California alone enrolls 10,163 of this number. In the North Atlantic states, where the total enrolment is 7295, Massachusetts leads with a total of 3675. The enrolment in Spanish for the 229 colleges reporting classes in Spanish is only 10,651. The total enrolment for schools and colleges is 40,387, a number almost negligible for the nearly two million students registered in the schools and colleges of the United States. These figures are compiled from an inquiry made during the school year of 1914-15. The nation-wide propaganda carried on during that year and the intervening months in the interest of our Latin American relations has led to such an increase in the study of Spanish in our schools that the publication of the *Bulletin* on Spanish has been postponed in order to gather and print as supplementary the statistics for the past scholastic year. This *Bulletin* will include as well statistics on other subjects relating to Latin America.

Failure to teach the commercial languages in a satisfactory manner is not the only defect in our commercial-education courses. Most of them are plainly inadequate for foreign-service training, as our schools and colleges, with the possible exception of a very small number along or adjacent to the Atlantic, and Pacific seaboard, train for business with the view of conduct at home, altho a small number of inland schools have introduced new subjects concerned with foreign relations, or taught those already established with a newer meaning thru the personal efforts of some member of the faculty who has been trained to the international way of thinking.

Preparation for foreign service implies a distinctive kind of work, both for student and instructor. It is almost impossible to train for it under present conditions, largely because of the lack of properly prepared teachers for the different types and grades of schools. These teachers must be not only men of vision, of travel, experience, and with wide range of reading, men of the catholic culture of Rabelais and Montaigne, but they must be specialists in their own subjects; and at the same time they must have a fair degree of common-sense and sympathy for business practices. Such a teacher is absolutely necessary in the collegiate and graduate business-training courses and will not be entirely out of place in teaching elementary or secondary studies, particularly geography and history, which are of supreme importance for our purpose.

Commercial history is the basic study in training for foreign service. As the history of a people, it will treat of its resources and intra-territorial

affairs, will give its political, industrial, and economic development, and will correlate, and show the interplay of, the great social forces of the nation in which the simplest politico-economic facts are highly significant. Such a history is in no sense a mere account of the material growth of a people, but will recognize the nation's ideals and aspirations in the finer things of the spirit as an important and contributing source of this growth. Commerce and trade, from the simple barter of primitive tribes to the intricate exchange of today, is from this standpoint the most important factor in national life. It has been the mainspring of action, individual or national, and has quickened moral consciousness and increased culture thru new processes and glimpses into a world outside and beyond itself. It has taught the lesson of cooperation and has been the agent in the many-sided development of agriculture, industry, and manufacturing; and, finally, in raising these achievements to the international plane, it is preparing the way for the practical application of the Golden Rule among nations, and for an enduring peace based on confraternity and solidarity of interest rather than diplomatic alliances that endure only so long as the selfish interests of the contracting parties are conserved. When the commercial nations consider commerce in this light, the latter will be *de facto* the great factor in civilization, and its history will be the synthesis of all activity and achievements. Selfish struggle and strife are not naturally incident to a commercial transaction, despite the contradictory evidence furnished by such facts as may come to our knowledge from day to day nor by the narratives of history detached from their natural setting in the evolution of commerce. Great commercial movements have always been inaugurated by individuals and nations fired with democratic ideals, altho the history of democratic experiments would seem to indicate that a democracy is incapable of territorial expansion with its corollary of colonial or international trade. History shows, however, that the trade success of the empires of Rome, England, Spain, and Germany were due to causes as fundamentally democratic as those which were directly responsible for the trade of Semite and Greek, the municipal democracies of Italy, and the guild towns of Germany. The Tory is incapable of sustained trade success.

This is not, I frankly admit, the generally accepted view. Commerce is still regarded by most men as something that follows of itself and requires little preparation beyond that of familiarizing oneself with the traditional technique of business thru engaging in the actual pursuit of the latter. Local business and the trade of a nation at home or abroad, whatever may be its nature and extent, have seemingly been content to develop in this manner. Individuals, companies, and nations have apparently achieved material success only to disappear with the exhaustion of resources or thru some inexplicably satisfied demand for their goods. The scientific conservation, production, and distribution of a nation's resources requires, however, trained experts. A still higher degree of efficiency must be possessed

by those who are engaged in foreign merchandising or who represent the nation in international trade and alliances. Can we prepare this type of man in the usual classroom of today? I think not. Our schools are largely compelled, thru the obligation imposed by local support and control, to concern themselves with local problems. The contrary is conditioned by their location in the larger industrial cities with foreign-trade or shipping interests and possibilities. If unusual foreign-trade opportunities were not now at hand, and if this country had to wait for the tardy introduction and slow development of the necessary courses of instruction, could there be evolved in the schools as now established a fairly satisfactory training course? I do not think so because the interest subserved in preparation for foreign service is not that of a city or state, but that of the largest unit by which we politically delimit ourselves, the nation. This training, therefore, is plainly the nation's business; for it is the nation's business to undertake and support whatever can be done better by it than by any constituent member thereof, the profit from which will accrue to all, and to refrain from undertaking whatever can be done just as well by state or individual, the profit from which will not redound to the profit of all.

Expedient ventures like the foreign-trade course in corporation schools, in banking, industrial, and manufacturing institutions, are only temporary makeshifts, however excellent the service they perform. Such a course lacks the promise of permanency and is incapable of proper correlation with our public-school system, to which it is foreign, as it is to the genius of this nation and its ideals of democracy. The continuation course offers a more satisfactory compromise. With a relatively larger urban population, with highly diversified manufacturing interests, the continuation school might offer in the United States the same effective training as similar schools in congested areas like those of Germany, Switzerland, and Belgium.

Conditions in the United States demand, however, a different solution. The proper course to pursue, it seems to me, lies in the immediate cooperation of government, business, and the schools in the establishment of foreign-trade training courses thru the introduction of new subjects or a modified presentation of pertinent subjects already established, and the articulating and correlating of these subjects in a distinctive study group for foreign-service training. The time is ripe for this. Our federal departments and the larger financial, manufacturing, and foreign-trade corporations are ready to assist. They need, not only immediately a large number of well-trained graduates for the different kinds of service, but are in a position to furnish men who can render paramount service in the way of practical lectures, supplementing theory, on their respective specialties. The reorganized foreign-trade service of the Departments of State and Commerce, the appointment of federal commissions—banking, trade, tariff, industrial, vocational, etc.—create a demand for experts without adequate supply. There is, further, on the part of business men an increasing sense

of realization that a nation's business policy must be determined by careful study and exercised thru the most scientific methods.

If it wishes, therefore, the nation can begin tomorrow to train men efficiently for this service. It will be easy to establish for this purpose a chain of schools that may receive federal support with the same degree of fairness as money appropriated and allotted to different sections of the country for other purposes. Their establishment in cities with foreign-trade interests will naturally quicken and stimulate this interest in the adjacent territory. The larger cities which come to mind have already in their midst ranking educational institutions articulated with the schools of their respective sections. Their resident faculties not only can teach the fundamentals for this specific kind of training, but will be able to exert an influence upon the necessary preparatory courses in the lower schools. The larger part of the instruction, however, should be given thru sequential lectures by a visiting staff of foreign-service experts from the federal government and the larger business corporations. The cooperation and supervised teaching of these experts will be of incalculable value to this nation. Viewing from a common plane matters of gravest concern to our national prosperity, foreign trade, and diplomatic relations, and actuated by common ideals of foreign service, government and business should be able, thru representatives assigned for this teaching work, to create a foreign policy mutually beneficial and free from all misunderstanding, because it will be the collective work of our best foreign-relation experts. Instruction carried on in this manner will furnish the supply of properly trained teachers for this type of training. The lower schools, important as they are in our educational system, need superior teachers as much if not more than the colleges, in view of the cooperation which the teachers in colleges and universities will receive from extra-mural experts. Teachers prepared thru subjects presented in part by these experts will not only be able to relate the subjects, taught by them, in turn, to local business needs, but will be of real assistance in the commercial and industrial development of their communities.

The graduate schools of business administration in particular that will be develop in time in all of these favored institutions should be able to supply this demand for satisfactory teachers, and provide government and business as well, with the experts necessary for the highly specialized service of today. Their ability to do so will depend upon the prejudice that exists on the part of the schools themselves toward the introduction of new courses and the seemingly novel manner of presentation, and upon the difficulty of readjustment within the college curriculum. If prejudice and difficulties should prove to be insurmountable, the universities and colleges should then join forces with government and business and demand the establishment of a national university of commerce, the capstone of a synthetic and scientific business-training course for the nation, where every

course studied can be presented, with foreign service in mind, by an efficient faculty cooperating in the manner above described.

It is needless to comment upon the superior training of men prepared in such an environment, whether it be in the city of Washington or in any one of the three coast cities, New York, San Francisco, and New Orleans. Foreign-service training, thru its special nature, requires a distinctive *esprit de corps* on the part of the students engaged in it, a unique relation between teachers and students, an atmosphere *sui generis*. In view of this fact and of the highly specialized character of the training in relation to the foreign field, it is highly desirable, altho not absolutely necessary, that federal universities be established in these three cities as well as in Washington, in order that the foreign fields, the Orient, Europe, the Near East and Africa, and Latin America may receive special and intensive study. If but one university can be established, this should be by all means at the capital of the nation, where scientific study and investigation of the highest order is now being carried on in the various bureaus interested in the interior development of the United States. The same facilities and a similar interest in extra-territorial matters can likewise be created here in bureaus already established or to be established in the future. Not only can the proper board of administration perform its functions with greater personal interest, but the quasi-resident faculty members of the State, Treasury, and Commerce departments, on furlough or assigned to the service of teaching in the national university of commerce, will be able to perform their labors most advantageously in an institution so situated. And lastly, the students themselves can be best trained in this environment and collegiate atmosphere, particularly for government service abroad, where the need is now so great, and where it will be greater in the years to come, if present signs are prophetic of future policies in international relations.

We must, in conclusion, prepare ourselves as a nation for this participation in international affairs, and, in fact, our leaders are doing so. Men of lofty vision and high patriotic motives, students of social conditions and progressive movements, are manifesting profound interest in the creation of an international brotherhood of nations thru common purposes, labors, and ideals, and are active in organizations, newly created or long established, that are interested in peaceful settlement of international disputes and the creation of good-will among nations. The practical realization of their labors demands a high type of government servant in the consular and diplomatic service. It is further a question whether diplomatic relations can be carried on in the future thru an organized service to which still cling many of the traditions of national isolation and separateness, the sovereign respect for might, outworn by reason of modern inventions and appliances and rapid means of intercontinental communication. Special commissions and personal envoys will play a larger part in the future in the international relations of a country. The commercial attaché will have increasing

ascendency over the military and naval attaché. The establishment of foreign branches of the federated chambers of commerce and of national banks and industrial corporations under federal patronage, together with the nation's welfare work abroad—social, religious, and educational—will create a work for which the diplomatic service of today is unprepared and unfit and which, perhaps, it may never be capable of undertaking. To perform this new service acceptably, the nation needs men prepared to understand it, to develop it in accordance with this understanding, and to hasten the day when all of the nations of the world, large or small, assured forever of their territorial integrity, will see that national prosperity is conditioned by industrial and commercial development thru the free movement of trade in the spirit of equitable, natural, and unhampered "give and take," bringing inevitably in its wake the universal aspiration toward a common culture and a common destiny.

SALARIES AND PENSIONS OF TEACHERS

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TENURE, AND PENSIONS

Since the appointment of the Committee on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions, in October of 1911, there has been published by the Committee, or by the United States Bureau of Education in co-operation with it, about one thousand pages of literature chiefly on teachers' salaries. The study of these pages will make clear to any impartial and enlightened observer that the salaries of teachers in the United States are not large enough properly to provide for the numerous financial demands that their work makes upon them.

The studies thus far made naturally led your Committee to the study of pensions. The work of the Committee this year has been in two directions. In cooperation with the Bureau of Education, a bulletin has been prepared which, on the recommendation of United States Commissioner Claxton, will be published by the Bureau. The purpose of this bulletin is to show the extent of the teachers' pension movement in a brief and summary way, and to collect, in convenient form, pension legislation for public-school teachers in the United States up to date.

This bulletin, now in press, is a natural introduction to the *Report on Teachers' Pensions*, which, at the request of the Committee, is now being prepared for it by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, without cost to the National Education Association. Dr. Pritchett and his associates, all teachers, have given their chief time and energy for the last ten years to the study of pensions in all parts of the world, including the question of pensions for teachers in our public schools. They have placed at the disposal of your Committee all the material they have gath-

ered during this period. Clyde Furst, secretary of the Foundation, has a preliminary report which he will now present.

PENSIONS FOR PUBLIC-SCHOOL TEACHERS

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The fundamental principles of a pension system may be stated briefly. Only those, however, who have studied the great mass of pension literature are likely to give full acceptance to them at once. It is not easy to understand, for example, that a non-contributory pension is the most costly to the beneficiary—that free pensions, paid by a government or other agency, are, in the long run, so expensive that the individual cannot afford to trust his future to them.

Among those, however, who have given thoro study to pensions, from the standpoint of the needs of those whom the systems are intended to serve, and who have followed the history of the breakdown of one system after another, there is practical agreement that the following fundamental principles are applicable to all pension systems which involve large groups.

1. A pension is but one feature of the relief system needed by any given group. Only a minority of those who become teachers, or government employes, or machinists, will live to enjoy a pension, however provided. A relief system must be planned with special reference to the group it is intended to serve. Among railroad employes the risk of accident is greater than among teachers. Sickness is a risk common to teachers and railroad employes, but teachers are better able to deal with it as individuals. In general, a relief system will undertake only those capital risks of life which can best be met by cooperative effort. In the case of teachers, death, dependence in old age, and disability are such risks.

2. A pension system can be operated successfully only in a group fairly homogeneous: that is to say, when the members of the group live under like conditions, are subject to similar risks, and have rates of pay which are comparable.

3. A relief system, to accomplish its purpose, must include practically all members of the group. Otherwise those who most need its benefits are least likely to enjoy them.

4. Two plans have been followed in the establishment of pension systems for large groups: (a) *the reserve plan*, under which the necessary reserve for each beneficiary is set aside year by year. This, with the accumulated interest, will provide the pension when it may become due; (b) *the cash disbursement plan*, under which plan pensions are simply paid out of current funds, such as those provided by government appropriations or by an endowment.

The same pension benefits may be paid under both plans, but the cost under the reserve plan is measured by the percentage of the pay-roll

necessary to accumulate future pensions, while the cost under the cash disbursement plan is measured by the percentage of the annual pay-roll required for the full pension benefits. The cost under the reserve plan is a constant factor which, in the case of a college teacher would entail a payment of from 4 to 5 per cent of his pay by the teacher and by the college. The cost under the cash-disbursement plan is a changing and constantly increasing factor which may eventually amount to 20 per cent of the active pay-roll or more. The reserve plan adapts itself to a contributory pension, the cash-disbursement plan to a free pension paid without the participation of the beneficiary.

5. Systems offering a free pension upon the cash-disbursement plan have repeatedly broken down thru their great cost, unless upheld by the resources of a government. Even in governmental pensions, the cost has mounted to such proportions as to endanger the permanency of the system. Under a free pension system, every tendency is toward increase. No actuarial computation can take account of the charitable, political, and social influences which tend to increase the load. Experience shows also that the beneficiaries of a free pension system in time become dissatisfied, and claim that such pensions are merely deferred pay and that they benefit the few at the expense of the many.

6. The employe entering his vocation, and looking forward over a span of thirty or forty years to the protection of a pension, is most of all concerned in its security. If he is to plan his life upon the use of a pension at an agreed age, he desires above all absolute certainty that the pension will be ready at the date named. There is no way in which this can be assured except by setting aside year by year the reserve necessary to provide it. Nothing short of a contract providing this reserve will give him such security, and this he can get only by a participation in the accumulation of the reserve.

7. A pension system on the reserve plan, sustained by joint contributions of employer and employe, is not only the fairest and most equitable form of pension system, but it is the only one in which the cost can be ascertained in advance and in which the question of pension is separated from the question of pay. It is the only form of pension which can be permanently secure. The man of thirty, whether he be teacher, government clerk, or industrial worker, can be sure of the pension promise thirty-five years in advance, only when it rests upon this economic basis.

The justification of pensions for teachers in particular is economic, social, and educational. Economically, the work of an organization is not effective unless there is a satisfactory method of retiring aged or infirm workers. Only a satisfactory pension system can prevent either the dismissal of aged or infirm teachers without resources, or the sacrifice of the welfare of the pupils in order to continue the employment of teachers who are no longer capable of good work. Socially, men and women of character,

intelligence, and devotion are willing to perform difficult social services that are poorly paid; but it is too much to expect them also to face old age and disability without the prospect of some protection. Educationally, there is great need to secure and retain able teachers in the schools. At present only about 5 per cent of the men and 15 per cent of the women who enter teaching make it a permanent career.

For all of these reasons, the development of pension systems for teachers has been rapid and widespread in the United States. Ten were founded between 1890 and 1900; twenty-five between 1900 and 1910; and thirty-one between 1910 and 1915. More than half of our states now have some form of pensions for teachers.

The cost of a pension system for teachers may be borne by the teacher alone, by the public alone, or by the teacher and the public together. If the cost is borne by the teacher alone, he can scarcely afford, out of a small salary, to set aside enough money to purchase adequate protection, and the public fails to fulfil a plain obligation. If the cost is borne by the public alone, the money is really taken from the teachers' salaries without their agreement, cooperation is weakened, and the teachers suffer in independence and lose an incentive to personal thrift. When the cost is borne by the teachers and the public together, the teacher receives appropriate reward and protection, and both the teacher and the public meet an economic, social, and educational obligation. The principle of cooperation between the teacher and the public is recognized by most of the pension systems that are now in operation.

The application of the principle of cooperation, however, is not so satisfactory. Only a dozen systems relate the amount of the public contribution to that of the teacher. In these cases it ranges from one-half to three times that of the teacher, being usually an equal amount. Frequently, public money is expected from sources which bear no relation to the amount of money needed for pensions. Excise, inheritance, license, or transfer receipts, deductions, fines, or forfeitures from teachers' salaries for absence or illness, or tuitions of non-resident students do not furnish a reliable basis for pensions. Equally unsatisfactory is the expectation of paying pensions, when they fall due, from current school or other funds, without any assurance that these funds will be adequate, or from special or general appropriations, without any certainty that such appropriations will be made. Indeed, it is not uncommon to limit in advance the sums that may be taken from such sources, thus reducing the proportion of the pension that can be paid, or leaving the whole question of payment largely to accident. Because of these facts, no teacher can be certain that any pension system now in existence will or can pay any pension that has been promised.

The only way in which security can be obtained is for the contribution of the public as well as that of the teacher to be paid in annually and set

aside to accumulate against the time when it will be needed. This also is the only economical method. Any system which agrees to pay a pension from current funds after the teacher retires, plans to spend two or three times as much money for that pension as would be required if sums were set aside each year to accumulate during the teacher's period of service.

Pension systems for teachers in the United States, moreover, are so organized at present that it is impossible for anybody to estimate the cost of any one of them. The probable length of life of a teacher in service or after retirement may be estimated, with a fair degree of safety, from the tables of mortality that have been developed by the life-insurance companies, altho it begins to appear that teachers live longer than other people. Estimates of the likelihood of disability, however, and the probable length of life after retirement because of disability are still without an adequate basis. It will be a long while before reliable estimates can be made of the probability of dismissal, or of resignation, or of the age at which one will choose to retire. It is quite certain that no one can predict what any teacher's salary will be thirty, or forty, or fifty years hence; and yet practically all pensions are based upon the salary at the time of retirement. The fact that no one of our existing pension systems is satisfactory is explained by their history. These systems are for the most part very new, and they have in the main imitated government systems, the great resources of which have caused the question of cost to be neglected. But the difficulties of the English civil-service pensions in 1909 and the failure and the reorganization of those of New South Wales in 1912 proved that even a government cannot afford a careless pension system. These difficulties and those of Porto Rico, New Jersey, Maryland, and Virginia, and of New York City, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and Philadelphia have greatly stimulated the study of pensions, with the result that we may hope to enter upon a sounder era.

There is, of course, a definite relation between pension benefits and pension costs. At present both teacher and public desire benefits that are impossibly expensive in return for contributions that are too small to provide even modest benefits. Some systems, for example, promise retirement after twenty years of service or at the age of fifty; in others, teachers contribute only one-half of one per cent of their salaries; in yet others the public contributes only one-half as much as the teachers.

Such mistakes may easily be corrected by a very simple pension system, based upon the tables of mortality that are used by the life-insurance companies, and upon a safe rate of interest, with the provision that the teacher shall receive the benefit of all of his accumulations. We can tell in this way what certain desired benefits will cost, or what benefits can be had for whatever definite sum of money is available. It is very simple to estimate what any annual contribution, beginning at any age, and accumulating at a given percentage, will amount to after any number of years. If all of the money is deposited in a central fund, each contributor

can be guaranteed a definite annuity for life, since the lives of all are averaged in the standard mortality tables. Thus an annual contribution of \$100 a year, beginning at the age of twenty-five, and accumulated at 3½ per cent interest, will provide a man with an annuity for life, according to the McClintock table of mortality, of \$894 a year beginning at the age of sixty, or of \$1550 a year beginning at sixty-five, or of \$2959 a year beginning at seventy. The annuities from such a contribution for women, who live longer than men, would be about three-fourths of the sums that have been mentioned.

If it is desired, for the sake of family-protection, there may also be a return of the accumulations of the teacher who dies before retirement, and a return of the balance of the accumulations of the teacher who retires but dies before he has drawn all of his accumulations. This also can be calculated from standard mortality and interest tables.

If further protection is desired against disability, this can be similarly provided, by the use of the best tables that we have, with the proviso that the rates for those who enter into the system in the future may be modified according to future experience.

Should it be desired, finally, to return part or all of the accumulations of those who withdraw from the system for any reason, this also can be provided for, on the basis of the very limited withdrawal tables that are available, with the proviso that the rates for new entrants be adjusted periodically on the basis of accumulated experience.

The cost of each of these additional benefits has never been calculated separately, but it has been roughly estimated that the cost of an annuity alone is about doubled by adding the benefits of a proportionate annuity for life beginning with permanent disability at whatever age, and a guarantee of the return of all of the teacher's accumulations in case of withdrawal from service, in case of death before retirement, or in case of death after retirement before all of his accumulations have been used.

A pension system of the kind that has been mentioned would be just and fair to all concerned, giving the teacher secure and adequate protection at a reasonable cost to himself and to the public. It would not be necessary to change the present form of administration, which is generally thru a special board of five or seven persons, upon which the teachers and the public are about equally represented. It will be important, however, to have the actual work done by competent, full-time experts, under the supervision of the state banking and insurance departments.

According to such a plan, all systems will provide for retirement on the basis of age, altho only two-fifths of them do so at present. The age of retirement, which is now usually fixt, can be left to the teacher and the administration. If the need is great, retirement may be earlier, in spite of the fact that the smaller accumulations would then make the pension smaller. In general, retirement will, in all probability, be later than at

present, because of the larger pension provided by the longer accumulation, and the educational desirability of keeping the able teacher in service as long as possible.

Disability can be provided for by using whatever money has been accumulated at the time retirement becomes unavoidable. Retirement on the basis of service alone is a luxury which neither the teacher nor the public appears to be willing or able to pay for. It is, moreover, educationally unfortunate in encouraging the withdrawal from service of experienced teachers at the time when they are doing their best work.

Those who are dependent upon the teacher may be better protected than at present, since the form of contribution will set up a contractual relation which may provide definite returns in case of withdrawal or death. Return of contribution in case of resignation is now generally provided for, but return in case of dismissal is provided for only by one-third of our systems, and return in case of death is provided for only by one-fifth. The amount of the accumulation that is returned now varies from one-half to the whole, and is usually without interest. Contractual arrangements for the return of contributions, also, will facilitate the transfer of the teacher from one system to another, which is desirable. Indeed, pension systems throughout the country would become practically uniform so that the experience of each would help all.

Membership in the systems will need to be, as it usually is at present, required of all new teachers, at least for the minimum protection. For teachers already in service, membership may be optional, altho this constitutes one of the most difficult of all pension problems—that of properly providing for the retirement of teachers who have not contributed throughout their active service. Probably the best plan is to require the participation of all teachers toward a minimum protection, basing each teacher's contribution on the rate for his age at entering the service, and dividing the additional amount needed between the teachers and the public, so that the oldest teachers shall be helped most.

It remains only to say that the Carnegie Foundation is in the midst of the process of changing its own pension system to the form that has been outlined here, and that it will be glad to send its studies of present systems and its new plan to any one who is interested.

TEACHERS' COTTAGES

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The steps to be taken in obtaining a teacher's cottage are usually simple. The initiative may be taken by the school directors, by any public body, or even by a group of individuals. The funds are, of course, provided by the legal means in use in the particular state in question, by a vote

of the district, and in each case a careful campaign should be made to educate the public to the need and value of a teacher's cottage.

Often a new school building is required, and the old schoolhouse can be moved to one side and remodeled for the use of the teacher. In several instances in Washington, the new building has been made with an additional story, occupied by the teacher. In all cases, however, the teacher's quarters should be comfortably arranged, and provided with ample sanitary, heating, and cooking equipment. The best type of cottage is, of course, built especially to meet a teacher's requirements and in accordance with local conditions. Standard plans may often be secured from the state or county superintendent of schools. If not, they should be prepared by a competent architect or master builder, and the teacher, if one be engaged, consulted.

In more than 112 districts of Washington where a teacher's cottage is provided, it has been found that much better-trained and more efficient teachers can be secured at the usual salary, and that these teachers will usually remain in the community long enough to discover its needs, help it to realize its possibilities, and in every way become valuable factors in the life of the neighborhood. We believe the teacher's cottage the best way to obtain better teachers; better teachers the best way to create community centers; community centers the best way to revive rural life with far-reaching economic effects in making possible rural organization.

Farming and banking, as business professions, have past thru various stages of cooperative organization. In the early days of the banking business, adverse laws, which now seem so ludicrous as to be almost unbelievable, held the lending of money at interest to be un-Christian and illegal, making necessary the close organization of bankers so that they could quickly transfer their visible assets and escape confiscation. But when the commercial necessity of renting money, as well as other property, was recognized and the ban removed, bankers became more independent of each other. It is only quite recently that they have come to see that a misfortune to one destroys confidence in all and the prosperity of all, and that their welfare lies in the organization of clearing-houses and reserve banks for their mutual benefit.

The pioneer farmer, too, in his struggle with nature, was first to lend a hand to his neighbors, and in turn to ask and receive their aid. The barn-raising and husking bee were the features of pioneer society. But, in their effort to get ahead, farmers came to live more and more for themselves. When they realized, only a few years ago, that the greatest success crowned only cooperative efforts, they found that lack of acquaintance and the resultant distrust formed a most serious obstacle to organization. Business, we know, is based on mutual confidence, but they distrusted the produce dealer, they distrusted the banks, and, most of all, they distrusted each other.

The resuscitation of rural social life, therefore, not only means making the farm more attractive to the ambitious country boy and girl, but it has a directly beneficial result on the economic welfare of the community. It makes the farmers acquainted with their neighbors. It also permits the bankers and merchants to meet them at their gatherings; and with acquaintance comes understanding, confidence, and business.

The most convenient and efficient rural-community center is the district or consolidated district schoolhouse. Here the men and women of all political parties and religious creeds have a common interest to bring them together, and a common meeting-house where they can attend without treason to their party or heresy to their church. Why, indeed, should the school building, representing no inconsiderable investment of community capital, lie idle all the late afternoon and evening? Why should it not serve the needs of the neighborhood as a gathering place for lectures, discussions, or wholesome, rollicking good times?

For these reasons, it has been my effort, as teacher, county superintendent, and, more recently, as state superintendent of public instruction, to make the rural school the social and intellectual institution it should be. Very early in this work, I encountered the difficulty of getting teachers willing and able to take part in such work . . . men and women with sufficient training, energy, and understanding of human nature.

The salary in most cases was equal if not superior to that obtainable in the early stages of other professional careers; the work was pleasant and honorable. Therefore I made a careful investigation to ascertain why so few of our well-qualified teachers made applications for rural positions. I persuaded some of my best teachers to accept such positions, but they drifted back into the metropolitan schools. I asked them why, and the problem stood out with glaring certainty. It was the vexatious boarding problem.

Occasionally we would hear of a controversy like this: The women of the neighborhood would get together in little groups and Mrs. A. would say: "I boarded the teacher last year. It's Mrs. B.'s turn." But Mrs. B would speak up: "No, indeed, I boarded the teacher we had year before last. Let Mrs. C. do it." Poor timid Mrs. C. would say: "Well, if none of the rest of you will, I suppose I'll have to; but we have ten children and only two bedrooms, and I hardly see how I can accommodate her."

In some places the teachers had fair places to board; but in many places the district paid no attention to the comfortable accommodation of the teacher. The farmer whose home would have been pleasant did not need the money paid for board; the places where the board money was welcome were usually the least attractive in the district. Sometimes the meals were poor; at other times the family was crowded in a small house; and, most objectionable of all, the teacher usually had no heated room in which to spend her evenings by herself in the study, thought, and rest

necessary to do her best work. I took the stand, which I still emphatically maintain, that every teacher must have good, wholesome food in order to supply her body with physical and mental energy, and must have congenial quarters in which to prepare and recuperate for the next day's work. Otherwise she cannot hope to develop or maintain her highest efficiency.

As county superintendent, I considered the problem of boarding the teacher as a county problem. Since becoming state superintendent of public instruction for the state of Washington, I have found that the same evil conditions not only exist thruout the state, but present a national problem as well. I have found the best solution to be the teacher's cottage—a home near or adjoining the school building, which the teacher can manage in her own way and in which she can have the privacy so much desired and so hard to obtain elsewhere.

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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The junior-high-school movement is sweeping the country. It marks a general educational reawakening, renaissance, reconstruction. This Association has made it first a field of investigation, then a propaganda and slogan, now a constructive program for development. The Department of Superintendence has embodied it in its resolutions. The United States Bureau stands committed to it. Many state departments are making it state wide. Large cities are adopting it wholesale. Small cities in impressive numbers and with impressive administrative originality are making their own ingenious adjustments to the idea. Surveyors of all kinds can think of no recommendable school policy that does not specifically incorporate junior-high-school features. Local city politics finds it useful, popular. All sorts of propagandists like it. Cooperating agencies affiliating with public schools (library associations, for example) see in it something promising. University departments of education and normal schools and all other agencies for preparing teachers are finding new aspects of professional preparation for this type of teaching, new educational ideals toward which to point the intending teacher. Textbook houses, with expected enterprise, are announcing a new junior-high-school series of textbooks, heralding, they claim, an education with new and invigorating ingredients. Teachers employment agencies have begun to use the new term and to recommend for positions those with the newly required qualifications. Standing "expert" commissions of inquiry (your own national Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and the North Central Association Commission on Unit Courses and Curriculums) are

preparing large areas, in fact the whole country, for the intricate kinds of inner readjustments the adoption of this fundamental change in school policy calls for. There are now educational courses in our colleges and normal schools dealing with junior-high-school education, and given by "experts." There is a literature, a terminology, a lingo, a cult, an educational philosophy, an educational party.

What is meant by the "junior high school"? One writer thinks the junior high school is a school made up of the upper grades (seventh and eighth) and the lowest grade (ninth) of the present high school, and "organized after the plan of a high school as regards curriculum, nature, and method of recitation, instruction, and supervision." This, the author says, is the "real junior high school—the school of tomorrow." Another says it is a school of these same grades or even of the seventh and eighth grades "which offers regular high-school subjects" and also "prevocational education" whose purpose of existence is "congregation and segregation"; congregation from many surrounding elementary schools and segregation from them into a new atmosphere where indeed, for educational purposes, different groups of these pupils can be given different trainings in certain subjects. Neither of these definitions is at all adequate to the variety of junior high schools in existence, to the distinguishing purpose of junior high schools, or to what should characterize the ideal junior high school. Beginning the junior high school in the narrow but correct sense as a special institution, we should say that it is that portion or department of the public-school system above the sixth elementary grade, including the seventh and eighth, and usually the ninth also, which is organized under a distinctive internal management with a special principal and teaching staff, or under a six-year secondary-school department divided into a junior and a senior high school of three years each with one general management. Such a school in these first three years would provide for departmental teaching, partially differentiated curriculums, and for prevocational instruction, for a system of educational advice and guidance, and for supervised study. No definition which merely says it is an institution which shifts the seventh and eighth grade boys from elementary school to high school properly represents the ideal of this school.

This is after all, however, but a narrow and technical definition of the junior high school. The adequate definition must be in terms of the profound meaning of the movement—if it is profound. The junior high school in this deeper sense suggests the breaking up of our elementary- and secondary-public-school system into smaller, more intelligible, and less unwieldy administrative and curriculum units. It is but a rediscovery of what European nations, in their more intensive cultivation of the restricted and selected field of secondary education, have found to be an administratively and pedagogically necessary arrangement. Thinking from the point of view of American democracy, we have first thought all into the

secondary system as a matter of citizen's right. We have not yet thought sufficiently of how to group and adjust our administrative machinery and instructional program to them now that we have them enrolled. European school builders and curriculum makers, thinking not of how to populate secondary schools but of how to select their pupils, have had their genius challenged, not with a condition of democracy, but with the problem of how best to organize logically and hence economically the various subject-matters offered thruout the twelve years of the complete selective secondary-school period. They are ahead of us, therefore, in economic methods of breaking up into curriculum units the twelve-year stretch of education which we in America wish to make as nearly universal as possible. The French "cycle" scheme for curriculum organization represents an established principle of curriculum construction which the junior-high-school promoters have been quick to adopt in theory. To practice this fundamental principle effectively will take time. A reconception of subject-matter of public education in terms of one six-year elementary functioning unit, one intermediate three-year transition period, partaking in content, method, administration, and school atmosphere of both the elementary and the secondary, and one three-year period of genuinely secondary work is fundamental indeed. Nothing less than this is the real meaning of the junior high school. It is no wonder that the courageous ones who have accepted the educational challenge of this opportunity are floundering.

Despite these bewildering and often vague aspects of the movement as a whole, we are already able to draw an attractive picture of the modern junior high school which is to be. It is the American common school breaking into the secondary field. To appreciate the democratic significance of this, we have but to imagine the *Folkschule* graduate invited to go ahead in the *Gymnasium*.

Its pupil population will include not only those now in seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, but all of these ages now "overage" in the elementary six grades and all over fourteen who for any reason are out of school. It is a pupil democracy. Russia has the most advanced stage today, and she has the most elective and exclusive literary cliques. She also has the fewest theaters and audiences, and the fewest elementary and secondary pupils—all drawn from the upper classes. The great general public in our country, in education as in drama, pays the piper and calls the tune, rag-time till it can be refined into Beethoven. So the great general public is now dominating the schools. It is taking over secondary education as well as elementary. With it, of course, must come fundamental changes, broadside readjustments. Our clientele has at last become this very same great, new, eager, childlike, tasteless, standardless, honest, crude "general public." As for blaming anybody—for the schoolmaster at least it is poor fun to blame such a great primal force as democracy. So much for the pupil population of our junior high schools.

Its material plant has not been reduced to one type. However, these buildings are being planned for strictly junior-high-school purposes. Especially are they being so built as to emphasize flexibility in the administering of instruction, shop facilities for prevocational education of all varieties, physical education, general business fundamentals of both skill and information, concrete acquaintance with the world of fine and home arts, auditorium and directed study facilities, etc. Their proportionate space given to shops, kitchens, cafeteria, printing equipments, laboratories, gymnasiums, swimming pools, assembly rooms, real junior-high-school libraries and museums is much greater than one finds in the ordinary school buildings. There will soon be a junior-high-school architecture. These buildings must be also community center plants of a unique sort, not paralleling the senior-high-school functions in these respects. In addition to these features of the material plant, we may expect to find increasingly art rooms and spacious grounds and other appointments in keeping with this critical three-year unit in the reorganized public-school system.

The school atmosphere will be neither elementary nor secondary as we now know it. It will be a junior-high-school atmosphere or it will be a failure. It either has its unique character and tone or it is but a sham solution of a very vexatious problem of public-school reform.

We shall have better teachers and better supervision and more men teachers and a more pointed, focused curriculum. More men will become junior-high-school principals, and there will be a more nearly divided teaching staff on the lines of sex. Starting a junior high school creates a situation calling for a selection of high-grade teachers to whom to intrust an institutional experiment in a system of education. Better salaries will figure, broader training will be at a premium, years of experience will count, and those with deepest understanding of youth will be selected. Comparative educational results and records of all sorts will result.

The six grades of elementary units in buildings by themselves will now be cleared of all but the children, their single curriculum purpose will be clarified, and their obstacles in the way of overage pupils will be out of the way. This policy of "lifting" the overage from the six-grade elementary school will have a wholesome effect upon all entrance requirements standards for admission to the next higher stage. Likewise, those who have spent three years in the junior high school with its now increased exploration facilities and flexible curriculum offerings will and should naturally expect to be past on without red tape to something in the senior-high-school department which is more specifically designed to fit them for some more definite sort of life-work. Then possibly even the colleges may get from all this a suggestion of an educational guiding principle for making their own admission requirements.

As to subjects and single courses, new and old, I have already referred to progressive textbook-makers who are even now on the job. Every single

subject now found in the three grades concerned will undergo—indeed is already undergoing—transformation. New principles of organizing so-called general courses in all the main lines of junior-high-school work—English, mathematics, general science, general social science, foreign languages, practical arts, commercial work—all presage an educational era for the making of better pedagogically constructed units of instruction which are surely going to point us to new meanings of educational method.

As to curriculum organization of our courses, we are at least now to have design where there was none. Someone has said that what he misses in seventh- and eighth-grade work is design. The junior-high-school organization creates a situation in which instruction without curriculum purpose will be painful when in evidence. In short we are first to hunt for bases for our schemes of training. Here we may have curriculum differentiation or we may not. We may differentiate on vocational grounds, or on those purely of individual differences, or on none at all. The thing is that we have got to face the problem of whether we can “point” our instruction of these grades in any definable direction. Indeed, curriculum differentiation is the crucial issue, whatever we do about it. We have already in our crudely conceived prevocational education begun to adjust our instruction in this prudent way to some sort of inevitable industrial test to come in the life of the junior-high-school pupil, saving him all the while from narrow specialization. Already, also, we have become increasingly convinced from our crude scales and tests, of the consistent evidences of the inherent and universal natural differentiation among these children. No “common elements” can produce like effects. Here it takes uncommon elements to produce similar effects. Future probable careers suggest some flexibility in our courses, and this relatively constant proportion of poor, medium, and superior students reinforces the suggestion.

A mere tinkering with seventh- and eighth-grade subjects in the old environment and with an unchanged teaching staff and supervision cannot do what we already know must be done. These internal matters of educational reorganization offer opportunities which must not be squandered. The psychological value of this junior high school is that it provides just this favorable new situation for seriously conceived plans closely related to a clear educational philosophy of administration. If the junior school is anything, it is the three-year section of our public-school system, which, with its newly developed types of “generalized” subject-matter, “project,” and other like methods of teaching, democratic and free policy of school-management, and intimate and intensive study of the individualities of pupils, seeks to direct pupils in finding themselves by exercising their various traits, examining their various aptitudes, and making possible intelligent choice of any special sort of definite training which may be followed in the senior high school or in higher educational institutions. It

is our clumsy, crude, and still more or less vague, but yet unmistakable, attempt to shunt our educational machinery during this particular three-year period into the fields of diagnosing and consciously exercising, by means of more various and more liberally conceived kinds of trainings, the individualities of pupils.

Into this picture of the modern junior high school, in addition to these larger features of the material plant, the principal and the special teacher, the new entrance requirements, the new and renovated old subjects, the curriculum, differentiations, simplified organization, discipline adjusted to early adolescence, and equipment, must go such features as directed school study, systems of organized educational and strictly vocational guidance, lengthened school day and school year, carefully supervised student activities, and card catalogs of individual differences recorded in such a way as to affect the daily administration of the school. Ask ourselves how many of these features of a school are possible in European systems and we begin to appreciate the Americanism of the junior-high-school idea. We understand neither Americanism nor the junior high school thoroly, yet we can believe in them. They are both struggling for expression.

Why does the junior high school stand for us today as our chief educational problem? In the first place because it, like fire, tho indispensable in the right place and in the right hands, is still dangerous; because it is misunderstood; because its proponents exaggerate its immediate values; because, like all fundamental reforms, it really cannot be understood by anyone at the present stage of its evolution. It is our prime educational problem because, of course, the junior high school is the adopted caption for an institution which, whatever we think of it, is spreading everywhere. The junior high school is, in its name and independent physical existence and form of organization, but the outward manifestation of a sound new philosophy of education. It is the name we have come to associate with new ideas of promotion, new methods of preventing elimination, new devices for moving selected groups thru subject-matter at different rates, higher compulsory school age, new and thoro analyses (social, economic, psychological) of pupil populations, enriched courses, varied and partially differentiated curriculum offerings, scientifically directed study practice, new schemes for all sorts of educational guidance ("educational" in a narrow sense, and also moral, temperamental, and vocational), new psychological characterizations of types in approaching the paramount school problem of individual differences, new school year, new school day, new kind of class exercise, new kinds of laboratory and library equipment and utilization, and new kinds of intimate community service. It has somehow set on fire our educational imagination.

It is a part of our educational philosophy already. Even its vigorous opponents have done the cause valuable service and made real, tho so far negative, contributions. From now on, however, it would seem that all

educators should pull with the current, and constructively help clarify the real junior-high-school idea.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

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The junior college (so called) finds its *raison d'être* in an attempt to perfect an organization of the American secondary-school system. While the past quarter of a century has seen the American high school spread from East to West and from North to South, until every community supports with pride a course of from one to six years, the rapidity of this development has overwhelmed educational administrators who are charged with the task of organizing and directing the movement—with adjusting it to the elementary schools below and to the colleges and universities above.

Various attempts to delimitate the scope and purpose of secondary education have led quite generally to the conclusion that it should cover the period of adolescent training and that the content of the curriculum and the methods of instruction should be adapted to the needs of adolescents. This conclusion gave rise to the demand for a downward extension of the curriculum to include the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools in what has come to be known as the six-and-six plan and more recently as the junior-senior high school. It also gave birth to the movement in a few of our wealthier and more progressive communities for an upward extension of the curriculum to include the freshman and sophomore years of the college course. Thus came into existence the institution that is known as the junior college. As a matter of fact, the term is a misnomer and it were better frankly to recognize the institution as a senior high school, if this did not involve the rather humiliating acknowledgment on the part of our colleges and universities of the secondary nature of their freshman and sophomore courses.

In organization, in content of courses, and in methods of instruction, the process of education falls into three distinct fields—the elementary school, the secondary school, and the university. Classical and professional interests have attempted to separate the secondary school from the university by requiring an interval of four years' collegiate training before a high-school graduate might enter the professional schools of the university. The prescription, carefully compounded, was pronounced ideal by the doctors but complaints from the victims grew so numerous and their protests became so emphatic that a committee from this Association was asked to diagnose the case and to report its findings. This committee, composed of Presidents Butler, Eliot, and Harper, and Dean West, agreed that a readjustment which would involve a shortening of the college or pre-professional courses, was imperative. True to his American inheritance,

however, each proposed his own remedy for the disease, but their combined reports constitute one of the most valuable contributions made to the literature of educational administration by this Association in 1903.

It was in this report that President Harper called attention to the secondary nature of the lower division courses in colleges and universities. In his address before the National Education Association, he declared that the work of the high schools could not be separated from the freshman and sophomore years of the college or university either in method or in scope. "Many high schools," he said, "are actually moving forward to include in their curriculum the work of the freshman and sophomore years. In these schools the entire college course, as it was known fifty years ago, besides the additional work of science, which at that time was unknown, is included." He foresaw the significant bearing which the development of this "new college, the product of his own generation," would have upon the question of entrance requirements to professional schools. His conclusions were based upon his experience in the University of Chicago, where the curriculum for ten years had been divided into junior courses and senior courses.

The work of the professional school should begin, and that of the vocational school should end, at the close of the adolescent period. Foundations should have been completed by that time. While this is being accomplished, it is important that the student be under the directing influence of both school and home. This feeling in no small degree lay back of the demand for higher general and vocational training on the part of many communities financially able to support a junior college but unable to bear the strain of municipal college or university. The initiative in the movement was taken by Joliet, Ill., in 1902, following a conference in which sat President Harper, of the University of Chicago, and Superintendents J. Stanley Brown, of Joliet, Soldan, of St. Louis, and Greenwood, of Kansas City. It was in accord with a suggestion developed at this conference that Superintendent Brown expanded the curriculum of his high school to include freshman and sophomore college courses, a step which has more than justified itself. The graduates of the Joliet Junior College have always ranked high as upper classmen in colleges and universities. The movement launched at Joliet has spread until public junior colleges are found not only in Illinois, but also in Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, California, and other states of the Union. At least one state, California, with its more than fifteen hundred junior-college students, has legally made the institution an integral part of its educational machinery.

The junior-college movement has received a powerful impetus in the Middle West thru a rapidly growing conviction among schoolmen that the best educational results may be secured thru a segregation of the sexes during the adolescent period. An idea older than educational institutions themselves, its value has been appreciated with a kind of shock by that

portion of the American continent where coeducation had become synonymous with democracy and individualism. While this conviction has not as yet materially affected the organization of the public high school or junior college, where the student is under the restraining influence of the home, it has raised a strong protest against sending immature boys and girls into the overcrowded, unsupervised classes of large coeducational institutions, and it has given a new lease of life to a group of private institutions that were on the verge of closing their doors.

When it came to be felt that the educational machinery for the training of students during the later adolescent period was in need of readjustment, Missouri found herself in a peculiarly fortunate situation. From the days of the private academy she had inherited a group of institutions, a number of which, keeping pace with the times in a restricted field, had been able to meet the requirements laid down for membership in the Missouri College Union as standard four-year colleges. While a few of these were coeducational in name, all were devoted primarily to the problem of the adolescent boy. There were, however, various private seminaries (colleges so called) and finishing schools for girls, about to be displaced by the rapid development of the public-school system, that were seeking a logical place in the educational machinery of the state. It was about these institutions that the junior-college movement in Missouri developed. The strongest of them recognized frankly that they could not aspire to the rank of senior colleges. Since the growing popularity of the public high school would shortly render their continuation as preparatory schools unnecessary, they began to ask why their resources might not be utilized in providing collegiate and vocational training for girls during the period of later adolescence.

The cordial reception tendered them in their new field by the educational fraternity was due to various causes, some of which have been discussed above. The primary cause, however, was the growing concern of parents and educators over conditions surrounding girls, yet in their teens, in large coeducational institutions. During childhood and early adolescence, the influence of the home, so vital in the life of a girl, had been paramount, but at the middle of what should have been the period of transition from directed to independent educational effort, the student found herself compelled to sever the home ties or to forego the privilege of further educational advancement. If she were to enter a public institution, she would find the classes so large as to make it impossible for her to receive that personal attention which was her due and which she so much needed in making easy adjustment to the new condition that confronted her. The struggle for recognition or even for survival soon registered itself in her life, and she became a university woman at an age when she should still have been a college girl—a distinction that is real and one that is due primarily to environment. This thought was in the mind of the president of an American university who recently said: "I shall regret the day when my daughter must enter our

university classes. The struggle for adjustment is so intense that she will become a woman overnight. I would keep her a girl as long as possible."

Here lies the basic argument for giving the private junior college for men or for women a definite place in an educational system. Thru it the period of training for adolescent boys or girls may be extended two years beyond that provided by the present organization of the secondary schools. Its semi-homelike atmosphere makes possible those intimate associations between individuals and among groups that are so necessary in promoting the rational development of girlhood into womanhood; of boyhood into manhood.

This conviction led President Harper, the father of the junior college, to segregate the sexes in the junior courses of the University of Chicago. Its force is now appealing quite strongly to educational leaders thruout that inner shrine of coeducation, the Middle West. The conviction rests not upon the feeling of the superiority of one sex over the other nor upon a belief in monastic seclusion for the sexes. Rather it is based upon the fact that at this age each sex can best find its highest expression thru intimate contact with members of its own sex—a practical impossibility in large coeducational institutions.

The history of the junior-college movement in Missouri is not without interest to those educators who perceive in the institution a real educational asset. That the movement met with such instant and universal favor among schoolmen has been due primarily to the sympathetic attitude of the University of Missouri, whose management was quick to realize that the institutions might be made to fill a very important place in the educational work of the state.

A request for inspection and accrediting as junior colleges was sent to the University of Missouri by the interested institutions in 1911. A committee from the faculty, the chairman of which was the president himself, was forthwith appointed. This committee was instructed to visit such institutions as might apply for recognition as junior colleges, to inspect them thoroly, to counsel with their faculties and administrative officials, and to formulate the rules and regulations that should govern a category of institutions to be known as junior colleges.

Upon the publication of the report of this committee, the various institutions inspected began a reorganization to meet the requirements laid down. Since then nine institutions have been officially accredited as junior colleges: In March, 1913: Hardin College (Mexico); Howard-Payne College (Fayette); Lindenwood College (St. Charles); Stephens College (Columbia). In June, 1914: Christian College (Columbia); Cottey College (Nevada). In January, 1915: William Woods College (Fulton). In March, 1915: Kansas City Junior College; Pritchett College (Glasgow).

To promote the interests of the movement, these institutions have organized the Missouri Junior College Union, which holds semiannual meetings for the consideration of questions of common interest.

The entire junior-college movement is too much in its infancy to warrant any very definite conclusions. Some tendencies, however, may be noted and the specific results that have accrued to one institution since standardization may be recorded.

It has not yet been definitely determined whether, in the last analysis, the junior college is to offer only a two-year college course, or a two-year high-school and a two-year college course, or a four-year high-school and a two-year college course. Each has its advocates, tho most junior colleges in Missouri at present offer four years of high-school and two years of college work. Theoretically, there are many who argue that the junior college should concentrate its resources upon the two years of college work alone. In practice this has not yet been feasible.

The Missouri Junior College Union has recommended that the course should be a four-year one, covering the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. This plan is very generally supported by members of the Junior College Accrediting Committee from the University of Missouri. Before this basis for organization can achieve any degree of permanence, however, the proper correlation of courses between the junior-senior high school and the freshman-sophomore college must be more definitely determined. The course of study must be a unit beginning at a definite point and extending without artificial break to another definite point. This can never be until the same freedom of election in courses is permitted junior-college students as is now enjoyed by students in the secondary schools. If the junior-college course is to cover a four-year curriculum, there is no more reason for requiring it to organize duplicate German courses (for instance, one for its first- and second-year, and another for its third- and fourth-year students) than there is for requiring a high school or a senior college to do the same thing. A senior in high school may enter a freshman-sophomore class for a course in science or history and receive credit toward graduation. A senior in college or university may recite Spanish with a class of freshmen and receive full credit toward his degree. Is the break between the second and the third year of the junior-college course so vital that its students may not have the same privilege? If so, the four-year junior college will not prove feasible and the attempt to organize it upon that basis should be discarded, substituting therefor the two-year college with or without a four-year preparatory department. There may be a main entrance and a side door, but there will not be two main entrances to the junior college.

The distinction, however, is purely arbitrary, having neither a physiological, a psychological, nor even a logical basis, and the ultimate solution to the question will doubtless rest with the junior colleges themselves. Should they be called upon to care for large numbers of graduates from two- and three-year high schools, they would doubtless be permitted to organize their courses upon some unitary basis. Should the demand for entranc

be strong from the elementary schools and from one- and four-year high schools, the junior colleges would do two years of college work, with or without the preparatory department.

Educational curricula are always in the making. They no sooner reach the *ipse dixit* stage than they fall apart under the weight of new interpretations. At present the private junior college is called upon to provide its students with such intellectual training as will most enrich their own lives and will later make them trusted advisers of youth. It must foster a moral and religious atmosphere such as will inspire in them the highest ideals. It must offer a type of physical training that will produce the most perfect coordination of the bodily organs. It must place such an emphasis upon subjects of practical and economic value as will best insure the comfort and happiness not only of the student herself, but also of those who may become dependent upon her. Such courses, given a rational interpretation from the standpoint of woman's dominant interest, indicate the general policy of the private junior college in Missouri.

Some interest has been manifested in the results that have followed the standardization of private institutions as junior colleges. With an added warning against drawing hasty conclusions from a single example, the following may be offered as again indicating a tendency. It is an excerpt from the curator's annual report of a Missouri junior college.

In March, 1913, the college was accredited by the University of Missouri. The significance of this action lay in the fact that graduates of the institution could thereby be given a guarantee that the work taken in the literary department of the college would be accepted at face value by the standard universities of the nation. The results have been important.

1. The dormitory enrolment, after standardization, increased 100 per cent the first year, 15 per cent the second year, and 25 per cent the third year. The total increase in these three years has been 180 per cent.

2. The number of graduates from the literary department in 1915 was 227 per cent more than in 1913.

3. The increase in percentage of high-school graduates in the literary department during the same period has been from 57 per cent to 87 per cent, making possible the elimination of the first two years of high-school work.

4. The increase in the scholarship and training of the students when they enter the college has been marked, as is shown by the further fact that twenty-three of the students in attendance during the past year are honor graduates of the high schools from which they were enrolled.

5. This character and quality is further emphasized by the fact that, of last year's graduating class, 23 per cent are in higher institutions of learning, while in the class of 1912-13, none attended higher institutions; 69 per cent of this year's class is teaching, thus making a total of 92 per cent who are teaching or attending higher institutions. In the same period of time, this institution has turned an annual deficit of \$15,000 into an annual surplus of \$4,000.

The junior college still wears its swaddling clothes, but this discussion has pointed out certain virile qualities that indicate longevity. The upward extension of the secondary courses in those communities that can bear the

added financial burden will grow more popular as the work of the junior college becomes more clearly defined. In the North and West, the wealthier communities will continue to expand the curricula of their high schools to include the lower division college courses. In the South, the contraction of the college curriculum, together with a complete reorganization of its courses, will prolong the existence of scores of private institutions in the face of our rapidly developing public-school system. The movement is already gaining headway in Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, Missouri, and other southern states where private educational institutions have played such an important part. To guide these institutions thru a process of reorganization, to safeguard their properties, and preserve an influence still vital to our national welfare is a task worthy of a master hand.

A TEACHER—INSCRIBED TO THE BEAUTIFUL MEMORY OF
ONE WHO GAVE HER LIFE TO HER WORK

WRITTEN ESPECIALLY FOR THE OCCASION AND READ
BY THE AUTHOR

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Go, praise the Hero, ye who may:
I sing the Teacher—one for whom
The morrow was but more today—
Whose fainting labor showed the way
To pluck one's gladness from his doom.

The leisure others gave to joy
She gave to toil; to fill the day
With wine of wisdom her employ.
She, once as merry as a boy,
Had long forgotten how to play.

I see her, when the scurrying band
Have left her, weary and alone,
Her pale cheek pillowed on her hand,
Watching the wistful evening land
Without repining, tear, or moan.

Mayhap her spirit, never sad,
(Ah, what a challenge memory stirs!)
Demanded why grim fate forbade
Her motherhood, who gave each lad
The love she might have given hers.

She dwelt within a life-long dream
Of seeing lands of far romance—
Of loitering by Arno's stream,
Of catching Athens' sunset gleam,
That can alone its fame enhance.

Still, an uncloistered nun she went,
With naught more fretful than a sigh,
And in her happy task she spent
Her sweetness, like some rose's scent
In sacred treasury laid by.

Her pure devotion did not gauge
Her service by her daily need;
And not her scanty, grudging wage,
Nor spectre of forsaken Age,
Could take the beauty from her creed.

She faced her calling as it stood—
Incessant, onerous, obscure;
Content if she but sometime could
Be silent partner with the Good
Whose victory was to her so sure.

She knew that all who reach the height
The path of sympathy have trod;
And pondered, many a wakeful night,
How she could aid with gentle might
The unseen miracles of God.

What tho she might not wait the fruit?
What tho she went before the flower?
She gave the timbre to the lute,
And in the voice that else were mute
Divined the rare, supernal power.

Of all she lent her strength, a few
Shall wear her name as amulet.
How many more who struggle thru,
Remembering not to whom 'tis due
Shall still keep memory of the debt!

Oh, could we know of life the whole
Hid record, what an envied place
Were yours upon the honor scroll,
Ye faithful sentries of the soul,
Ye childless mothers of the race!

UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING

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I assume that you are all heartily in favor of arbitration and that you all earnestly desire a condition of world's peace. In this you are in entire accord with the general sentiment of those who are interested in the organization of our national resources and in what is generally called preparedness. There is no class of individuals in our population who are more earnest for peace, who believe more thoroly in arbitration, than officers of the army and navy, for they, far better than you, understand what war means. You do not hear any loose discussion of war among officers of the army and navy. They know how serious a proposition it is.

I want to bring one thing home to you at the beginning of what I have to say, and that is that the officers of the army and navy are simply your paid professional servants. They are like your engineers, your doctors, your lawyers, or any other class of professional men whose services you employ because they are expert in their line of work. Officers of the army and navy form one of the most conservative elements of our population. The fact is, their business is to prepare in a way for the conduct of war and to handle, under the general direction and supervision of the president and the proper constituted authorities, the armies and fleets of the nation. They do not bring about war. You can find no instance in our history where officers of our army or navy have brought about international strife. They are not the people who bring about war. Their business is to get the country out of wars that you people bring about (when I say "you people" I mean the civil element) thru commerce, the struggle for trade, the struggle for concessions, for favorable areas, for all those things which bring us sharply into conflict with other nations. These matters are outside the scope of the activities of the army and navy. Incident to very superficial information concerning the functions of an army and navy, and defective instruction as to our history, there is altogether too general an idea among our people, especially the uninformed class, to the effect that armies and navies bring on war. In our country, at least, nothing is more remote from the truth. The work of the army and, to a lesser extent because it has had less opportunity, the navy has been highly constructive, and has been many times more a force for the building-up of civilization, re-establishing order, and preserving human lives than it has been an instrumentality for tearing down and destroying the same.

While we recognize the value of arbitration and the desirability of a condition of world's peace, we cannot, unless we are blind to actual conditions and refuse to recognize the situation as it is and admit the evidence of our own eyes, fail to see that world's peace is still afar off, and that arbitration, much as we may desire it, is not of general application. If you look at the great peace palace at The Hague, you will find that it is empty, that

none of the causes leading to this world-war have been heard within its walls, that the people of the land in which it stands are in arms to the extent of half a million of men for the protection and preservation of the integrity of their own soil. They know that they cannot, under the pressure of the present great struggle for national life which is involving the great countries of Europe, trust to promises or to any agreements, that all these become secondary when the very life of a people is jeopardized. This may be very unfortunate, but the thing for us to remember is that it is a condition which exists; that we are confronted, not with theories, but with facts; and that while we are going to continue our efforts for the amplification of arbitration and our struggle to establish a condition of world's peace, we must not fail to see things as they are and make adequate preparation to protect those things which we consider vital not only to ourselves but to mankind.

Preparation can only come thru thoro organization and thru doing what is necessary in time of peace. The charlatan who tells you that the people will spring to arms, that a million men can be raised between sunrise and sunset, is, wittingly or unwittingly, a very real enemy of our country. He is one of the most dangerous advisers of the people, for he knows not whereof he speaks. He does not realize the fact that there are no arms for a million of people to spring to, that there are no officers to lead them, that, even if there were arms available and a million people gathered them up, they would not know how to use them and they would hardly know the difference between the implements of peace and the implements of war, that they would be simply an armed but undisciplined mob, filled perhaps with a patriotic impulse but helpless in the face of a small, well-organized well-trained force. The proposition is so silly and so full of ignorance that it seems hardly worthy of consideration, and yet there has been so much of this kind of oratory, this type of verbal massage, this talk of our great strength, our tremendous resources, that the whole world looks upon us with awe, etc.; that the uninformed have been led astray and have been lulled into a sleep which will be the sleep of death unless they are awakened by a clear statement of the truth. Great numbers are not a source of strength unless instructed and organized, indeed numbers mean little unless there is leadership and preparation. No wolf was ever frightened by the size of a flock of sheep.

Wealth itself means little unless accompanied by a fearless national character. Money is not the sinews of war, as is so often stated. The sinews of war are the bodies and souls of men trained and disciplined, animated by a spirit of sacrifice, and supported by convictions—by an honest belief that there is something worth more than life itself. But even this spirit will be unavailing against a strong and vigorous nation, itself animated by what it considers the highest of motives, and, in addition, organized, equipt, and well led. Again, this may all be very unfortunate, but

again, it is very true. National existence and national progress are a part of the great world-old struggle for existence, a struggle in which the most fit survive—not always the most moral, unfortunately, but the most fit. Under that heading come a multitude of things. Good bodies based upon good sanitation, good laws, and clear intelligence founded upon a good school system and careful education, thoro preparation based upon well-thought-out organization, training, and leadership. All these things come into play in the great struggle to be the most fit and to be one of the survivors.

Organization means not only men, but it means the resources of the nation, its mechanical industries, its transportation facilities, its communications, its chemical resources, all those factors which serve to supply, move, keep informed, and transport the fighting force which, after all, is only the edge of the knife. The organized resources and strength of the nation represent the great mass of steel in the blade, which serves to renew the edge as it is worn away, to give the strength and rigidity, and to enable the force behind it, which is the will of the people, to force it home and accomplish its purpose, which is the overthrow of what we believe to be wrong or the upholding of what we believe to be right.

We hear a great deal of our moral superiority. But put yourself outside your immediate surroundings and look at the situation. Where is our tremendous moral superiority found, looking at it from the standpoint of the intelligent and well-educated foreigner? Is it found in the reckless waste of our national resources? We have galloped thru the reserve resources of a continent in our rapid development and our keen struggle for wealth and are just reaching the point where sober reflection is requiring a careful conservation if we are to continue to prosper. Is it found in our reckless disregard for human life among ourselves while we prate about the disregard for it in other countries? Our industrial casualty list shows half a million people a year with eighty thousand deaths, a total of deaths exceeding those in battle and from wounds in any combined two years of the civil war. Is it found in our criminal rate, which is from six to ten times as heavy as the leading Christian countries of Europe? Is it found in a systematic, well-thought-out scheme for protecting and caring for old age and for the broken-down worker?

These are some of the questions which the intelligent foreigner asks when he hears the tiresome claim of America's superior morality, and the oft-repeated declaration that America is to thrill the world.

Let us look the matter squarely in the face. We have a great deal to do before we can assume the attitude of the critic or that of a superior people from a moral standpoint. We must nationalize our people. They are drifting too much into individualism. We are not doing those things which make our people think in terms of the nation, and these are the things we must do if the nation is to live. Democracy always has rested and

always will rest upon that fundamental principle. Equality of opportunity and privilege goes hand in hand with equality of obligation within the limit of our physical and mental capacity. The volunteer spirit is fine but the volunteer principle is absolutely unsound. All men must assume, within the limits of their ability, their share of the nation's burden in war as well as in peace. National service must be shared and shared alike up to the limit of the citizen's ability or capacity. This principle must govern in national defense. The volunteer system always failed us in time of war. We have had to go to the draft, the bounty, and that most pernicious of all practices, that most demoralizing procedure, the purchase of substitutes, a procedure under which the rich are able to buy the bodies of the poor for the purpose of paying the blood tax, the service war tax. This we must get away from and come to a condition of universal obligatory military training, for there never will be, until we reach the millennium, a condition of universal voluntary service any more than there will be a condition of universal voluntary observance of law or payment of taxes. A certain number will always fail to perform their duty. You know that even if the income tax was to be devoted to the best of purposes, only a small proportion of our people would pay it if it were left to volition. We must remember that men are not all living on a high moral plane. Here again we are confronted by a situation and must not be governed by a theory.

There are certain things we have to do. Universal military service must be accepted by our people if we are to live thru any great struggle. We have never waged war single-handed with a first-class country prepared for war. Our military history has been superficially and incorrectly taught. We have won, single-handed, no great victories over England or any first-class power. We have never known, except in the Civil War, the stress of a real war, and I hope we never shall, but unless our fate is to be different from that of all other nations we shall certainly have to go thru this experience. The only way we can meet a struggle of this kind successfully is to have a system of universal military training and service, a system which brings all classes of people shoulder to shoulder in the service of the nations. This kind of training altogether, wearing the same uniform, living under the same conditions, animated by a common impulse, and that impulse a lofty one, the preparation of ourselves to defend what we believe to be vital to ourselves and humanity, will serve more than anything else we have ever attempted, to build up a spirit of national solidarity, to make our country what it must be if it is to endure, namely, a real melting-pot, one under which the fire is hot enough to fuse the elements into one common mass of Americanism. Universal service for all who are fit in war as well as in peace will do more than anything else to bring this about. Moreover, this service altogether tends to make one class acquainted with another, one racial group appreciative of what is good in another, and, in the end, tends to obliterate the cheap distinctions between upper and lower social classes,

Jew and Gentile, Protestant and Catholic, rich and poor, and to place all squarely upon the foundation of good citizenship.

You teachers have a great responsibility. Speaking generally, our history has never been frankly and properly taught. Our children have left school filled with false ideas. They do not know that the response of our people in the Revolution was not what it should have been, that in 1781 we had only about one-third the number of men we had in 1776, that on no day during the war could Washington muster 20,000 effective troops, altho we put over 396,000 into the struggle, that the aid of France came at a time when the issue was at stake, when it was vital for us. How many of our children leave school with an appreciation of the fact that in the war of 1812 our ally was the greatest military power of that time, namely, the emperor Napoleon, for England then as now was engaged in a life-and-death struggle against the greatest military power of the age. She paid us, figuratively speaking, only passing attention, the greatest number of regular troops here at any one time being 16,800 odd. How few boys have this imprest upon them. How few are told the real facts of any of our wars. How few understand the ghastly and hideous losses of the Civil War, due to lack of proper leadership, etc. Of course, that was a war where the nation was divided against itself and cannot be taken as a criterion, but any fixt, well-ordered military policy, which would have resulted in the maintenance of a reasonable regular force, would possibly have averted the war and certainly greatly reduced its period.

Our preparedness must be based first upon a moral organization of the people, an organization which will bring home to them an appreciation of the fact that with equality of opportunity goes equality of obligation, that the army of a democracy must be the people trained to arms to a reasonable extent, such as is found in Switzerland or Australia. In our case, with oversea possessions, we need a regular army adequate for the peace needs of the nation, such an army as has been recommended by the General Staff, perhaps 250,000 men, of whom 60,000 will be in the Philippines, where we have taken up and partially completed one of the most splendid pieces of international uplift work ever attempted by any people; in the Hawaiian Islands, which are the key to the Pacific, for whoever holds them will dominate the trade routes of that ocean to a very great extent (these islands are also one of the main defenses of the Pacific Coast); in Panama, where we have built one of the greatest implements of commerce, the Panama Canal, connecting the two oceans. This canal is also of the greatest military value, making our fleet available on either ocean, and it must be strongly and securely held against all comers. In Porto Rico and Alaska we also must maintain small garrisons. When the garrisons are completed, they will probably number about 60,000 men, so that the remaining force will be scattered in the coast defenses of the United States and in our various military centers, serving as a training force in time of peace, always

ready to meet a sudden emergency, to furnish an expeditionary force such as we sent to Cuba in 1898, and, more recently, to Vera Cruz. This small nucleus of highly trained troops will serve as a teacher in time of peace and as a nucleus for a less thoroly trained citizen army in time of war. We must have a first-class navy always ready and a National Guard that is national and not state, for the state system has been an absolute failure and always will be. The federal government must control the guard in time of peace, and train it and equip it in order that it may be promptly available and efficient in time of war.

This whole question of national defense comes down to a very simple problem. Have you anything worth defending—country, religion, convictions, institutions, family, anything which you think is worth risking your own life for or to die for if need be? Of course, if you have none of these things, the question of national defense or national life can be of little interest to you, but I assume that all of you have something which is worth more than life itself, certainly something which is worth risking life for.

The next question is, do you intend to attempt to defend those things which you think worth defending? Have you the means to do it? Do you realize that without training and without equipment you cannot defend with any hope of success those things which you think worth defending if attackt by a people just as brave, just as patriotic, just as intelligent as you, which, in addition, has organized its resources, and prepared its armies? An intelligent, even moderately intelligent, person cannot fail to see the hopelessness of a struggle between the unorganized and the organized nation. Today all the great nations of the world, except China and ourselves, are organized for offense or defense. It may be unfortunate, but it is true, and it is with the truth that we are concerned.

There are many things man cannot buy and one of them is time. It takes time to organize and prepare. Time will only be found in periods of peace. Modern war gives no time for preparation. Its approach is that of the avalanche and not of the glacier. God has given us eyes to see, ears to hear, and an intelligence and a memory to gather and hold something of the lessons of the past. If we fail to make use of these means of protection which have been given us and simply say because certain things are disagreeable that they are to be disregarded, if we make no adequate preparation and neglect the evidence of our senses, we can expect help neither from God nor man. The fault is our own.

The western battle line of Europe illustrates preparedness and unpreparedness. On one hand we have little Switzerland, every physically fit man trained to be a soldier if need be, and yet with almost no men living under arms; a real democracy, the army the people and the people the army, so situated, it is true, as not to require a standing army or navy, but nevertheless so thoroly prepared that she can put 230,000 men in the field in two days and follow with as many more in a week. On the other end of the

line, we have what was once a country, Belgium! Belgium, with eight million people, commercial, busy, industrious, but neglecting almost wholly national preparedness. If Belgium had adopted the Swiss system, she could have put a million men on the short line which marks her eastern frontier. Could she have done this, no one can foresee what the result would have been, but she was unprepared and was overrun.

Now let us go on with our efforts to amplify the application of arbitration, and to establish a stable condition of world's peace, but do not let us forget the lessons of all times, and fail to take those precautions, to make that preparation which the history of all people teaches us to be necessary for preservation. We must remember all of us that this training is not a training for war alone; it really is a training for life, a training for citizenship in time of peace. It results in an all-round better citizen, because of the habits of regularity, promptness, and thoroughness which are acquired from the training. The youth learns to respect the constituted authorities, the rights of others, the law, and the flag of his country, and to think in terms of the nation rather than in terms of the individual. Its result will be to nationalize our people, to bring them together to an extent to which they have never been brought together before. For the everyday business and professional struggle, the training will be most helpful, because of the better physique, because of the discipline and self-control which will come from the training. It will result in greatly increased individual and national efficiency. It will make for national solidarity, and will be the strongest possible insurance against war. If war is first upon us, it will tend to make it short, and to reduce the loss of life and treasure to a minimum.

We cannot, unfortunately, depend upon righteousness and an upright national life for protection. The best men who have ever lived have suffered martyrdom; blameless people have been ruthlessly swept aside. All this is unfortunate, but it is nevertheless true. We must organize the strength of right against the forces of wrong. We must remember that a strong man, armed, can be both righteous and self-restrained; that to have power does not necessarily mean to abuse it. We must remember, also, that it is the strong, well-prepared nation which, in the last analysis, decides whether resort is to be had to arbitration or to war. We must remember, finally, that it is better to be prepared for war and not have it, than to have war and not be prepared for it.

CHINESE EDUCATION

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Within the limited time at my disposal, it is evidently impracticable for me to cover many phases of the subject assigned to me. I shall, therefore, content myself with touching only upon some of the most salient features of Chinese education, both as it was and as it is.

Historically, Chinese education is distinguished by its early birth. A well-known American author once stated that "before Abraham left Ur of the Chaldees in the West of Asia, an emperor of China had established a system of education." It appears from the scholarly researches of M. Biot, as well as from the records of Chinese history, that as early as the twenty-fourth century, B.C., China already possessed a national system of education. In the *Book of Rites*, known in Chinese as *Li Chi*, edited by Confucius himself, it was recorded that in ancient times "each family had a school-room, each township a high school, and each county a college, while the Emperor was the patron of letters and music." In the Chow Dynasty, 1122-249 B.C., education in China was so well developed that it was considered by some as the Periclean Age in Chinese history. The education of the day produced such notables as Confucius and Mencius, and a host of lesser lights, and they in turn modified and carried Chinese education to a greater degree of perfection. The program of studies at that time consisted of the so-called "Six Liberal Arts," to wit: (1) the five ceremonies; (2) the six kinds of music; (3) the five kinds of archery; (4) the five kinds of chariot-driving; (5) the six kinds of writing; and (6) the nine kinds of mathematics. Here we find moral, intellectual, and esthetic elements mingled with a considerable amount of military and physical training, giving evidence of a manifest endeavor to secure a harmonious and symmetrical development of body and mind.

The next important development in the Chinese educational history was in the Tang Dynasty when the famous "competitive examination system" was introduced by the Emperor Tai Tsung in the year 631 A.D. Government officials were hence to be recruited from examination halls, and literary degrees were to be conferred upon successful candidates as marks of honor and distinction. This was a turning-point in China's educational development. From that time on, the tendency of governmental policy was toward encouraging education instead of directly building it up.

With the fall of the Tang Dynasty, events went from bad to worse, until the whole country was overrun by the Monguls in the thirteenth century. Under this alien dynasty, education suffered from neglect, as the Monguls not only had nothing to offer in its place, but were not even able to preserve and keep up what they had found. The Ming emperors, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, made an earnest effort to build up a comprehensive system of education comprising various grades of literary, medical, legal, and astrological colleges, until the middle of the seventeenth century when another alien dynasty seized the dragon throne. During the entire Manchu régime, except the last few years of it, education was almost entirely left to the people. The only stimulus given to education was the system of civil service examinations which served as the stepping-stone to honor and distinction.

Having thus briefly traced the historical development of old Chinese education, let us now examine its merits and defects. By way of criticism, it may be said that old Chinese education, from the present-day point of view, was one-sided, limited in scope, and destructive to individual initiative. The ideal of the harmonious development of body and mind was in practice not adhered to; the training of the intellect was emphasized to the neglect of the body. Even in the matter of intellectual training, the development was hampered by two things. In the first place, the curriculum consisted of loading the student's memory with classics, history, philosophy, and a little mathematics, to the exclusion of the more practical and more useful scientific subjects. In the second place, the aim in the study of classics was not so much to derive inspiration from the noble thoughts and sentiments of the ancient sages, as to apply the principles of conduct recorded therein, regardless of changed times and condition. In short, the object of Confucian education was merely to secure the peace and prosperity of the state thru the rigorous training of each individual according to the old pattern.

The old principle of education, while adequate when China was in a state of isolation, was found to be insufficient to cope with the new situation arising from her intercourse with foreign nations. From experience, China has realized the necessity of introducing modern education. Chang Chih-Tung, the famous viceroy of the late Ching Dynasty, in his famous monograph, *China's Only Hope*, sounded the trumpet call for everybody to rally around the standard of modern education. His recommendations were ultimately adopted by the government. The ministry of education was soon established, and a system of education was promulgated, which was comprised of an imperial university in Peking, with various grades of professional and technical schools, normal schools, high schools, and elementary schools in the provinces. Students were sent abroad by hundreds to study and master the wonderful arts of the West. To solve partially the difficult problem of securing enough funds to carry out the new educational program, temples were converted into schoolhouses, and the revenue from landed properties of the monasteries was appropriated to pay the expenses of public education. The movement met with popular favor, as indicated by the interest which the people took at the very outset in establishing schools and colleges of the modern type.

The revolution of 1911 temporarily set back the educational movement. Many schools were closed; some of them were turned into soldiers' barracks. A number of students enlisted in the "Peoples Army" to fight for the cause of liberty, while some girl students went to the front as Red Cross nurses.

During the period of reorganization immediately after the revolution, the general financial stringency of the country caused by the disturbance of business conditions and the heavy drain upon the national treasury to pay off the disbanded troops, left very little money for educational pur-

poses. This state of affairs was unfortunate, but it was part of the price which China had to pay for her liberty and freedom from alien domination. The effect of this drawback is not yet all over, and so the progress of education has not been as rapid as we have wisht. But the government is doing its utmost and will continue to do its utmost for the cause of education.

With the establishment of the republican form of government, a distinct change has taken place in the educational policy of the country. It was formerly criticized that the government paid too much attention to higher education and too little to primary education. Realizing the force of this criticism and prompted by a desire to have an intelligent public as well as capable leaders, the government is now giving primary education its due consideration. As a temporary expedient to meet the need of money for primary schools, it is pursuing a policy of retrenchment with regard to institutions for technical and higher learning by reducing their number, in order that the money thus saved can be used to better advantage by establishing more primary schools for young boys and girls, and more normal schools for the training of teachers.

But nothing is more worthy of note than the change in the aims of education. In the last years of the Manchu régime, the aims of primary education were to inculcate in the students the ideas of loyalty to the emperor and honor for Confucius. In short, the whole idea of education was to produce peaceful, obedient, and law-abiding subjects. Not much attention was paid to the development of the individual as such, since for centuries education was conceived more as an instrument of government than as the means for personal culture. Under the changed conditions of the Republic, the relationship between the individual and the state has changed so materially that a corresponding change in the aim of education has naturally come about. Loyalty to the head of state, in the sense of the word "loyalty" as formerly understood, is now both unnecessary and incompatible with the ideal of democracy, and hence has to be abandoned as a primary aim of education. Another significant fact as showing the new spirit of education was the abandonment of the worship of Confucius in public schools. This measure was adopted by the ministry of education at the recommendation of the First Central Educational Conference, which voted for its discontinuance after a very heated debate. Education in China now aims at cultivating the morality, intelligence, and physical strength of the people, the harmonious development of man's threefold nature. The new principles of education are embodied in a recent presidential mandate, stating:

The ancient fundamental principles will be retained, and upon them will be built a new system into which the results of modern scientific research will be introduced. In order to make our people a race of great virtue, wisdom, and courage, we will build their character on a basis of loyalty, filial piety, unselfish devotion, and uprightness, and then teach them modern arts and sciences. A martial spirit should be cultivated in them in

order to prepare them for military service; and emphasis must also be laid to make them all practical men and discourage degenerate frivolity. Their honesty should be kindled and they are to be taught to exalt patriotism before every other virtue. The discipline of the school shall be as strict as that which a general exercises in commanding his troops, but the relation between the master and pupil shall be as cordial as that between a father and a son.

Thus the idea of education now is to make every citizen self-reliant and practical as well as law-abiding and progressive, thereby trying to solve thru education the all-important economic problem of China, as well as the pressing political problem.

While emphasizing personal efficiency and individual development, there is also, on the other hand, a very distinct tendency in modern Chinese education to promote national consolidation and unity by welding the people of all parts of the country into a homogeneous whole. The means employed for the attainment of this end are many, such as the standardization of textbooks to be used thruout the country; the adoption of a national anthem; the teaching of the common dialect, mandarin; the cultivation of respect for the flag and the observance of the national Independence Day.

It is evident that the problem of Chinese education is great and that its difficulties are many. The movement is still in its experimental stages, changing its course as necessity and wisdom dictate. But what changes have already taken place seem, in the main, to have been all for the better, and Chinese education is now probably on the right path to the goal which it aims to reach.

No doubt in prosecuting this onward journey China will encounter many more obstacles in her way, but I feel confident that no obstacles, however great, can discourage her from pressing forward this movement. The government and people of China realize that education is the only safe and permanent foundation to build their country upon, and therefore their determination in this regard is firm and unshakable. To make the task as easy as possible, they are eagerly trying to learn the lessons which the experience of other nations has taught, as well as those which their own experience teaches. And they know that for this purpose there is no better country than the United States, where public and higher education has been brought to a remarkable degree of efficiency. Living under the same form of government as the American people, many of the ideals which the Chinese now cherish are the same as those cherished here. Conditions in the two countries being similar in many respects, they consider your experience all the more valuable to them, and, sensible of your profound friendship and sympathetic interest in the welfare of China, they look to you for moral support in their educational reforms. It is only uttering a platitude to say that in education lies the ultimate, complete success of the Chinese Republic; but there is a pregnant truth in the statement that the success of the Chinese Republic will at once mean a new and important victory for the cause of democracy, so nobly conceived and tenderly cherished here, and will add a

fresh, significant tie to the bonds of mutual friendship which now unite China and the United States, the two greatest republics of the world.

SOME INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

WILLIAM G. McADOO, SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY, WASHINGTON, D.C.

It gives me peculiar pleasure to accept the invitation with which you have so generously honored me, because it offers me the opportunity of bringing to your attention some important questions relating to public education, which have been forcibly impressed upon me as a result of my recent visit to South America.

At the great international conference recently held in Buenos Aires, in which all the republics of the Western Hemisphere, except Mexico, were represented, there was a common impulse to realize the inspiring ideal of that beneficent Pan-Americanism which for almost a century has been the dream of the foremost statesmen of the American continents. Men of intellectual force and commanding character exchanged ideas and discuss the means of achieving the great purpose in view. It was recognized that public education directed along right lines would be a potential influence in creating that better understanding thru which "Americans of both continents may be drawn together in bonds of honorable partnership and mutual advantage," and realize the more securely and effectively those common ideals of individual liberty, national independence, and self-government which are the most vital features of our Western civilization.

What is Pan-Americanism?

President Wilson, in his message to Congress, December, 1915, admirably defined it when he said:

The states of America are not hostile rivals but cooperating friends, and their growing sense of community of interest, alike in matters political and in matters economic, is likely to give them a new significance as factors in international affairs and in the political history of the world. It presents them as in a very deep and true sense a unit in world affairs, spiritual partners, standing together because thinking together, quick with common sympathies and common ideals. Separated, they are subject to all the cross currents of the confused politics of a world of hostile rivalries; united in spirit and purpose they cannot be disappointed of their peaceful destiny. This is Pan-Americanism. It has none of the spirit of empire in it. It is the embodiment, the effectual embodiment, of the spirit of law, and independence, and liberty, and mutual service.

What may be called the spiritual ideal of Pan-Americanism has been very highly developed and in a large measure actually realized during the past two years, particularly since the European war has forced upon the peoples of the three Americas a larger contact with each other thru the circumstances of political and economic necessity. This larger intercourse is a most happy augury for the future, because it means that the spiritual ideal of Pan-Americanism will be fortified immeasurably by the ties of

mutual interest and reciprocally beneficial trade relations which, as all history has shown, are the surest guarantees of enduring friendship between nations. But we cannot realize these great things unless we understand each other and unless we trust each other.

There is no doubt that until quite recently Latin America has been suspicious of the United States. Our power has been feared and our purposes have been distrusted. Rivals of the United States for Latin-American trade have skilfully fed this suspicion, which was greatly augmented by the unfortunate incident with Colombia growing out of the Panama-Canal affair. That produced a very unhappy impression and has been very prejudicial to our standing in Latin America. It would in fact be extremely hurtful if it were not for the belief now generally entertained in South and Central America that the pending treaty between the United States and Colombia will be ratified ultimately and that Colombia will be justly compensated for the injury she has sustained. For my part, I earnestly hope for this result. This great nation must always be the exemplar and champion of justice and fair dealing. We must be scrupulously fair, even to the extent of generosity, in our relations with weaker nations. We must accord them in fullest measure what we would unhesitatingly exact of any power for ourselves.

The policies of the President during the last two years as outlined in his public speeches and his messages to Congress have largely counteracted these unfortunate influences and have produced a profound and favorable impression in South and Central America. Our acceptance of the tender of friendly offices by some of the South American states in delicate matters of diplomacy establish a new precedent and showed our appreciation of their friendship and of their importance in the family of nations. But the thing which has done most to destroy suspicion and to create confidence was the President's recent suggestion to all the governments of Central and South America of the willingness of the United States to enter into treaties with them for mutual guarantees of territorial integrity and political independence. This is in effect an enlargement of the Monroe Doctrine because it offers to our southern neighbors assurances against aggression on the part of the United States in addition to the protection they already have under the Monroe Doctrine against the extension of European systems of government to any part of the American continent. It is a noble expression of the unselfish purpose of the United States to maintain the principles of true democracy thruout the Western Hemisphere. With the territorial integrity and political independence of every American state secured against European interference, against aggression by the United States, and against aggression as between themselves, a glorious opportunity will be presented for the development of their resources and the growth of their civilization under the fructifying influences of establish peace and friendship.

After these really splendid achievements, what else remains to be done? The promotion of a better understanding between the peoples themselves of the several American states is the next great step. Transportation, communication, and trade relations are invaluable and indispensable agencies, but education is a paramount factor. The Treasury Department, with its varied and important activities, is in itself a kind of university extension system, and, as Secretary of the Treasury I am obliged to be something of a schoolmaster myself. So I have a sympathetic comprehension of the problems with which you have to deal, and of the profound importance of the work you are doing in shaping and training the material on which the usefulness and permanency of democratic institutions must rest, not only in the United States but thruout the Americas. The public-school system is the very foundation of an intelligent and enlightened democracy.

There is probably no school system in the world which is subjected to such constant and searching analysis and criticism as that of the United States. This is due not so much to the defects of the system as to the fact that under our plan of school administration it is the public opinion of the community which finally determines the organization, the purposes, and the trend of the educational system. While this has been the source of some weakness, it has had the great advantage of keeping the standards of public instruction in relatively close touch with national needs. In order that our educational system may perform its high mission, it is necessary that it should reflect every change in our national life, meeting every new need as soon as it arises.

We are at the present moment going thru one of those evolutionary changes which fundamentally affect our international relations and involve a heavy obligation on the common-school system of our country.

What I learned in South America impress me deeply with the grave disadvantages accruing to our national life and to our international relations because of our widespread ignorance not only of the history but of the significance of the profound changes that have been taking place in the countries of South and Central America during the last fifty years, and of the importance of the civilization that is developing in that section of the American continent. I do not mean to criticize, but simply to record a fact, when I say that the public schools of the United States have not contributed their full share toward inculcating in the youth of the country a proper understanding of the political, economic, and social development of our sister republics. It is this lack of understanding that has prevented the growth of a sufficiently enlightened public opinion in the United States with reference to Latin-American affairs. It is this absence of sympathetic comprehension that makes it so easy to mislead public opinion in the United States, and so often to cause unwitting injury to our Latin-American relations.

American history is taught as if it begins and ends with the history of the United States; American geography is interpreted as if it were the geography of the United States. In the study of commerce and industry, the provincial view is too frequently taken that Latin America is merely a source of supply of raw material for the United States. It is no wonder that the average boy and girl are inclined to look upon the vast territories to the south of us as a wilderness, the seat of a backward civilization, and peopled by a backward race.

I am sure that it is not necessary for me to burden you with arguments emphasizing the desirability of acquainting the youth of the country with the economic, political, and social conditions of the continent on which they live; but I do wish to point out the great national service that can be performed in making our young men and women better acquainted with the history, the literature, and the important cultural elements that enter into the great civilization that is developing in Latin America. Our present lack of understanding is a source of national weakness because it is a real obstacle to the development of that spirit of international cooperation without which we cannot hope to develop that genuine Pan-Americanism for which we are all laboring and toward which we are making real progress.

The history of the Spanish-American struggle for independence is a most inspiring record. The obstacles that the North-American colonies had to overcome were not so formidable as those which confronted the revolted Spanish colonies. The decades immediately succeeding the first movement for independence present, in the face of almost overwhelming discouragements, a record of devotion, self-sacrifice, and unswerving faith in the ultimate triumph of free institutions which compel the deepest respect and admiration. The story of this struggle, if properly presented and interpreted, would mean much to the youth of our country. It would make them appreciate the similarity of ideals which dominated the founders of the political system of the United States and the leaders of Latin-American independence, and would serve to develop a sympathetic understanding of the political life and institutions of these countries. We are apt to think of Central and South America as a whole, without any appreciation of the fact that each country has past thru a different process, and that the history of the nineteenth century is a history of adaptation of political institutions to the economic, racial, and social environment peculiar to each, resulting in great diversity in form of government and in diversity no less striking in the operation of political institutions.

During the last century the American continent has been the great laboratory of political evolution, furnishing a body of material to the teacher of history and civics which we have hardly begun to utilize.

The development of that true spirit of continental solidarity with the peoples of Central and South America for which we are striving would be set forward immeasurably if we should give more attention to their language

and literature. The teaching of Spanish should be made compulsory in our public schools—in fact a resolution was unanimously adopted by the International High Commission at Buenos Aires recommending to each government that in all schools supported by public funds or aided in any way by public funds, the study of English, Spanish, and Portuguese should be obligatory. It is astonishing that so few people in our country, relatively speaking, understand that in the most populous republic in South America—Brazil—the language is Portuguese and not Spanish. We do not pay enough attention to the study of Spanish in our schools, while, on the other hand, English is taught to a very large extent in the schools of South America.

At the present time we rarely think of citing Latin-American publicists and scientists. Practically no reference is ever made to Latin-American literature. We pay little attention to the currents of thought of Central or South America, unmindful of the fact that important contributions have been made and are constantly being made by these countries in every department of literary and scientific effort. I would not for a moment disparage the study of French or German, nor belittle the treasures which a knowledge of these languages unfolds, but I do wish to submit to you the desirability of acquainting our youth with the intellectual effort and the intellectual achievement of the American continent.

I also wish to make a plea for closer cooperation between the republics of the American continent in matters affecting the ordinary transactions of daily life. From a great number of possible contributions to this end, the question of uniformity in standards of weights and measures is of the utmost importance. I doubt whether any one of us fully appreciates the extent to which diversity of standards, as in other matters, represents a barrier to closer international cooperation. The metric system has been universally accepted thruout Latin America. Acceptance of this system in the United States, if it ever comes, will depend in large measure on the growth of a body of opinion favorable to the system developpt in the public schools of the country. But whether we adopt it or not, we should study it more effectively in our public schools, because our relations with Latin America will constantly increase, and we must equip our youths to meet their responsibilities in these new fields with credit to themselves and honor to their country.

I have welcomed the opportunity to lay these matters before you because their importance was constantly impress upon me in connection with the work of the International High Commission. That great body was created by the twenty-one American republics for the express purpose of removing the obstacles to closer financial and commercial cooperation and larger intercourse between the republics of America. Every thoughtful person must recognize the fact that the public schools can contribute effectively toward the accomplishment of this desirable end. It is largely a matter of education.

Upon you, men and women of the National Education Association, rests the ultimate responsibility of making effective the policy of Pan-Americanism formulated by our President in a series of addresses which have resounded thruout the entire Western Hemisphere; upon you rests the task of developing in the youth of the country a broader understanding of the forces that have shaped American history, a keener appreciation of the significance of the development of free institutions on the American continent, and a deeper sympathy with the aspirations of sister nations who, like ourselves, are endeavoring to translate into realities the ideals of American democracy.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AND THE WORKING MAN

SAMUEL GOMPERS, PRESIDENT, AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR,
WASHINGTON, D.C.

In coming before this great assembly of teachers from all over the United States, I do so in part as the representative of the masses of the people—the representative of those who by their physical labor put the natural resources of the country into a shape that will make them serviceable to all; who gather together the materials and build our homes, our factories, our stores, and our public buildings; of those who operate our railroads, our telegraphs, our telephones, our steamboats and vessels; of those who work in the factories, in the stores and shops; of those who make and operate our marvelous intricate machinery—in short, of those who do the actual work that makes our present civilization possible. These are the people who know the meaning of labor; who accomplish concrete results; whose problems grow out of the urgency of physical necessity; who live in a world of facts, and whose environment is the smoke and grime and whirl of industry and commerce. They are first by necessity to maintain a practical attitude toward life, and their philosophy is genuine and simple.

The toilers are people who are vitally concerned in the nation's public schools, of which in every true sense you are a constituent part. Public schools and the working people cannot be separated. In fact, without the working people public schools would not exist. It follows then that the needs and the ideals of the working people should have determining force in directing educational policies.

Probably very few of you here realize that to the organized labor movement is due the inauguration of the public-school system in this country. In the early days what schools there were were private pay-schools. The children of many poor people were denied all opportunities for education because of their poverty. The unfairness of this inequality appealed to the citizens of the country when they had sufficiently controlled the natural

forces of this new country to give thought to other things. Then arrangements were made whereby the tuition of the poorer children was paid, but this arrangement carried with it the humiliation that is always associated with charity. It was not in keeping with the spirit of true Americanism that children, in no way responsible, should be denied life-opportunities because of their parents' poverty. The injustice was felt most keenly by those upon whom it was inflicted. The workers never shift their problems upon others, they try to find a way to bring about justice. Whatever justice and betterment the workers have secured has been thru their associated effort exprest in the labor movement.

In order to secure for their children free education, parents had to avow their inability to pay tuition and thus place upon themselves and children the stigma of pauperism. It was Massachusetts that first remedied this injustice. At the instance of the early organized labor movement, demands were made for the legal enactment necessary for the removal of that stigma, and then was born to the world the first free public-school system.

It was in Massachusetts, the state which has been so intimately associated with many efforts for liberty, that the labor movement first made its demands that the state should maintain schools, open without charge to the children of all those who lived within its domain. Thus in a real way the children of that state were assured equal opportunities regardless of station in life.

What was accomplisht in Massachusetts was extended to the other states; but the agency that called attention to the need and the way of solving the problem was the organized labor movement. It is the same agency that is now calling attention to defects in present-day educational methods and institutions and is doing so much to show how those problems can be solved.

The purposes of the labor movement are very closely akin to the purposes for which educational institutions have been establisht. It is true that some have lookt upon the labor movement as an instrumentality concerned only with strikes, industrial disturbances, and those things which interrupt the normal course of the machinery of common life; and which therefore cause inconveniences. It is a great pleasure, therefore, to have this opportunity of meeting face to face so many of the teachers of this country and to tell to you something of the real nature of the labor movement.

The labor movement was born out of suffering and injustice. It is a great hope and a yearning for more complete life, for opportunities to realize ideals, and the means to take advantage of those opportunities. The labor movement deals with the raw stuff of human life. It has no power except the power of human character, determination, and purpose. In other words, it is a great human living force that is part of the lives and hopes of men, that has practical value and function in the affairs of every-

day life and work, and is an instrumentality operating in and thru human beings, helping them to lift themselves up to a larger and a better life, and revealing new possibilities and new purposes.

This interpretation of the labor movement reveals how it is related in nature to the schools of our country. The undeveloped children of our nation are the material with which our schools deal. If the school succeeds in its work, the teachers direct and assist in the unfolding of the mental, physical, and spiritual powers of the children intrusted to their care. Their whole work is to enable the children to find themselves, to discover their abilities and to develop and use them, to understand the world in which they live, to know the people among whom they live, to use the opportunities and the forces in their environment for the common good, to be prepared to appreciate the meaning of life and work, and to live a life in which the doing of all duties and the performance of all work shall be with understanding, inspiration, and purpose.

The school is concerned with early life and development. If it succeeds, it lays a foundation for the labor movement which is the most potential force operating in the lives of men and women for justice, common uplift, and betterment. The labor movement, therefore, has an immediate interest in the ideals, methods, and results of our nation's schools. We welcome all movements for closer relations between the teachers and the labor movement. We are fully appreciative of the power intrusted to teachers. To you has been intrusted the opportunity to shape and mold the minds, the ideals, the characters of the future citizens of our country. It is a responsibility that must appeal to the best and noblest in your nature and call forth the highest effort.

The labor movement is a practical movement. From its ideals it gets the inspiration and the vigor necessary to deal with the problems of human need and human justice that develop in the daily tasks of those who for wages do the world's work. The labor movement knows that ideals alone are powerless—ideals must be made real practical forces. The workers must understand their problems, call things by their right names, protect themselves against that deterrent which is the most insidious of all self-deception.

You need not be told that society is divided into two groups, unequal in numbers. One group, thru adventitious power gained in some manner, exercises power of control over the lives of those in the other group. The degree and extent of this domination depend upon the intelligent resistance and insistence of the other group and their ability to marshal and direct their own inherent personal power. The strategic power exercised by the more numerous group is unequal to that of the dominant group; but their personal power to produce is of vastly more importance fundamentally and potentially, and may be so utilized as to become, in fact, greater than the power of those who exploit.

The problem of the labor movement is to protect those who work against those who desire to exploit, and to give them constantly better opportunities for life and work. This discloses how vital is the interest of the labor movement in the maintenance of public educational institutions and in securing in these institutions training and education of a nature that will develop in boys and girls those qualities that make for energy, initiative, and intelligent independence, coupled with economic interdependence and solidarity.

As indicated in the beginning, the labor movement was instrumental in establishing free public schools. The wage-earners are more vitally interested in securing the right kind of instruction in public schools than any other group of citizens. The public schools are the only educational institutions available for their children and for them.

It is not necessary to tell this audience that the old ideals and methods of education have been proved inadequate; the old academic education for mind-culture alone was founded upon false principles; that education failed because it did not avail itself of methods and means to cultivate the senses and the muscles of the individual. The individual consists not only of psychic activity, but there must be coordination of both the physical and the mental. All information is built up from impressions brought into the mind by way of the senses. An education, therefore, that deals entirely with abstract materials fails to appeal to the whole individual and fails to take advantage of all agencies for education. Mere abstract information and cultural learning do not always constitute practical preparation for the problems of life and work.

The majority of the children of our nation go immediately from the public schools into the factories, and the shops, and the mines; into the industrial and transportation agencies of our country. Under the old educational methods which made no effort to correlate theory with practical problems, the boys and girls went from school totally unprepared to deal with those things which were of immediate necessity to them. Their first problem was to obtain an opportunity that would secure them the where-with-all to buy food, clothing, and pay for shelter. No protecting father nor benevolent institution stood between them and the grim necessities of the life-struggle. The school that failed to prepare them for what awaited them in life was guilty of a crime against humanity.

You know what the organized labor movement has done in this country to inject real-life problems among the problems that must be solved by the public schools. You know what the movement has done to call attention to the necessity for industrial education and vocational training. You know how the organized labor movement has stood like adamant against all efforts to pervert industrial education and vocational training along lines and tendencies that would make education of this nature only another opportunity to exploit the workers.

The labor movement has insistently and persistently demanded that education shall mean opportunity for freedom, opportunity for larger and better lives for all. Opportunity for freedom and opportunity for larger and better lives can only result when man has control over his environment, when he has control over his own personal faculties and his power to produce, and is able to use and adjust these to the best advantage.

In order to be consistent with democratic ideals, public schools must meet the needs of all. They must fit not only for the administrative, directive positions in life and for the professions, but they also must meet the needs of those who by their creative labor powers and the coordination of their minds and muscles give existence to the ideals and purposes that are in the minds of those who control industry and commerce.

Industrial education and vocational training promote utilitarian purposes, making possible industrial and commercial developments; they give inspiration and make possible intelligent cooperation among all of those who are associated in the practical work of production. But this is not enough to bring betterment into the lives of all citizens. It is necessary that those who contribute to the progress of industry and commerce should share in the improvements they create. No amount of education in itself will automatically bring this to pass. Here again the organized labor movement carries to greater perfection and toward wider ideals the work begun in the schools, that is, to make the common life of the people wider and deeper and quickened by idealism.

The wage-earners first of all know that the value of their life-work must be recognized by establishing a normal workday and by the payment of just wages. This ideal can be approacht or realized only thru organized economic power. Because wage-earners with unblinded, unafraid eyes have faced problems as they really are and have found a practical solution for these problems, they have afforded better protection and better opportunities for many wage-earners than are enjoyed by some of the so-called professions, which have refused to face their real difficulties, to call things by their right names, and to attack their problems in a spirit of sincerity and enlightened determination.

The organized labor movement realizes that education is not an arbitrary thing that automatically ends with a certain year of life, but that it must continue thruout life if the individual is really to live and make progress. An appreciation of this fact has resulted in the demand on the part of organized labor for wider use of the schools in order that fuller and better opportunities for learning, culture, and sociability may be brought into the common life. They realize that education is an attitude toward life—an ability to see and understand problems and to utilize information and forces for the best solution of those problems. New information and wider knowledge make possible the maintenance of this attitude as long as life shall last.

It is not necessary to go into the other side of this demand for the wider use of the schools, but only to indicate that it has a business side also. The schools represent a public investment. It is common sense and national economy to secure the greatest amount of service from school buildings. Those whose money goes into a building have a right to determine the use that is to be made of it. The building does not belong to any board of directors or school system. The people reserve the right to exercise the prerogative of ownership.

A man's or a woman's desires are not necessarily limited by his or her vocation in life. Those who work for wages have all of the aspirations and all of the desires and all of the needs that anyone has who has inherited millions or has secured a position of domination in the financial world. Among those in the labor movement, those who work for wages, are some of the rarest characters that can be found in any place in the world, men to whom the word "humanity" has a genuine meaning and who have respect for the value and sacredness of human life. These great, grand souls realize that there is no greater crime against humanity and against conscience than exploitation of human lives or human labor power. The labor movement is that agency by which they realize their ideals and the vision that they see of human possibilities. The organized labor movement has come into the lives of the burden-bearers, the despairing, and the oppressed. It has brought them hope and has been the means of lifting them up to better things, making it possible for them to realize their greater selves. The labor movement is a constructive force; it never aims at the destruction or lowering of present conditions or ideals. It is not a selfish agency existing for a few, but it is a flexible, adjustable movement that is as wide and as broad as human need wherever that may be found.

Some among you teachers have turned to the labor movement for help and protection in your work as teachers. There are some who would make you think that, by casting your lot with the labor movement and solving your economic problems thru economic agencies, you are losing dignity and that you will lose your standing as a profession. Quite the opposite is true. By recognizing that you have economic problems and by trying to secure remuneration that is in keeping with the character and importance of the work that you perform, you will be placing yourselves in a position whereby you can maintain your dignity, for it is idle to deny that means, wages, salaries, enable the individual to secure independence and opportunities for freedom. Higher salaries will enable you to secure untold opportunities. The organized labor movement does not seek to make any profession less exalted than its character justifies, but it endeavors to lift every vocation into the spirit, the purpose, and the understanding of a true profession. It seeks to make plain that anyone who performs a necessary service to humanity is entitled to respect and consideration and adequate reward.

The noblest mission of the schools is to teach the worth of a man or a woman, to teach the value of the individual and his life. This teaching must be supplemented with practical knowledge that enables each to realize his fullest possibilities. Education must be founded upon truths that break down insidious and unjustified distinctions between the kinds of work by which individuals express themselves.

The labor power of wage-earners expressed in their work is applied mentality, applied personality. The labor of a human being cannot be a commodity or an article of commerce; it cannot be the property of anyone. It is inseparable from the mind and the body of the human being. An education that glorifies the creative ability of the individual—his labor—is injecting a revolutionary idea into all our philosophy of life. Such a plan of education will bring into the spirit of our nation a force that will make for larger freedom, for greater progress and effectiveness. It will be in direct opposition to that education which promotes docility, submissiveness, conformity. It will give each individual the power to stamp his life-work with all of the artistic imagery of which his nature is capable.

Education must respond to the call of life. It must perform its work with the understanding necessary to progress in every relation of life, necessary to democracy and to freedom. As there is no separation between the world of thought and the world of action outside of the schools, there must be no artificial separation within the schools.

In addition to the schools being a preparation for life, they are life itself to the children who must attend them. The children must learn from the world itself their life and work. Books are an agency, helpful in the degree that they assist to attain the larger purpose. They are not the ends of education.

Because of the great power which has been intrusted to educational institutions, there are necessarily many efforts made to dominate these institutions. These efforts are subversive to the best interests of the children, of the teachers, and of all society; and are at variance with those purposes for which public schools were established.

Your organization has officially gone on record as opposed to all such efforts to dominate the public schools of this country, whether exercised by so-called philanthropic organizations, foundations, or any other agency. The organized labor movement is with you in that purpose. Our experiences with the exploiting forces in the industrial and commercial field make us keen to detect them when exercised in other relations of life. We have opposed from the beginning efforts of these "foundations" to secure legislation granting them the right to incorporate under federal laws and thus dominate our whole educational system. We have called attention to efforts of these foundations to lay corrupting hands upon the fountain heads of information, knowledge, and education. We have disclosed where they have laid violent hands upon government institutions and have

attempted to form an insidious alliance nominally with government agencies but in reality to exploit the work done.

The labor movement realizes that the workers dare not intrust to irresponsible hands, their relations of work, nor their lives. It has indicated the danger and has helped to avert conditions that could only result in the destruction of our free institutions.

The organized labor movement has this message for the teachers who are the agents by which all educational ideals must be realized:

If you wish to be free, if you wish to be independent to perform the great work intrusted to you nobly and for the best interests of the citizenship of this country, join with us for your and our common protection and betterment. The organized labor movement has nothing to offer you but opportunities for freedom. In turn, affiliation with the labor movement of this country will bring to you no burdens or responsibilities except those which you voluntarily place upon yourselves, and the responsibilities and duties that are inseparable from democracy and free service to humanity.

The organized labor movement makes this demand upon educational ideals: Give to the masses of the people, those who perform mechanical work, which of its very nature is monotonous and may become also stultifying, an imaginative understanding and such a wide comprehension of the wholeness of life that no vocation need be to them a rut. Enable each to see up and beyond with a vivifying mental grasp that shall interpret labor in values of human service, and to do the day's work with the joy of creative labor.

May I be permitted a personal reference? My school years ended at the age of ten when I became a factory boy. Never have I lost that sense of the deep injustice of society that denied me opportunities for child life and study. Whatever I have learned since has been under adverse conditions and because of my insatiable desire to know. It is my earnest desire that others may be protected against similar injustice.

Let me give you this warning: Men and women now have a better understanding of their rights. They resent denial of opportunities. They demand for those who shall later be miners, clerks, machinists, bakers, tailors, factory workers, printers, sailors, cigarmakers, builders, railroad men—those employed in all the trades—an education that shall enable them to be independent men and women, to live full, rich lives, expressing the best that is in them.

As teachers you can do much for the realization of this ideal. I urge upon you your great responsibility and ask your cooperation for the common cause of freedom, justice, and humanity.

NATIONALIZING EDUCATION

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NEW YORK, N.Y.

The words "nation" and "national" have two quite different meanings. We cannot profitably discuss the nationalizing of education unless we are clear as to the difference between the two. For one meaning indicates something desirable, something to be cultivated by education, while the other stands for something to be avoided as an evil plague. The idea which has given the movement toward nationality which has been such a feature of the last century its social vitality, is the consciousness of a community of history and purpose larger than that of the family, the parish, the sect, and the province. The upbuilding of national states has substituted a unity of feeling and aim, a freedom of intercourse, over wide areas, for earlier local isolations, suspicions, jealousies, and hatreds. It has forst men out of narrow sectionalisms into membership in a larger social unit, and created loyalty to a state which subordinates petty and selfish interests.

One cannot say this, however, without being at once reminded that nationalism has had another side. With the possible exception of our own country, the national states of the modern world have been built up thru conflict. The development of a sense of unity within a charmed area has been accompanied by dislike, by hostility, to all without. Skilful politicians and other self-seekers have always known how to play cleverly upon patriotism and upon ignorance of other peoples, to identify nationalism with latent hatred of other nations. Without exaggeration, the present world-war may be said to be the outcome of this aspect of nationalism, and to present it in its naked unloveliness.

In the past our geographical isolation has largely protected us from the harsh, selfish, and exclusive aspect of nationalism. The absence of pressure from without, the absence of active and urgent rivalry and hostility of powerful neighbors, has perhaps played a part in the failure to develop an adequate unity of sentiment and idea for the country as a whole. Individualism of a go-as-you-please type has had too full swing. We have an inherited jealousy of any strong national governing agencies, and we have been inclined to let things drift rather than to think out a central, controlling policy. But the effect of the war has been to make us aware that the days of geographical isolation are at an end, and also to make us conscious that we are lacking in an integrated social sense and policy for our country as a whole, irrespective of classes and sections.

We are now faced by the difficulty of developing the good aspect of nationalism without its evil side—of developing a nationalism which is the friend and not the foe of internationalism. Since this is a matter of ideas, of emotions, of intellectual and moral disposition and outlook, it depends

for its accomplishment upon educational agencies, not upon outward machinery. Among these educational agencies, the public school takes first rank. When sometime in the remote future the tale is summed up and the public, as distinct from the private and merely personal, achievement of the common school is recorded, the question which will have to be answered is, What has the American public school done toward subordinating a local, provincial, sectarian, and partisan spirit of mind to aims and interests which are common to all the men and women of the country—to what extent has it taught men to think and feel in ideas broad enough to be inclusive of the purposes and happiness of all sections and classes? For unless the agencies which form the mind and morals of the community can prevent the operation of those forces which are always making for a division of interests, class and sectional ideas and feelings will become dominant, and our democracy will fall to pieces.

Unfortunately at the present time one result of the excitement which the war has produced is that many influential and well-meaning persons attempt to foster the growth of an inclusive nationalism by appeal to our fears, our suspicions, our jealousies, and our latent hatreds. They would make the measure of our national preparedness our readiness to meet other nations in destructive war rather than our fitness to cooperate with them in the constructive tasks of peace. They are so disturbed by what has been revealed of internal division, of lack of complete national integration, that they have lost faith in the slow policies of education. They would kindle a sense of our dependence upon one another by making us afraid of peoples outside of our border; they would bring about unity within by laying stress upon our separateness from others. The situation makes it all the more necessary that those concerned with education should withstand popular clamor for a nationalism based upon hysterical excitedness or mechanical drill, or a combination of the two. We must ask what a real nationalism, a real Americanism, is like. For unless we know our own character and purpose, we are not likely to be intelligent in our selection of the means to further them.

I want to mention only two elements in the nationalism which our education should cultivate. The first is that the American nation is itself complex and compound. Strictly speaking, it is inter-racial and international in its make-up. It is composed of a multitude of peoples speaking different tongues, inheriting diverse traditions, cherishing varying ideals of life. This fact is basic to our nationalism as distinct from that of other peoples. Our national motto, "One from Many," cuts deep and extends far. It denotes a fact which doubtless adds to the difficulty of getting a genuine unity. But it also immensely enriches the possibilities of the result to be attained. No matter how loudly any one proclaims his Americanism, if he assumes that any one racial strain, any one component culture, no matter how early settled it was in our territory, or how effective

it has proved in its own land, is to furnish a pattern to which all other strains and cultures are to conform, he is a traitor to an American nationalism. Our unity cannot be a homogeneous thing like that of the separate states of Europe from which our population is drawn; it must be a unity created by drawing out and composing into a harmonious whole the best, the most characteristic, which each contributing race and people has to offer.

I find that many who talk the loudest about the need of a supreme and unified Americanism of spirit really mean some special code or tradition to which they happen to be attached. They have some pet tradition which they would impose upon all. In thus measuring the scope of Americanism by some single element which enters into it they are themselves false to the spirit of America. Neither Englandism nor New-Englandism, neither Puritan nor Cavalier, any more than Teuton or Slav, can do anything but furnish one note in a vast symphony.

The way to deal with hyphenism, in other words, is to welcome it, but to welcome it in the sense of extracting from each people its special good, so that it shall surrender into a common fund of wisdom and experience what it especially has to contribute. All of these surrenders and contributions taken together create the national spirit of America. The dangerous thing is for each factor to isolate itself, to try to live off its past, and then to attempt to impose itself upon other elements, or, at least, to keep itself intact and thus refuse to accept what other cultures have to offer, so as thereby to be transmuted into authentic Americanism.

In what is rightly objected to as hyphenism, the hyphen has become something which separates one people from other peoples, and thereby prevents American nationalism. Such terms as Irish-American or Hebrew-American or German-American are false terms because they seem to assume something which is already in existence called America, to which the other factor may be externally hitched on. The fact is, the genuine American, the typical American, is himself a hyphenated character. This does not mean that he is part American and that some foreign ingredient is then added. It means that, as I have said, he is international and interracial in his make-up. He is not American plus Pole or German. But the American is himself Pole-German-English-French-Spanish-Italian-Greek-Irish-Scandinavian-Bohemian-Jew- and so on. The point is to see to it that the hyphen connects instead of separates. And this means at least that our public schools shall teach each factor to respect every other, and shall take pains to enlighten all as to the great past contributions of every strain in our composite make-up. I wish our teaching of American history in the schools would take more account of the great waves of migration by which our land for over three centuries has been continuously built up, and made every pupil conscious of the rich breadth of our national make-up. When every pupil recognizes all the factors which have gone into our being,

he will continue to prize and reverence that coming from his own past, but he will think of it as honored in being simply one factor in forming a whole, nobler and finer than itself.

In short, unless our education is nationalized in a way which recognizes that the peculiarity of our nationalism is its internationalism, we shall breed enmity and division in our frantic efforts to secure unity. The teachers of the country know this fact much better than do many of its politicians. While too often politicians have been fostering a vicious hyphenatedism and sectionalism as a bid for votes, teachers have been engaged in transmuting beliefs and feelings once divided and opposed, into a new thing under the sun—a national spirit inclusive not exclusive, friendly not jealous. This they have done by the influence of personal contact, cooperative intercourse, and sharing in common tasks and hopes. The teacher who has been an active agent in furthering the common struggle of native-born, African, Jew, Italian, and perhaps a score of other peoples, to attain emancipation and enlightenment will never become a party to a conception of America as a nation which conceives of its history and its hopes as less broad than those of humanity—let politicians clamor for their own ends as they will.

The other point in the constitution of a genuine American nationalism to which I invite attention is that we have been occupied during the greater part of our history in subduing nature, not one another or other peoples. I once heard two foreign visitors coming from different countries discuss what had been imprest upon them as the chief trait of the American people. One said vigor, youthful and buoyant energy. The other said it was kindness, the disposition to live and let live, the absence of envy at the success of others. I like to think that while both of these ascribed traits have the same cause back of them, the latter statement goes deeper. Not that we have more virtue, native or acquired, than others, but that we have had more room, more opportunity. Consequently, the same conditions which have put a premium upon active and hopeful energy have permitted the kindlier instincts of man to express themselves. The spaciousness of a continent not previously monopolized by man has stimulated vigor and has also diverted activity from the struggle against fellow-man into the struggle against nature. When men make their gains by fighting in common a wilderness, they have not the motive for mutual distrust which comes when they get ahead only by fighting one another. I recently heard a story which seems to me to have something typical about it. Some manufacturers were discussing the problem of labor. They were loud in their complaints. They were bitter against the exactions of unions, and full of tales of an inefficiency which seemed to them calculated. Then one of them said: "Oh, well! Poor devils! They haven't much of a chance and have to do what they can to hold their own. If we were in their place, we should be just the same." And the others nodded assent and the

conversation lapst. I call this characteristic, for if there was not an ardent sympathy, there was at least a spirit of toleration and passive recognition.

But with respect to this point as well as with respect to our composite make-up, the situation is changing. We no longer have a large unoccupied continent. Pioneer days are past, and natural resources are possessed. There is danger that the same causes which have set the hand of man against his neighbor in other countries will have the same effect here. Instead of sharing in a common fight against nature, we are already starting to fight against one another, class against class, haves against have-nots. The change puts a definite responsibility upon the schools to sustain our true national spirit. The virtues of mutual esteem, of human forbearance, and well-wishing, which in our earlier days were the unconscious products of circumstances, must now be the conscious fruit of an education which forms the deepest springs of character.

Teachers above all others have occasion to be distressed when the earlier idealism of welcome to the oppressed is treated as a weak sentimentalism, when sympathy for the unfortunate and those who have not had a fair chance is regarded as a weak indulgence fatal to efficiency. Our traditional disposition in these respects must now become a central motive in public education, not as a matter of condescension or patronizing, but as essential to the maintenance of a truly American spirit. All this puts a responsibility upon the schools which can be met only by widening the scope of educational facilities. The schools have now to make up to the disinherited masses by conscious instruction, by the development of personal power, skill, ability, and initiative, for the loss of external opportunities consequent upon the passing of our pioneer days. Otherwise power is likely to pass more and more into the hands of the wealthy, and we shall end with this same alliance between intellectual and artistic culture and economic power due to riches, which has been the curse of every civilization in the past, and which our fathers in their democratic idealism thought this nation was to put an end to.

Since the idea of the nation is equal opportunity for all, to nationalize education means to use the schools as a means for making this idea effective. There was a time when this could be done more or less well simply by providing schoolhouses, desks, blackboards, and perhaps books. But that day has past. Opportunities can be equalized only as the schools make it their active serious business to enable all alike to become masters of their own industrial fate. That growing movement which is called industrial or vocational education now hangs in the scales. If it is so constructed in practice as to produce merely more competent hands for subordinate clerical and shop positions, if its purpose is shaped to drill boys and girls into certain forms of automatic skill which will make them useful in carrying out the plans of others, it means that, instead of nationalizing education

in the spirit of our nation, we have given up the battle, and decided to refeudalize education.

I have said nothing about the point which my title most naturally suggests—changes in administrative methods which will put the resources of the whole nation at the disposition of the more backward and less fortunate portions, meaning by resources not only money but expert advice and guidance of every sort. I have no doubt that we shall move in the future away from a merely regional control of the public schools in the direction of a more central regulation. I say nothing about this phase of the matter at this time, not only because it brings up technical questions, but because this side of the matter is but the body, the mechanism of a nationalized education. To nationalize American education is to use education to promote our national idea, which is the idea of democracy. This is the soul, the spirit, of a nationalized education, and, unless the administrative changes are executed so as to embody this soul, they will mean simply the development of red tape, a mechanical uniformity and a deadening supervision from above.

Just because the circumstances of the war have brought the idea of the nation and the national to the foreground of everyone's thoughts, the most important thing is to bear in mind that there are nations and nations, this kind of nationalism and that. Unless I am mistaken, there are some now using the cry of an American nationalism, of an intensified national patriotism, to further ideas which characterize the European nations, especially those most active in the war, but which are treasonable to the ideal of our nation. Therefore, I have taken this part of your time to remind you of the fact that our nation and democracy are equivalent terms; that our democracy means amity and good will to all humanity (including those beyond our border), and equal opportunity for all within. Since as a nation we are composed of representatives of all nations who have come here to live in peace with one another and to escape the enmities and jealousies which characterize old-world nations, to nationalize our education means to make it an instrument in the active and constant suppression of the war spirit and in the positive cultivation of sentiments of respect and friendship for all men and women, wherever they live. Since our democracy means the substitution of equal opportunity for all for the old-world ideal of unequal opportunity for different classes, and the limitation of the individual by the class to which he belongs, to nationalize our education is to make the public school an energetic and willing instrument in developing initiative, courage, power, and personal ability in each individual. If we can get our education nationalized in spirit in these directions, the nationalizing of the administrative machinery will in the end take care of itself. So I appeal to teachers in the face of every hysterical wave of emotion, and of every subtle appeal of sinister class interest, to remember that they, above all others, are the consecrated servants of the democratic ideas in

which alone this country is truly a distinctive nation—ideas of friendly and helpful intercourse between all and the equipment of every individual to serve the community by his own best powers in his own best way.

*THE POSSIBILITIES OF A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY
AT THE CAPITAL*

SIMEON D. FESS, MEMBER OF CONGRESS FROM OHIO, WASHINGTON, D.C.

I came here to discuss the national university proposition which, for the first time in the history of the country was unanimously reported from the committee, both Sixty-third and Sixty-fourth Congresses. It is now on the calendar awaiting action.

There is no country in the world with the possibilities of scholarship in the fields of research equal to ours. Washington already is a center of research workers. Each department is a laboratory for investigation. Here, with the marvelous facilities of laboratory and library equipment greater than those of all the colleges and universities in the country outside of the Capital, could be gathered the greatest group of head masters in research, with the largest collection of special students in the world. Washington must not only be made the center for the special research for American scholars, but for the scholars of other countries. The national university is designed to make available this rare equipment for the special research worker. It looks to an organization to which application can be made for such work with as little red tape as college entrance elsewhere requires. The recent passage of the bill for an archives building here in Washington to house all the valuable governmental documents should be but one item in the plan for research. No better time could be chosen for the establishment of the world's greatest university than now, when war with its disorganizing elements calls for rehabilitation thru the enlistment of the scholars of our day. The country ought to make possible the realization of this dream of General Washington and the list of public men and associations indorsing such a consummation. It is but adding the finishing touch to our magnificent educational system.

Popular education lies at the foundation of our democratic system of government. To supply it must rest largely with the states. Markt advancement has been made in this field. Illiteracy is being rapidly banisht. Vocational training is receiving attention.

Higher education is also well cared for in colleges, universities, and technical schools. Almost every state has its system of state normal schools for the training of teachers. Most of them have the state university, primarily for agricultural and mechanical training, but in later years the modern state university, answering to wider demands which does graduate work. There are nearly 500 colleges, private and denominational, within

the boundaries of the United States. Among these there are a few heavily endowed institutions which do graduate work, in addition to the regular college work.

Notwithstanding the galaxy of American higher educational institutions, its colleges, universities, and technical schools, many of which stand very high educationally, the country does not have a university in the true sense. In every institution, however good, the chief work, the mass of students, the large proportion of teaching force, the major use of laboratories etc., are devoted to undergraduate work, to college rather than university work. We have no single institution devoted to the sort and degree of work chiefly done by the Berlin University. Johns Hopkins comes the nearest to it. Such an institution as is here proposed would complete our system of education by utilizing the vast resources here in the capital for the special research of the expert investigator. The recent discoveries of Dr. Rittman in the Bureau of Mines are directly to the point. This is but a suggestion of what may be done.

The proposal here is to materialize the ambition of the founder of the nation.

Washington made a national university a specific item of recommendation at different times in his messages to Congress. He communicated his views in writing to such men as Randolph, Hamilton, and Jefferson, members of his Cabinet. He made specific recommendations to state officials of Virginia, including Governor Brooke, in 1795; he solemnly urged it in his Farewell Address in 1796, and in the same year he communicated his wish to the commissioners of the District of Columbia, even going so far as to indicate his willingness to set aside a fund for its establishment and to specify the probable site of the plant.

Before his death he had the indorsement of most public men, inside and outside of the two Houses of Congress. In 1799 his will contained a bequest of 50 shares (\$500 each) of Potomac stock for the beginning.

His scheme was most heartily indorst in official capacity by John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, J. Q. Adams, and Andrew Jackson. Jefferson, one of the country's earliest patrons of education, even went to the extent of proposing to General Washington the transplanting of a European college, faculty and all, as an early step in the enterprise.

The appearance near the forties of sectional differences and the expression of the fear of too much centralization caused the friends of the enterprise to rest. In the forties and fifties much talk and some efforts were active in building such an institution at Albany, N.Y. The Civil War further shut out interest in the Washington project.

Interest was finally revived in 1869 by John W. Hoyt, who had made a tour of careful inspection of the European institutions of higher learning. The merits of Commissioner Hoyt's efforts lie in his effective work in

creating a favorable impression among educators in the country. The results of his propaganda were notist in the interest of the National Teachers Association. It was largely thru this body, ably seconded by numerous great scholars in college and university circles, that there was won the support of such men as Senator Charles Sumner, T. O. White, J. W. Paterson, M. H. Carpenter, J. J. Ingalls, W. B. Allison, L. Q. C. Lamar, A. H. Garland, and many others. Thru the influence of these men a bill was introduced in both Houses of Congress in 1872. By this time the propaganda was winning the support of most of the college heads of the country. One very important exception was President Charles W. Eliot. In 1873 President Grant made the university proposition an item of favorable recommendation in his annual message. The National Education Association continued by resolution and addresses to keep the matter before the public. President Hayes indorst the project in 1878. L. Q. C. Lamar, Secretary of the Interior under Cleveland, called the attention of the country to the neglect in his report to the President. In 1890 the Senate created a special standing committee, to be known as the National University Committee, which is still in existence, altho quite dormant. The National Association of State University Presidents, representing all the state universities of the nation, is also another significant association backing the movement.

Looking over the activities working for this consummation, one is bewildered over the fact that in the face of it all there is nothing accomplit by the government.

Note the factors:

1. Urged by Washington.
2. Seconded by at least ten of his successors.
3. Supported by at least half a dozen justices of the Supreme Court, including chief justices Jay, Rutledge, Marshall, and Chase.
4. Formally recommended by at least twenty Cabinet ministers, among them the most brilliant lights of our nation.
5. Formal support by the heads of both army and navy.
6. Enthusiastic advocacy of the heads of at least four hundred colleges and universities.
7. Almost unanimous indorsement of both the scholars and learned associations of the country.
8. Advocacy by the leading clergymen of the country.
9. Advocacy by the public-school men and women in the country.
10. Support of various women's organizations of the land.
11. Warm support at different times of the Senate as a body.

This array of advocates would seem enough to enact any law that had an element of merit in it.

This support is based upon the following facts:

What we need in Washington is an institution not so much to multiply scholars as to develop scholarship; not to teach learners, but to produce

research workers; not so much to disseminate knowledge already known, but to cultivate the power to find what is yet unknown.

Such an institution will not interfere with nor supersede the hundreds of institutions already existing, but it will supplement them, as it will indeed depend upon them for its supply of students seeking the rank of special experts. Instead of weakening the existent university or college, it will, like the multiplied collective strand, gain its strength from a combination of all without weakening any one.

It will be in a unique sense our university and will develop the sense of pride and democratic support not now felt by any institution. It will thus be sought by our ambitious men as they pass from college or university to the more specialized field of expert investigation. Graduate, as well as professor, who may be desired for some special work now and then, will look toward it. It will thus divert the flow of American students from Berlin, Paris, Oxford, Jena, and Vienna to Washington.

There cannot be serious doubt of the effect of such a national university upon scholarship in our own country. Washington long ago had come to be one of the greatest scientific centers of the earth. Here are assembled the most remarkable collections in the way of scientific material known to the scientific world. Here the various departments of scientific investigation, headed by the world's best experts, aided by a group of trained workers, with separate laboratories and experimental facilities, run up into the hundreds. Here, also, are domiciled thirty-four associations devoted to the investigations of truth in various spheres. At least that number are incorporated by act of Congress. These make Washington attractive to the scholars of all countries. Many of the societies that are not domiciled here hold their annual meetings at the Capital.

If anyone should doubt the wisdom of the establishment of such an institution upon the ground that we do not need it, or upon the ground of expense, or of corrupt control, or upon any other ground, a complete answer is the Smithsonian Institution. This institution, established in 1846, with a \$500,000 bequest, has proved itself to be one of the most successful in the advancement of knowledge. Today it is well housed in buildings worth at least as much as the original gift, and it has accumulated collections of books and manuscripts by the simple method of government exchange, with slight cost to anyone of an amount beyond the original gift. Besides this, here under such men as Henry, Baird, Powell, Newcomb, Goode, Langley, and others, have grown up these rare agencies of advancement in useful knowledge. Here telegraphy was perfected and then turned over to the government. Research on the lines of climate, meteorology, etc., was conducted by these leaders of science and was finally allowed to grow under governmental agencies into the present Weather Bureau. Under the direction of Professor Baird, investigations of life in the sea, with special relation to fish purely in a scientific interest, grew into the Govern-

ment Fish Commission, now so important as an agency under experts attempting to supply needed food from the wastes of ocean waters. Other important governmental agencies had their beginnings here. The Congressional Library, America's greatest collection of books, housed in the world's most beautiful building, was started in the same way by the same institution.

In view of such results flowing from this single establishment, we ask, What is the possibility of a national university under a similar management with means multiplied and a field unlimited? Even today there exists in the Capital the university, only awaiting organization, housing, and research students. Probably in no one place in the world is there such a rare and numerous aggregation of material for laboratory use as in Washington. No university could gather such laboratory facilities.

The bill provides that there shall be established in the District of Columbia an institution of higher learning, to be known as the National University of the United States.

Its purpose is to promote the advancement of science, pure and applied, and of the liberal and fine arts by original investigation and research and such other means as may appear suitable. Furthermore, to train men and women for posts of responsibility in the public and private service of state and nation and especially for our diplomatic service. Also, to cooperate with the scientific departments of the federal government and with the various colleges and universities, public and private, throughout the country. This last purpose is one of the most important.

Located in the various parts of the city are museums, bureaus, observatories, exchanges, laboratories, etc., any one of which is not to be found in equal richness of material in any place in the country. The Agricultural Department alone is a good example. Here in one department of investigation are found: (a) The Weather Bureau, with almost a score of experts at work; (b) the Bureau of Animal Industry, with over a dozen experts; (c) the Bureau of Plant Industry, with nearly 40 experts; (d) the Forest Service, with about 30 experts; (e) the Bureau of Chemistry, with at least 35 experts; (f) the Bureau of Soils, with 7 experts; (g) the Bureau of Entomology, with more than a dozen experts; (h) the Bureau of Biological Survey, with a half-dozen experts; besides experts from 6 to 15 in number in charge of separate Bureaus of Accounts and Disbursements, Publications, Statistics, Library, Experiment Stations, and Public Roads. This last is the youngest of all research foundations here in the Capital which fitly represent the scientific operations of the government. There is scarcely a single field of expert investigation that is not well directed here, by the world's greatest experts, and with the highest results. The annual reports of these various bureaus that number in the hundreds would make a library. The monetary value represented will reach into the millions of dollars. To operate them requires about five millions a year. The experts employed

and those elsewhere affiliated with the work here will number into the hundreds.

The new discoveries announst from time to time are world-wide in import, and some of them revolutionize scientific knowledge. Air-navigation was solved by governmental investigation. The Panama Canal was made possible by governmental engineering skill. Yellow fever was annihilated by a government expert. Probably more useful applications of scientific knowledge have been perfected in Washington than in any other place in the world.

The easy possibility of utilizing these unequaled resources for stimulating wide-awake students is the chief and immediate ground for the proposed institution.

It is to be a graduate institution.

The ultimate authority in the government of the institution is vested in a board of trustess appointed by the president of the United States; but this board must consult and consider the counsel and advice of a national advisory council, consisting of one representative from each state in the Union, this representative to be the president of the state university in those states in which there is a state university, and in those states where no such institution exists a person to be appointed by the governor of the state. This form of organization secures several great advantages. It secures the efficiency, economy, promptness, and vigor of administration characteristic of a small board vested with full authority to act. It also makes it distinctively national in its purpose and scope.

The institution is authorized to accept gifts and donations of money or property from any private citizen or public body, provided these gifts be presented with no conditions attacht, for the general purposes of the university. This university will have an organic affiliation with educational institutions of other countries by which we will have the exchange of professorships. It would be difficult to estimate the influence of such an institution upon a better understanding and relationship with all countries. It would be a far greater insurance against world-warfare than battleships. Now, when Europe is in the throes of war and all education is at a standstill, is the time to establish this institution.

It goes without saying that such an institution must be free from all characteristics that dominate modern college life. Modern athletics, college spirit, and the consequent police-disciplinary features, all proper in their places, will have no place here. Even degrees are not to be sought.

In this beautiful Capital of the nation, with the galaxy of great buildings, housing such treasures of art and science, with its many associations, representing great learning, the significant item of world meaning, the crown of it all is lacking—a national university.

We ask Congress to make good the gift of its first President, at compound interest, which would amount to at least \$10,000,000 today.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

DETROIT MEETING

OFFICERS

President—ROBERT J. ALEY, president, University of Maine. Orono, Me.
Vice-President—AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING, first assistant commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.
Secretary—WILLIAM B. OWEN, principal, Chicago Normal School. Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY EVENING, FEBRUARY 21, 1916

The meeting was called to order by President Aley in the ballroom of the Hotel Statler at 8:00 P.M.

The following papers were given under the general topic, "Thrift":

"Thrift—An Educational Necessity"—S. W. Straus, Chicago, Ill.

"Thrift in Its Relation to Country Life"—Robert H. Wilson, state superintendent of public instruction, Oklahoma City, Okla.

"Thrift in Relation to Industries"—Clarence H. Dempsey, superintendent of schools, Haverhill, Mass.

"Thrift in Relation to Health and Hygiene"—John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

"Thrift and Its Relation to Banking"—J. A. Bexell, dean, school of commerce, Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Ore.

"Thrift in Its Relation to Conservation"—Milo H. Stuart, principal, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

"Thrift in Relation to Men's Organizations Such as Chambers of Commerce, Boards of Trade, Labor Unions, etc."—H. R. Daniel, secretary, American Society for Thrift, Chicago, Ill.

"Thrift in Relation to the Home."—Kate Devereux Blake, principal, Public School No. 6, Manhattan, N.Y.

"General Summary"—Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary, California Council of Education, San Francisco, Cal.

"A Memorial to Zachariah Xenophon Snyder" was presented by Charles H. Keyes, president, Skidmore School of Arts, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, FEBRUARY 22, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. in the Ballroom of the Hotel Statler, President Aley in the chair.

"The Function of the Graduating School of Education" was presented by G. W. A. Luckey, dean, Graduate School of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.

Discussion followed, participated in by the following: Walter R. Siders, superintendent of schools, Pocatello, Idaho; James W. Crabtree, president, State Normal School, River Falls, Wis.; William P. Burris, dean, College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio; and J. G. Collicott, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

Reports were presented by members of the Committee on Standards and Tests of Efficiency, as follows:

"Score Card for City School Buildings"—George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"A Measuring Scale for Physical Growth and Physiological Age"—Bird T. Baldwin, head, department of psychology and education, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.

"The Application of Standard Measurements to School Administration"—Don C. Bliss, superintendent of schools, Montclair, N.J.

"Reading"—Charles H. Judd, director, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

As these papers appear in Part I of the *Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, they are not reprinted here. The *Yearbook* can be secured from Guy M. Whipple of the University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., at a cost of seventy-five cents.

THIRD SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 22, 1916

President Aley called the meeting to order at 2:00 P.M. in the Arcadia Auditorium.

A half-hour demonstration by the department of physical education, Detroit Public Schools, was given under the direction of Ethel Perrin, supervisor of physical training. The first part of the demonstration dealt with boys' standard tests of physical ability; the second part was devoted to mimetic exercises; and the third part illustrated the work of girls' advanced gymnasium classes.

"National Welfare and Rural Schools" was presented by Thomas D. Wood, M.D., professor of physical education, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.; and Wickliffe Rose, executive secretary, Southern Education Board, Washington, D.C.

Discussion: C. G. Schulz, state superintendent of education, St. Paul, Minn.; James E. Otis, vice-president, Central Trust Co., Chicago, Ill.; John W. Cook, president State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.; P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D.C.; R. W. Corwin, medical lecturer, American Medical Association, Pueblo, Colo.

"The New Ideal in Education—Better Parents of Better Children" was presented by Helen C. Putnam, M.D., Providence, R.I.

The topic was discussed by Adelaide Steele Baylor, assistant superintendent of public instruction, Indianapolis, Ind.

WILLIAM B. OWEN, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THRIFT—AN EDUCATIONAL NECESSITY

S. W. STRAUS, CHICAGO, ILL.

In appearing before this audience of men and women who are devoting their lives to the education of our children, I feel that it would be presumption on my part to attempt to give counsel on matters pertaining to the technical work of the schoolroom. My only desire, on this occasion, is to tell you how thoroly I feel the necessity that some action be taken that will lead to the teachings of thrift to our boys and girls.

A great many years ago Abraham Lincoln said: "Teach economy. That is one of the first and highest virtues; it begins with saving money." Lincoln, with his genius, lived decades ahead of his time, and, in the work we are undertaking now, we are just about catching up with the teachings expounded by this great American more than half a century ago. I want to use this quotation from Abraham Lincoln as the text of my sermon, for I think it embraces the entire philosophy of thrift: "Teach economy. That is one of the first and highest virtues; it begins with saving money."

Two years ago, I dare say, not one of us assembled here tonight had the slightest idea that the late summer of 1914 would mark the beginning of

the world's greatest war. How secure, how smug many of us fancied ourselves. How often we spoke of the horrors of war as things of the past, as relics of barbarism that civilization had outlived. It is not my desire tonight to shout calamity, but duty compels me to say that the epochal events of the last eighteen months have brought us face to face tonight with conditions that never before existed in America. I am happy to say that I do not believe we shall be drawn into the present cataclysm. I am strong in my belief that the blessings of peace and prosperity shall continue to be ours, but it would be folly for us blindly to assume that we are indefinitely to continue drifting along under such auspicious circumstances.

We hear much today of national preparedness. There is a great clamor about it. We are told that we must be prepared to defend ourselves against attack from powerful foreign adversaries. But in all this agitation regarding national preparedness, I have failed to find one single word in print, or hear one word spoken in public, concerning what, to my mind, is the most vital question in America today—individual preparedness. Not individual preparedness for war, but individual preparedness for anything that may come; individual preparedness to live useful, steadfast lives for the benefit of humanity and posterity; individual preparedness to withstand the temptations that always come with prolonged prosperity; individual preparedness to meet calamity and adversity in whatever form they may appear. It takes fortitude, stability, manliness, and courage to be a good man in the face of temptations, obstacles, and adverse surroundings. It requires just as much moral stamina to conquer the temptations of opulence as it does to combat the onslaughts of calamitous circumstances. Every man who has made a success of life is a soldier of many victories. You all know the fight you must make sometimes to be right and to do right under all circumstances—to live cleanly, honorably, above reproach. There are enemies within and without, and oftentimes the battles one fights with oneself are more bitter and more important fights than those one may wage with any external enemy. The battle, after all, is to the strong, not to the weak.

And what has all this to do with the teachings of thrift? you ask. Simply this: Thrift is the very foundation of individual efficiency, and individual efficiency is the foundation of all success. Thrift is submission to discipline, self-imposed. Thrift is denying oneself present pleasures for future gain. Thrift is the exercise of the will, the development of moral stamina, the steadfast refusal to yield to temptation.

We are a prosperous nation, but individually we are not a prosperous people. We are poor. We have grown rapidly. We have uncovered and developed vast resources. Our people have earned plentifully, but have spent lavishly. We have wasted. Our people have neglected to lay by for the rainy day. Let the wheels of industry stop turning in this nation for thirty days, and the vast majority of our citizens would be paupers. Do

you know that one person out of every ten who dies today in our large cities is buried in the Potter's Field?

Statistics show that in the United States there are only 108 who save money out of every 1,000 population. Compare this with 288 in Italy, 302 in England, 317 in Germany, 346 in France, 386 in Sweden, 397 in Belgium, and 544 in Switzerland. All these figures are for the times prior to the war, of course. Two out of every three persons who die in the United States leave no estate whatever. In view of these facts, what appalling economic conditions would ensue in America were the people of this country suddenly confronted by a condition such as exists across the sea! I tell you, my friends, we have not yet learned to differentiate between prosperity and progress. We have spent as we have earned, bountifully, and our savings have been meager. Our orators have been fond of telling us that this is the most prosperous nation in the world, but they have neglected to tell us what would happen if prosperity ceased. We have been deceiving ourselves.

There was a time when America was a thrifty nation. Those were the days of Benjamin Franklin and our Colonial forefathers. Life in this new country made thrift necessary, and it was only thru frugal habits that they were successful and laid the foundation of this great nation. But in the days that followed, easier times came. The earning power of the average man gradually increased. Slowly we got away from the rugged habits of the Puritans, and today we are recognized thruout the world as the most thriftless nation among the great powers. What we must do is to get back to the days of Benjamin Franklin. Want and waste, extravagance, debauchery, riotous living, artificial, social, and business practices must cease—in a word, the nation must be remade, not only by talking thrift, but by teaching thrift.

Looking down the long vista of years ahead of us in America, we are bound to have many prosperous periods. We are so rich, so strong, so young. We have so many advantages over the older nations. Our commercial resistance is so tremendous that periods of depression must be of comparatively short duration. But even with the prospect of a golden era of peace lying before us, with the assumption that the wheels of industry will continue to turn, that we shall be continuously blest with bountiful crops, that our population will increase, that our cities will build, and will grow even more wonderful, and the barren places be taken up for occupation—even with the assumption of all these things, are we sure tonight that our children, and our children's children will be prepared for the temptations that will come with these unfoldings of time? Weakness is begot of the pamperings of opulence. We need but to read our histories. Babylonia, Greece, and Rome fell because their people were pampered, because debauchery ran riot, and the substance was wasted! Thrift and right living were forgotten.

After the present war in Europe is over, this nation will be the subject of attack, commercially, by every country now at arms. The empires of Europe will lie bleeding in ruin. Prosperous America will be the shining target of attack. We must be prepared for this contest. It may mean a prolonged period of financial depression, or, on the other hand, we may be approaching the greatest era of prosperity America has ever known. Whether fortune has in store for us prosperity or adversity, the necessity for individual preparedness is alike necessary.

And now, what are the deductions? I think you will agree with me that, whether we have prosperity or adversity, it is necessary that we have individual preparedness, thru thrift. And what shall we do to bring about individual preparedness? How shall we make this nation thrifty? Surely not alone by preaching to those who are old, surely not alone by teaching those who are middle-aged. There is only one right way, and that is to begin at the foundation. The nation of tomorrow will be made up of the children who are in your schoolrooms today. If this nation, tomorrow, is to be thrifty, if these children are to be men and women equipt with individual preparedness, we must begin teaching them today. We must teach them in the home, we must teach them in the Sunday school, above all things else, we must teach them in the schoolroom. These children, whose faces gaze into yours from day to day, will be the blood and fiber, the bone and sinew, of the United States of America in the next decade or two, and their children will be the nation of the next era. So we can be assured that if we teach these school children the ways of thrift today, when they leave the schoolroom and start out into active life, they will be individually prepared to withstand the temptations of life thru the practices of thrift. We can be assured that they will at least not be failures. Those who are thrifty never fail entirely; they may not reach the heights, but they never will reach the depths.

When we preach thrift thru the press and thru the pulpit, we know that good is being done. When the governors of our several states issue proclamations calling upon their citizens to practice ways of thrift, we know that good is being done. And I want to say here, in passing, that those of us who are engaged in this work owe a mighty debt of gratitude to the governors of the states, to the clergy who are preaching thrift from the pulpits, and to the editors who are teaching thrift thru the columns of the press.

And while I am speaking of these things, let me give you a few more statistics so that you will have a better understanding of conditions as they really exist. New York County is the most populous county in America. The records of the surrogate's office of that county for the five years which began January 1, 1901, and ended December 31, 1905, revealed the fact that an average of 27,011 adults died each year of that period. Of these, 23,051, or 85.3 per cent, left no estate at all, 1171, or 4.3 per cent, left estates valued at \$300 to \$1000; and 1428, or 5.3 per cent, left

estates of more than \$1000 but less than \$5000. There are in the United States 1,250,000 dependent wage-earners, who have failed to save anything for their own support, now costing this country \$220,000,000 a year. There are 3,000,127 widows in America over sixty-five years of age, and over 32 per cent of them lack the necessities of life, and 90 per cent lack the comforts. What a sad commentary! This country is supporting about 1,000,000 delinquents in institutions, yet the wealth of the United States, \$150,000,000,000, is nearly double England's \$85,000,000,000, Germany's \$80,000,000,000, and three times that of France. Incredible as it may seem, in this land of such vast wealth, there are between ten and fifteen million people who are in absolute poverty.

If we do not prepare the children of today for the vicissitudes and temptations of the future, what can we expect of the nation in the years that are to come? Teaching thrift to children will, I grant, have varying results. You students of children's characters are well aware that some are by nature thrifty, others are thriftless. You have notist how one child will write over an entire sheet of paper, while another will use but half a sheet and save the unused part. You have notist how some children are wasteful of such little things as pencils, while others are careful of their little belongings. These are indices of character, as you know, but they would seem to prove a basis on which some start could be made in thrift education. But the benefits of thrift do not come so much from the mere act of saving as from the reflex action on the child's character.

In my life I have made this observation: If a man earns \$500 a year and cannot save anything, he will not be able to save when he earns \$1000, or \$5000, or \$10,000. On the other hand, if a man does save on \$500 a year, his savings will be just as great in proportion when he earns \$1000, \$5000, or \$10,000. And to my mind that is the great point in thrift. It is not entirely the amount of money that one saves, but it is the effect that the act of saving has on one's character. And what will be the aggregate moral result on the nation of the future, if each individual child in our schools be taught thrift, with the strengthening of character that will come with it?

Let us remember one thing. By education in thrift we can not only influence the nation of today, but we can revolutionize the nation of tomorrow. That is the point.

Let me say, in conclusion, that I believe it is indeed fortunate for the cause of thrift that the National Education Association has taken up this question for investigation. I believe that as a direct result of the work of this organization a great change will come to the America of the future; that in the days that are to be, we shall be a nation, not only rich in dollars, but rich in character, a nation known not for the extravagance of its people, but honored as of old because its sons and daughters are strong in character and good deeds; a nation capable of meeting any crisis that may arise,

because it is a nation made up of stalwart men and steadfast women who, like those other Americans of Colonial days, are sturdy and strong in all things. For out of that strength came the birth of the Republic whose triumphs we cherish, and whose future it is our duty to make secure, thru educational, individual preparedness.

THRIFT IN ITS RELATION TO COUNTRY LIFE

ROBERT H. WILSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
OKLAHOMA CITY, OKLA.

The subject of thrift is as old as the human race. Its influence can be traced thru the history of every nation that has occupied our globe. Literature furnishes abundant examples of forehanded characters. The Holy Bible is replete with accounts of thrift and its importance. Philosophers and statesmen of all ages have emphasized the necessity of thrift as a part of the daily practice of mankind.

Altho our national life has been enricht by the eminent Franklin, the leading apostle of thrift during the age which he adorned, until recently no concerted effort, national in its scope, has been made to promote a movement which has for its chief purpose the inculcation of those principles of industry and thrift which were advocated by our early philosopher and statesman. We are now beginning this tardy movement. A crisis in the affairs of the world has awakened us to the necessity of so arranging the courses of study offered in our public schools that the teaching of thrift may be given proper emphasis.

Rural America is vitally interested in this movement. The percentage of thriftlessness is as high in rural as in urban communities. Considerably more than 60 per cent of the population of my state is rural; therefore, education with us has to deal largely with problems of country life. For the country schools we have a course of study which is more or less congested, owing to the addition of new subjects during recent years—subjects that have not been thoroly assimilated or correlated with the other subjects known as fundamentals in the course. For rural schools working under crowded conditions with respect to subjects taught, it has not been thought best to introduce thrift as a separate subject into an already congested curriculum. To add another subject to our course of study would in itself be a violation of the principles of thrift which we are advocating. It is, therefore, our plan to correlate the teaching of thrift with instruction given in other subjects, and so to interweave and interlace its teachings with the course of study outlined for the other branches that the principles of thrift will become part of the warp and woof of the education or the life-practice of every child who comes in contact with our public schools. To work out a plan that will impress the benefits of thrift convincingly and persuasively,

in correlation with the prescribed subjects, is the task which we have set for ourselves in Oklahoma.

During the early spring of 1915, a tentative outline in thrift was arranged, and printed in our course of study. In venturing into the unexplored field opened by the introduction of this subject, it was thought best to make our plans suggestive, to feel the way, to accumulate experience, and to set other minds to work on the problem. From the collective efforts and experiences, it is hoped that there will result a fully organized and thoroly correlated course of study. The outline offered next year will be broader and more comprehensive than that offered this year, and will have the added virtue of being based upon the experiences of teachers who have devoted thought, energy, and time to the subject under varied school and community conditions. It is our purpose to organize the work in an attractive manner, so that it will appeal to the country children. We also realize the necessity of bringing the teacher, the parents, the local school officers, and others to appreciate the importance of this thrift teaching. The education of these vital factors in the campaign must be accomplished in the normal schools at the regular and summer sessions by means of bulletins, circulars, lectures, educational rallies, fairs, reading-circle courses, and so forth. We are preparing a list of books dealing on thrift to be placed in the rural-school libraries for the use of adults as well as pupils.

As before stated, the plan which we are trying out this year is only suggestive. The object of it is to drill the principles of thrift into the pupil so thoroly that he will waste no time, no by-products that may be used, and no money. We are proceeding upon the belief that there is as much mental discipline in planning and executing plans for earning money as there is in manual training, and that the reaction on character-development is of greater importance, especially where the plans for earning money and saving call for self-denial on the part of the pupils. Suggestions are given for the organization of thrift clubs. Attention is called to the fact that thrift does not consist in the hoarding of pennies, but that it consists in the proper use of money as well; that "the wasting of time is the greatest prodigality"; that "sloth makes all things difficult"; that "what maintains one vice would bring up two children"; that "the use of money is all the advantage there is in having money"; and that the practice of thrift will increase one's self-respect by leading to financial independence and by developing a strong character with wonderful powers of resistance.

Some of the correlations proposed for rural teachers are as follows: agricultural club work in which it is proposed that the farm club boy invest in an animal to feed; canning-club work; good-road-club work in which the waste due to bad roads is emphasized; poultry clubs; farm seed-testing; reading biographies of successful men and books dealing with the subject of thrift; savings accounts, together with suggestions for investments.

The country boy has many opportunities to use his time and money with profit to himself and to his community. The national government, thru its agricultural clubs, its pig clubs, and its poultry clubs, is furnishing employment for some of his spare time and energy. The thrift-club work should begin where these clubs leave off. It is our plan in Oklahoma to teach the club boy how to use the prize money he gets, and how to utilize his farm products with most profit to himself. We believe in developing the individuals who, in the aggregate, will form the country citizens of the future.

It has been our experience that communities, as well as individuals, are sometimes thriftless. Evidence of this is seen too often. When we pass thru a district in which the individuals are thriftless in the aggregate, we find that the community itself is thriftless. Not only are the homes poor and ill kept, and farms depleted and run down, but we know, without seeing, that the schoolhouse of such a district needs repairs, and that the public roads are neglected. In such districts idleness is in evidence on every hand, farms are not cultivated, farm machinery is exposed to the weather and is rusting away, the live stock is of poor quality and poorly housed, and a general appearance of dilapidation is seen on every hand. A short time ago, I was looking from a window of a railway train, and observed the cattle in a feed lot of the ranch which we were passing. These cattle were feeding from haystacks. The weather was bad. The cows were not thriving. I thought of how much better this farmer would have fared if he had only invested the value of the hay, which the cattle were trampling in the mud and wasting, in sheds for the cattle, and how much better the cattle would have fared. The next farm was provided with a dwelling for the farmer, but no barns, sheds, fences, orchards, or other improvements. His expensive farm machinery was exposed to the elements. This man was a one-crop farmer. The principles of thrift put into practice thru the agency of the public schools will ultimately do away with the one-crop farmer, will teach the proper care of stock as a money-making proposition, will lead to the conservation of farm machinery, as well as the proper use of improved time-saving and labor-saving machinery, and will guarantee prosperity and happiness to the rural population as nothing else will do.

While inculcating the principles of thrift, we hope to remove the evidence of thriftlessness. Our teachers have been requested, therefore, to organize the pupils for the purpose of studying road-building. In this study, attention is called to the loss of horse-power due to bad roads, to the loss of time due to the bad state of roads, and to the waste of human energy and nerve force caused by travelers being compelled to bump along over rough roads during a period of time twice as long as would be required to drive the same distance over good roads. Teachers are urged to have the pupils in the school build a section of good road near the school to serve as a model road in the district. A large number of such models have been built in

Oklahoma under this plan, more than forty miles in as many school districts having been built by the school children of one county alone, and the communities in which such roads have been extended have a more thrifty appearance than before.

The opportunities presented to the country boy to use money to advantage are so varied that no effort is made to encourage him to form the savings-bank habit, except as a means of employing his surplus or idle capital, or as a means of getting a start. We are encouraging the boy in the small town and in the city to raise vegetables on vacant lots, and are suggesting that commercial clubs establish canneries to take care of the surplus, and to insure these boys and girls a profit on their labor. City and country children alike are encouraged to join poultry clubs. Many premiums, consisting of pure-bred fowls, will be given by eight of our state schools to the exhibitors. By this means a better class of poultry is appearing in our state, and more revenue will be derived in future from the industry. To the city boy, who has limited opportunities of investing his savings, the use of the savings bank is recommended, or better, the building and loan associations, in cases where the child has an income sufficient to invest in such stock.

The thriftless farmer does not exercise the care in the selection of seed that he should, and, as a result, he gets a poor stand of his crops. To overcome this, we have made efforts for the last three years to have the farm seeds tested by the children in the school. In making these tests, practical problems in arithmetic have been proposed, prepared, and submitted to the children, designed to call attention to the waste resulting from the use of poor seed.

The immediate result of this correlation of the teaching of thrift with the agricultural work in rural communities will be seen, it is hoped, in the better class of live stock and the better quality of seed found on our farms. Instances of improvement made in this way are not wanting. Diversification of crops, conservation of soil wealth by proper rotation, employment of time-saving and labor-saving machinery, where such is profitable, proper care of farm machinery, crops, and animals, better homes, better schools, better roads, and a better class of citizens in better communities, is the ultimate goal of the course in thrift which we are planning for the rural schools.

By investigating the census of 1910, we find that in a number of states a majority of the farms are tilled by tenants. The fact that such a large number of farmers do not own their farms is due to many causes ranging from thriftlessness to misfortune. Ignorance is responsible for a great deal of the tenantry, ignorance of the elementary principles of agriculture, as well as ignorance of the elementary principles of thrift. It is our plan to correlate the teachings of thrift with the work in arithmetic, reading, domestic science, composition, geography, history, physiology, and agri-

culture, in order that the sons and daughters of men and women who are tenants today will get the inspiration to become home-owners, with intelligence enough so to direct their energies that they will acquire and own their homes, and with sufficient training in these principles to make of them citizens, independent and self-sustaining, public-spirited and progressive. The conditions of country life will be improved when farmers own and take pride in their homes and farms. In communities populated by home-owners, country-life conditions are not bad.

THRIFT IN RELATION TO INDUSTRIES

CLARENCE H. DEMPSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, HAVERHILL, MASS.

New England is proverbially the home of the thrifty Yankee. The wilderness and rocky soil provided stern lessons in the need of industry, careful calculation, and frugal spending. Where there is one story of misapplied or distorted thrift, there are scores of others telling of struggle thru hardship to comfort in old age, of the college education of sons and daughters thru sacrifice and economy, of practical training in sound business principles in the hard school of experience, and of sons of New England who have gone from such training to successful careers in every department of our civic, social, and industrial life. In every such story that has the ring of true worth in it, we recognize every time three indispensable elements—strength of character, industry, and thrift. It is essential, in consideration of our special subject, that we do not lose sight of the need for promoting the fundamental virtues of humanity, without which individual and national prosperity is barren, if not even calamitous.

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay;
Princes and lords may flourish, or may fade;
A breath can make them, as a breath has made;
But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

The danger which Goldsmith portrayed was experienced in full measure by France, when the wealth and luxury of the ruling class, together with the abject poverty of the common people, precipitated the French Revolution. This alarming lesson of the danger of improvident masses was taken to heart by Germany, England, and by France itself. Thrift was encouraged and fostered. Savings banks were established early in the nineteenth century, and rapidly became a strong social asset. In vivid contrast to the abject misery characterizing the Revolution was the marvelous recuperation of France in the early seventies, following the crushing blows of the German war. This time the thrift of the common people saved the nation and confounded its victorious enemies. Again Germany learned its lesson, and

for forty years has been promoting industrial thrift to a degree hitherto unknown.

Can America profit by the experiences of Europe? The truth and importance of this interrelation of social welfare and thrift are self-evident. Any casual student of American society must realize that one of our most vital problems is the actual realization of such standards and practices in our character, both as individuals and as a nation, that we shall stand, not only the test of hardship, but the severer trial of prosperity, and find our thrift an unalloyed blessing.

Just as personal virtue has its counterpart and fulfilment in national righteousness, so individual thrift is related to the well-being of society at large. The principles underlying industrial prosperity are indeed almost identical with those that apply to personal thrift, such as integrity, assured income, economical management, wise investment, etc. And this phase of our subject, thrift as related to the industries, can hardly be overemphasized.

We are sure to be engaged, after the war, in industrial warfare of the keenest kind. We must be equipt for it. In this age of the world, science and efficiency give the victory. If we would hold our own, or better still, progress in the future struggle for international trade, or even for our own home market, we must excel our competitors in the use of all knowledge that chemistry, metallurgy, physics, statistics, expert accountancy, scientific management, organized salesmanship, and every other useful study can impart. It is for the government of the nation and the states, thru research, employment of experts, and dissemination of valuable information; for the schools and colleges, thru special courses of instruction; and for individuals, thru enterprise, industry, and genius, to see to it that we are not behind any nation in preparedness, that we even increase our domestic and foreign supremacy in the industrial and commercial world.¹

Our national well-being and happiness depend not alone upon good government, excellent physical and moral standards, the dissemination of culture and comforts, but in as full a measure upon firmly established and thriving industries. Hitherto we have prospered largely on account of the immense richness of the land and the exploitation of our vast resources. So phenomenal has been our material growth that we have become "The American Danger" to Europe. But, with the rapid change from a new and undeveloped land to a highly organized industrial nation, the problems of management and thrift are becoming more and more acute. We must eliminate extravagance and waste.

American progress has been due not alone to natural wealth, but also to enterprise, audacity, push, restlessness, eagerness for novelty, inventiveness, emulation, and cupidity. In all of these we have led the world. But there are other factors contributing to the well-being of our national life which have either been developed only by individual enterprise or locally, or been ignored altogether. Such factors are well-ordered regulation of industries by legislation, guidance and care of industrial population at every step, restriction of child labor, vocational training of youth, elimination of pernicious class,

¹Adapted from the *Youth's Companion*.

pork-barrel, and other harmful legislation, conservation of resources, and the like.

M. Prager, of Munich, in a scholarly essay (1902) analyzes the threatening American danger very keenly. His summary is:

Neither the immense trade balance, nor the powerful industrial combinations [trusts], nor the increasing weight of capital of the Americans means a real danger for Germany. No land suffers, so long as it does not remain stationary nor retreat, compared with the industrial and cultural advance of another. German thrift (*Tüchtigkeit*), which the empire can thank for its present position in the world, will support it in the future.

When a thing becomes distinctly important in Germany, such as the making of beet sugar, chemistry of manufactures, development of dye stuffs, training of diplomats, or agriculture, it is "academized," so to speak, and given official standing and governmental patronage. Industry and commerce have followed science in acquiring academic rank alongside the older learned studies. In this way there has sprung up in the last forty years a kind of highly specialized school, calculated to give both theoretical and practical instruction to young men preparing for a trade or an industry such as engineering, dyeing, trade-drawing, soap-boiling, milling, building, textile work, etc. These schools and the more advanced technical institutions are highly specialized, well equipped with up-to-date machinery and devices, taught by experts, and function directly in the nation's industries.

I shall doubtless be reminded that we, too, have a long list of similar schools and courses, a fact that I shall gladly admit. But it is nevertheless true that much of our manual training is impractical, our courses often but remotely suggestive of, and rarely superior to, practical methods in actual operation, the general training not comprehensive enough, schools not evenly distributed, and not standardized, but rather the expression of individualistic conceptions. Were the United States Bureau of Education to classify our industrial and technical schools, as they rated medical colleges a few years ago, according to equipment, teaching force, laboratories, requirements, and the like, what, think you, would be their findings as to your schools and mine, your section or state and mine? We have, in truth, made but beginnings, spasmodic and experimental, a dab here and there at vocational, part-time, technical, or industrial schools, eminently worth while, yet standing out as exceptional and noteworthy achievements rather than characteristic and universal institutions.

In order to approach our problem and its solution intelligently, let us consider for a moment the factors that determine the success, growth, and permanence of any important industry. They will be most easily comprehended in tabular form.

I. DESIRABLE LOCATION AND ARRANGEMENT OF PLANT

A. Location determined by

1. Available raw material
2. Place and nature of market
3. Cheap and sufficient power

4. Supply of labor
5. Transportation and credit
6. Environment—sanitary, economic, social, and political

B. Arrangement of plant determined by nature, extent, and complexity of industry

II. IMPROVEMENT OF METHODS

1. In accounting and reckoning costs
2. In supplying and handling raw material
3. In operating
 - a) Organization and conservation of working force
 - b) Economy of time, labor, machinery, power, and material
 - c) Elimination of waste and saving of by-products
 - d) Provision for expansion
4. In improving and perfecting finished products
5. In sales and collections
 - a) Advertising
 - b) Selection and training of salesmen
 - c) Delivery of goods, promptly, economically, and in attractive condition
 - d) Collection of money
 - e) Meeting competition

III. IMPROVEMENT OF WORKER

1. As to health—air, water, food, housing, exercise, etc.
2. As to intelligence and initiative—these tend to deteriorate when laborer becomes automatic human machine in highly specialized work
3. As to morals—temperance, industry, reliability, loyalty, etc.
4. As to economic standing—personal thrift
5. By judicious labor legislation—covering hours of labor, insurance, child labor, etc.
6. By improved citizenship

IV. SERVING THE MARKET

1. The market as it is or will be
2. Cultivation and control of market—not exploitation
3. Creation of market

V. INVESTMENT OF CAPITAL AND PROFITS

1. In expansion of business
2. In upkeep and improvement
3. In insurance against loss and contingencies

VI. CIVIC AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

1. Labor and capital—interrelations
2. Improvement of social and economic environment
3. Improvement of political life

Even were time available, it would be entirely without our province to discuss all these factors, important as they are. But one fact stands out prominently, from whatever angle one approaches any industrial problem, that is, the need for trained men and skilled, efficient labor. Given these, all the rest becomes routine matter of business in the hands of experts.

Our constructive program, then, from an educational point of view, appears to be clearly marked out, if we are to secure that industrial thrift needed to insure our permanent supremacy in the markets of the world. I conceive it to be as follows:

1. *Training of a thrifty, efficient, laboring class.*—This should include an elementary-school program of general intellectual, physical, and ethical nature, together with practice and study of manual arts, social and civic duties, and habits of economy and thrift. It should also include a secondary and continuation-school program, where practical experience in special

industries is combined with investigation—theoretical, scientific, and financial. Here, too, should be furnished such academic and general training as makes potential leaders.

2. *Training of experts in technical institutes, university departments, and university extension work.*—Here should be found carefully elaborated courses dealing with various industries, with the science of management, accountancy, salesmanship, etc., with laboratory work in methods of production, testing materials, and processes involved, with statistical research, with problems of economics and sociology. Such institutions should vie with the most progressive plants in the discovery and application of the most effective devices and policies. They should contribute directly to industrial efficiency, not simply learn from it.

3. *The study, assistance, and protection of industry thru governmental bureaus, thru agents, and thru legislation.*—In the manufacture and marketing of textiles, steel and iron goods, shoes, building materials, etc., we should have benevolent governmental services corresponding to those already rendered the farmer. Legislation promoting the welfare of the working class thru regulation of labor conditions, hygienic surroundings, child labor, and the like, is far from perfect in many sections of the country. The proper control of traffic, price manipulation, and public-service corporations, as well as a scientific tariff, promotion of American shipping, business-like, instead of political, appropriations, conservation of resources—these and many other vital problems call for remedial laws that would promote industrial thrift and insure our continued world supremacy.

4. *Development within the industries themselves thru corporation schools, apprentice systems, and cooperation with public schools, universities, and governmental agencies.*—Fortunately the significant beginnings already made point out the road of progress. Our work is in reality one of expansion and extension of work already under way. The gap between the school and the job is being bridged. We are learning from the trades to modify our mediaeval system of education so as to combine practical ability with scholastic culture. The industries are recognizing that more schooling, instead of less, is the real need of laborers, in that education and training reduce misfits and incompetence, keep open the paths of advancement for everybody, and promote loyalty. We shall come to the point where the most progressive industries will maintain specialized schools as a regular department.

These, with continuation and vocational schools, as one writer puts it, will prepare us to meet the competition of countries like Sweden and Germany, where untrained labor is practically unknown. To be effective under such competition, we must get the utmost value out of the work of every person. In machinery and organization we are the peers of any people. It is in men that we have lagged behind. Wasted by-products have been recovered and made useful. Wasted human talent is the next big field of study for American men. They have recognized the opportunity, and are everywhere giving thought, not only to the deterioration of machines, but to the

deterioration of mentality, not only to the upbuilding of organizations, but to the upbuilding of the human beings that make up the organizations. The age of machinery is giving way to a new age of man.

If we can accomplish this end, it will be the golden age of America, materially and spiritually. To attain it, our program, to my mind, is: (1) the promotion of personal integrity, thrift, and well-being; (2) the development of the broad field of vocational and industrial education for the masses; (3) the extension of scientific study, research, and training; (4) the incorporation in the industries themselves, or in connection with them, of adequate special educational opportunities; and (5) the promotion of sound and beneficent legislation and governmental assistance.

THRIFT AND ITS RELATION TO BANKING

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A noted economist said recently that the three greatest economic problems are: (1) conservation of natural, physical, and mental resources; (2) free competition, or unrestricted opportunity for all who are willing and able to work; (3) the adjustment of labor and leisure to the rapid improvement in machinery and in the forces of production and distribution.

The last two are only corollaries of the first, since conservatism cannot be fully realized without free competition and a proper adjustment of labor and leisure.

It was my good fortune to hear Colonel Roosevelt's address at the great conservation congress in St. Paul a few years ago. After scoring, in his characteristic fashion, the profligate waste of our material resources and our utter disregard for the welfare of future generations, he made the statement that all material waste dwindles into insignificance compared with the waste of human energy and the general lack of thrift among the great mass of the American people.

It is astonishing that this doctrine of conservation, of saving, and of the proper use of wealth and opportunity should be discusst at this late date as something new and novel. We are so accustomed to abundance that we forget that the wealth of the individual and of the nation is the result of self-denial and prudent saving by a very small percentage of the world's population.

Perhaps this fact, that the economic progress of the world is accomplished by comparatively few, accounts for the onus that is often attacht to the words "thrift," "economy," "saving," and their synonyms. David Starr Jordan gives the correct definition of thrift in the following words: "Thrift is a determination to live with a margin for future advancement, to save a little more than one spends, or to spend a little less than one

earns, getting meanwhile the value in strength, in satisfaction, or in other worthy returns for the money one feels free to spend. The spirit of thrift is opposed to waste on the one hand, and to recklessness on the other. It does not involve stinginess, which is an abuse of thrift, nor does it require that each item of savings should be a financial investment. The money that is spent in the education of oneself or of one's family, in travel, in music, in art, or in helpfulness to others, if it brings real returns in personal development or in better understanding of the world we live in, is in accordance with the spirit of thrift."

All wealth, all economic progress, has its origin in the ability and the disposition of people to save. Ability to save depends, of course, very largely on opportunity both natural and social. No one will dispute the fact that we have large natural advantages over almost every other nation on earth. According to government statistics, the United States produces 76 per cent of all the corn grown in the world, 70 per cent of the cotton, 72 per cent of the oil, 59 per cent of the copper, 43 per cent of the pig iron, 37 per cent of the coal, and so on, showing that we produce one-third of all the surplus wealth of the world, and yet we occupy only one-seventeenth of the world's land surface. Our social advantages are equally great. Our opportunity for education is second to no other country. And yet court statistics show that only 3 men in every 100 leave property worth \$10,000; 15 leave from \$2000 to \$10,000; while 82 leave no income-producing estate. This means that the surplus wealth is accumulated by less than 18 per cent of the population. That much of this accumulation and concentration of wealth is accomplished by unfair means, everybody knows. Billions of dollars are wasted annually, owing to unwise legislation, mismanagement of public utilities, and extravagance in the public service. Other billions are simply transferred from victims' pockets without value received. But allowing for all this, the fact still remains that only a small fraction of the population adds to the world's surplus wealth. This means that the disposition to save is lacking, rather than the ability. Mr. Straus has well said that "thrift, or this disposition to save, is not a mere forst rule. It is a virtue, it is a principle. Thrift is not an affair of the pocket, but an affair of character. Thrift is not niggardliness, but wisdom. Thrift is not so much a matter of money as an attitude of mind." Bergson might have added an important chapter to his *Creative Evolution* on the "Instinct of Thrift." As the instinct of self-preservation is one of the oldest, so the instinct of economic and social betterment seems to be one of the youngest, instincts.

It is in vain, therefore, to look for permanent and general improvement of thrift in the present generation. You cannot change the spots of a leopard. The marvels of plant-improvement are accomplished by Burbank on the flower and on the young fruit, not on the full-grown plant. All missionary work consists of molding public opinion. How best permanently

to mold this greatest of all forces for social betterment, what agencies and means to employ, are the great problems pressing for solution.

Nothing could be more appropriate than for the custodians of the people's money to take the initiative in this great national thrift campaign. It has been said that money is the lifeblood of trade and industry, and that credit is the nervous system. The financial heart, as well as the nerve center, of every community is, therefore, the bank. No one knows better than the banks the influence of thrift on the community; no one is more intimately acquainted with the financial condition of each individual and of the business units of a community; no one is more intimately associated with every public improvement; no one can exercise a more powerful influence for the weal or woe of a community than the banker. But just as the heart and the nervous system are the most sensitive parts of the body, so the bank is the most sensitive part of our economic organization. It is natural that perhaps no commercial agency is subject to more suspicion than this financial institution. No one realizes this more fully than the bankers themselves. In its commendable intention fittingly to commemorate the centennial of the establishment of the first savings bank by the inauguration of a nation-wide thrift campaign, the American Bankers Association sounds the following warning:

In pushing this campaign, banks and bankers must necessarily take an attitude that will put them above suspicion of self-interest. There is danger that the very people whom it is desired to reach in this thrift campaign may get the impression that the banks favor saving on the part of the people in order to secure their deposits. Such an impression would be sufficient to kill interest in the plan.

Hence the wisdom of the bankers merely acting as powerful stimuli on such organizations as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, various church organizations, and the labor organizations. In no other way could the bankers more effectively serve the cause of thrift. But a word of warning should be added to the one already quoted. The banker is perhaps subject to greater temptations than any other class of business men. Because of his public trust, his yielding is also fraught with many serious consequences. As there is nothing more important for the preacher than to live his religion, so there is nothing more imperative, if the thrift campaign shall be successful, than for the banker and for the thrift missionary to set a worthy object-lesson. It is particularly important that every form of speculation, graft, and scheme to separate ignorant people from their money, without full and proper value, be denount and punisht, and that every form of usurious practices in interest and in service be condemned. The banker should be the first man to see the value to the farmer and laborer of a practical system of rural and industrial credit. He should cooperate toward securing the lowest possible rate of interest and the best market for securities for the improvement of land suitable for irrigation, draining, or clearing. He should realize that

there is nothing to be lost but everything to be gained in cooperation with the postal savings bank, the school bank, and every other legitimate agency intended to promote thrift and better business methods.

The improvement and standardization of business methods for the purpose of securing better markets, less expensive machinery of distribution, and a more equitable division of the fruits of labor are the most burning questions of the day. This seems to be most noticeable among the farmers; but in the great majority of attempts, cooperation among the farmers has failed. Why? Largely because they are playing a game of which they know nothing and in which their opponents have had centuries of training. Cooperation among farmers will never be successful until they have the cooperation of the bankers, who may be considered the neutrals in the war for business equity and better business methods. That the farmer is entitled to this support is evident from the growth of rural bank deposits. In a recent survey of 1728 farmers in Oregon, we found no less than 95 out of every 100 kept a bank account. One of the most effective methods of improving the business side of farming would be for the banks to require a standardized report of the financial condition of the farm as a requisite for a loan. This would lead to proper farm accounting and to a better knowledge of costs and business methods.

Unquestionably one of the most powerful agencies for the encouragement of thrift is the savings bank. Tho the institution is only a hundred years old, there are today, as reported by the comptroller of the currency, considerably over 2000 savings banks; over 11,500,000 depositors, and only a trifle less than \$5,000,000,000 in deposits. In 1850 there were only 108 savings banks, 500,000 depositors, and \$43,500,000 in deposits.

Everybody is more or less familiar with the United States postal savings system. On June 30, 1915, the post-offices held something over \$65,500,000, of which over \$60,000,000 was held by banks. This is a splendid showing for only five years of service. The simplicity of the system, its absolute safety, and its practicability should appeal to every citizen. Thrift promoters could do a splendid service by explaining the methods and benefits of this great public institution.

One of the most interesting and instructive chapters in savings-bank history is the introduction of school-savings banks into the United States. Like almost everything great and of enduring value, it made its appearance unheralded and in the humblest possible manner. It was preceded by no legislation and no public discussion. In 1885 an unassuming Frenchman, J. H. Thiry, who had learned and lived thrift in his native country, first tried the experiment in Long Island City, New York. The tiny seed grew, and the plant has become a mighty tree, spreading its branches over twenty-three different states and eighteen hundred public schools. Its fruit consists of over four million dollars of children's savings and lessons of incalculable value in the promotion of thrift and better living. As a result,

several states have past laws making thrift-study compulsory, and similar laws are pending in many states. Most large university and college centers now have branch savings banks or are regularly solicited by representatives of the local banks.

Much of the credit for promoting the school savings bank is due to Mrs. S. L. Oberholtzer, of Philadelphia, who is national superintendent of school savings banks, under the auspices of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the Young Woman's Christian Association.

After many years of successful work, she makes this summary of results:

By instructing the children in economy and encouraging them to husband wisely their small resources, we prevent them in many instances from forming useless and debilitating habits. An objection may be urged that children grow miserly. Facts disprove this. In the schools of Long Island City the children had over \$34,000 on deposit. The morning after the disastrous flood at Johnstown some of the pupils on entering their classrooms manifested a desire to contribute to help the children at Johnstown. The result was a voluntary donation of nearly \$500. This was not a miserly act.

The value of early training in business methods, a sort of by-product of the school savings bank, is often overlooked. There is an interesting account of Mr. Rockefeller's estimate of the value of an early training in account-keeping. Speaking of his early struggles and of the foundations of his success, at a social gathering of young men, Mr. Rockefeller said:

I have brought with me to show you young men a little book—a book which may interest you. It is the first ledger I kept. I was trained in business affairs, and I was taught how to keep a ledger. The practice of keeping a little personal ledger by young men just starting in business and earning money is of the greatest value. This little book shows largely what I received and what I paid out during my first years of business. I paid my own bills, and always had a little something to give away, and the happiness of saving some. It is true I could not secure the most fashionable cut of clothing. I did not make any obligations I could not meet. I lived within my means, and my advice to you young men is to do just the same. Now let me leave this little word of counsel for you. Keep a little ledger, as I did. Write down in it what you receive, and do not be ashamed to write down what you pay away. See that you pay it away in such a manner that your father or mother may look over your book and see just what you did with your money. It will help you to make money, which is a duty of everyone.

Superintendent Wilson hit the nail squarely on the head when he emphasized the word "detail" in thrift teaching; all details must be carefully and intelligently looked after. There has never been such a demand for men who can work out the details of a big proposition. I know of no subject which more effectively impresses the importance of detail on the minds of young people than the analysis of business by properly kept records and accounts. One of the instincts which comparatively few possess, which is so readily lost, and the lack of which is productive of enormous waste, is what may be regarded the conscience of accuracy: to do a thing right because it is right. No one will deny the tremendous effect that training in accurate business methods has on a business career.

But it is of equal importance in the building of character. An early training in the correct handling of money, in the methods of banking and account-keeping is the best possible foundation for a life of business rectitude.

Finally, a word regarding the work of the National Education Association Thrift Committee. As I see it, the special function of this committee is to devise methods of introducing thrift teaching into the public schools and thru other educational agencies. We must devise and furnish both the tools and the direction for their use, if the campaign shall be successful. In efficient factory-management, three things are of paramount importance: (1) specific direction, (2) specific performance, (3) reward. They are equally important in educational work. Valuable time and money may be wasted, to say nothing of great injury to the cause, by imperfect organization and inattention to detail in the work of our committee.

This is not the time for entering into the details of the work before us, but I desire to repeat three suggestions which I have already made to the individual members: (1) the promotion of an annual thrift conference under the auspices of the extension departments of the several agricultural colleges of states and territories; (2) the standardization of a simple and inexpensive system of records and administration of school savings banks in cooperation with local banks, and perhaps also a standardized system of accounts for the individual, the home, and the farm; and (3) a system of rewards by which, not only conspicuous merit, but every honest effort in thrift contests may receive proper recognition.

In closing, let me use the words of the American Bankers Bulletin in its announcement of the thrift campaign. "A crown of success awaits this nation-wide campaign of thrift education and there is no doubt that it will result in awakening the people of the United States to a new sense of their responsibility. The realization of the object of this campaign means a greater and more splendid country; industries more efficiently managed; better farming; better housekeeping; better business; better banks; better everything."

THRIFT IN ITS RELATION TO CONSERVATION

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It is a significant fact that the word "conservation" is coming to have a familiar sound to us Americans. We use it to designate two broad lines—the preservation of our natural resources, and the husbanding of the national asset of human life. There is no need of arguing in favor of either one of these lines of conservation. We all recognize the urgency of the cause. This very fact is not especially flattering to our national vanity. It shows that we are beginning to age a little. We would not be willing seriously to consider husbanding our resources if we did not catch a glimpse of their

limits. No man is ever really interested in safeguarding his health until he has felt some hint of disease or exhaustion. Of course, this ought not to be. Boys and girls with fresh and buoyant vitality ought to be intensely interested in preserving that state. But they are not. They never figure on the possibility of losing it. They use their energy with reckless extravagance. Young nations ought to be ideal, and take measures eagerly to preserve forests which appear to them boundless; to use metals with economy when mines seem inexhaustible; to preserve water supplies which are apparently limitless; to protect wild birds and animals while vast areas are overrun with them; to safeguard human life while the spirit of adventure is uppermost. But so far as we can learn, no nation ever has done these things. Our neighbors in Europe have been censuring us for wanton extravagance. They forget the days of their own youth, which are far, far behind them. Judging from the ruthlessness with which they are at present wasting human life, they have even yet not quite learned the lesson of economy in the use of the most priceless of national resources.

We may as well admit it. We have extravagantly reveled in the boundlessness of our own natural resources until the knowledge has been borne in upon us that they are not boundless. We can congratulate ourselves in finding this out while they are still magnificently extensive. We have adventured; we have been in a delirium of attacking and conquering new things, until we have found out that any undertaking, after all, is not as great as the mind which projects it, and that human life is worth more than things. At least, we shall take for granted that we have found this out. The province of this paper, then, is the discussion of some of the means by which we can make our school boys and girls actively believe in the conservation of our natural resources, and even more in the safeguarding and care of human life. In the light of what we have just been saying about the natural heedlessness of youth, the problem of instilling a careful regard for material and human resources is difficult enough.

Notice, we mean instilling a principle, a very different thing from teaching a bit of knowledge. It is no trick at all so to teach a boy that he can glibly recite the evil effects of cigarette-smoking, for instance, but so to train him that he will not smoke cigarettes is another matter. It is an easy thing to teach a whole class to say that forests ought to be preserved, and why, but to make each boy feel such a regard for a century-old tree that he will not slay it and sell its body for a tempting price is different altogether. To commend on general principles the safeguarding of human life is one thing; so to train boys and girls that they will never, when older, touch blood money is quite another. Mere knowledge will never control the vital action of any individual, young or old. I wish this could be written in italics on the heart of every teacher in America. To my mind, that would put us in a way to correct one of the grossest educational mistakes in our whole school system. We have gone knowledge-mad. We have

taken for granted that boys and girls will do the best they know. The only thing necessary is to give them knowledge. Think of making that assumption regarding a young human being! So witness the result of books, books, words, words, with little attention to feeling or conduct. We actually give a boy 100 per cent in hygiene, who can pass a perfect word-examination in the subject, even tho his teeth are decayed, his hands dirty, and his shoulders stoopt. Our national resources will never be conserved by boys and girls whose love for them is located only in their tongues.

We have approacht our subject negatively. We have tried to say just two things: that boys and girls are not naturally careful of resources, material or human, and that, on the other hand, they incline to regard their assets as boundless and use them extravagantly; secondly, that a word knowledge of the need of careful regard for these things, while easily given, is not vital enough to form the basis of action. Now to consider the positive aspects of the case. There are at least two great ways of controlling human conduct. They are both founded on the principle that habit and feeling go hand in hand always. George Eliot never put a greater truth in the mouth of one of her characters than when she made Adam Bede say: "It ain't notions as sets people to doin' things. It's feelin's."

One of these ways of controlling conduct is by arousing the feelings so strongly that they become deep and lasting, so that the boy or girl is eager consciously to start on a course of action at the very first opportunity. For instance, note the effect that seeing slaves sold on the block had on the boy Lincoln. So much the better, if opportunity for action follows fast on the heels of the desire to act. That means the beginning of a habit. Men are reformed just that way. That is real training. It is a conscious formation of habits founded on feeling. The more knowledge that backs this feeling up, the better. There's place enough for knowledge to come in to strengthen and sanction habits in the forming.

The other way of controlling conduct is first in point of time and possibly of importance. It is an unreasoning thing and therefore largely overlookt in our scheme of education. It is simply by requiring a thing to be done until a habit is formed, letting the reasoning and the feeling come later. A peculiar thing it is, that if we do a thing over and over again, it seems right to us to do it. I know of no other line in which this is more strongly exemplified than in economy or lack of it. Let a person save and save, and the habit continues after bank stock has multiplied. Hetty Green is not an anomaly. Let one spend and spend, and the same improvidence reaches to the last penny.

The real training of children, then, for conservation of our resources means the formation of habits, before they realize why, and the fostering of feelings which impel to further action now and later. Knowledge comes in to broaden and strengthen the convictions. But it cannot be said too

loudly that our education in this, as in other things, needs to change centers from the acquisition of knowledge to the formation of habits.

Now, it remains to apply these principles to the teaching of conservation, first, of human life. We want boys and girls to know that life is the most priceless of assets. We need, then, trained medical inspectors, who will do detailed, individual work, will give directions for corrective physical training, and physical examinations from time to time to see the effects of the work, and will advise for further developing exercise. Boys and girls are not going to take seriously our word advice regarding the importance of the care of the body as long as our regular examinations and careful corrective training are applied to the mind only. One city the writer happens to know has its percentage in hygiene given partly by the teacher, partly by the mother, and in each case it is based on observed habits, among them being cleanliness of teeth, cleanliness of face and hands, number of baths, care of clothing, care and ventilation of bedroom. You see the idea back of the plan. It is really making the pupil "one of the twenty to follow his own teaching." It is capable of indefinite extension. Booker T. Washington was not jesting when he placed the toothbrush at the head of the list of reformatory agents for the negro. It is not so far otherwise with whites. The habitual "feel" of a clean mouth is worth more than a library of books to overcome the cigarette habit. There is no better way to fight a habit-forming drug than with habit-forming hygiene.

Athletics and games for everybody naturally come as part of such a plan. Larger gymnasiums and a revolutionary enlargement of playgrounds would be a necessity. But the writer holds that there is no other way to make boys and girls realize that life is more important than money. Do you think we can arouse youngsters to feel that railway crossings should be guarded, no matter how much it costs; that men should be protected from machinery at any expense; that it is a crime for women to be employed in rooms without sunlight and ventilation? Do you think we can make them feel these things so long as we admit that they themselves ought to have medical tests, regular physical training, plenty of exercise out of doors, but refuse on account of the expense involved? The boys and girls of the coming generation are not so easily hoodwinked. If we say words to them about the overwhelming importance of human life, they say words back to us. If we act on every principle involved, and expect action of them, we are not disappointed, nor need we be afraid that the habits thus formed will be easily broken.

Another effective way of teaching the worth of life is by the making of useful things. This humanizes all our life. A girl who has worked and worked hard to make a garment has a sympathetic insight into the life of a garment-maker which can be gained in no other way. Let every manual art be broadened and made human by the teaching of the condition of those who follow that trade and of some economic conceptions of their problems.

This can be done rapidly by lecture and investigation, when the interest and sympathy have been quickened by wrestling with the same problems.

When it comes to teaching conservation of natural resources, let our teaching first of all be constructive. No youngster is going to grow enthusiastic about preserving anything just as it is. He wants to do something to it. I verily believe the reason little boys shoot birds is not because their wicked souls long to destroy. It's because they want to hit something that is moving, and that is far enough off to present a problem worth while. Teach these same boys to build bird boxes, take photographs of wood birds up in high trees, where it's hard climbing, have contests for luring birds into yards—all this has been found to be real fun for boys.

To give activity a patriotic turn, the history and economics courses present opportunities which the teachers are just beginning to realize. The work needs to be deepened, and made fuller of concrete problems of public responsibility in the high-school world. Also both the history and geography courses need to be more concrete and graphic in detailed descriptions of those of our resources which are imperiled. Let the same constructive principle be applied to the teaching of botany. Boys and girls who have raised a garden worth while will not wantonly destroy plants. A boy who is brimful of plans for reforestation is not going to be won over to a destruction of forests.

Even when the thing made has no connection with that which is to be cared for, the principle of training by constructive habit still holds. A boy or girl who has made anything well is thereafter more careful of everything made. Let a boy design and make a table in first-class style, and all furniture becomes to him a product of some mind and hand; all tools are things to be cared for, all stray pieces of wood present possibilities. Let the metal trades be taught in a school, and the mines of our country become worth safeguarding. Conservation becomes a living, dynamic thing with a reason for being. More than that, the teaching of manual expression of one's thought and feeling has the effect of forming the habit of doing the things we contemplate. It's worth while to put something into execution, merely to make executives of us. It is a wondrous sentence description of a useful character of old: "Dorcas was full of good works which she did." If our training comes to be fuller of activity, it will be natural to this set of boys and girls not to rail idly at those who waste our resources and waste lives, but to form and to execute remedial plans.

But even the formation of tangible habits is not the whole of the training which we need in that phase of thrift under consideration. There is an appeal to the feelings, which can and ought to be a greater, a much greater, part of our American education. We need it sadly to counterbalance that commercialism which seeks to traffic in beauty of forest and river fall, in lives of plants and animals, and even in the lives of men, women, and children. After all, no boy nor girl can rightly respect river, or mine, or

forest, man or woman, until he sees the autograph of a Divine Hand written on each. A reverent religion is the essence of all that our boys and girls need. We Americans fight shy of any hint of religion in connection with public-school teaching. But there are subjects the teaching of which occasions no question—subjects whose appeal fosters reverence and love of beauty. I refer to the fine arts of poetry, music, and art. If ever a nation needed these subjects reverently taught, we do. The final stand for conservation of birds, forests, rivers, mines, and also of human lives is always made by those who feel the lilt of bird song, who see the rivers as messengers from mountains to sea, who understand the throbbing of human hearts. There is hardly a boy or girl anywhere who cannot be reached thru one of these three channels to the soul, and, being reached there, he feels. No argument is as strong as a feeling. If a boy or girl once thrills to the grandeur of Niagara, no mere water-power inducement can prevail against that appreciation. Our public parks are secured for us by the John Muirs who have from boyhood loved the trees almost as people. We have classed the fine arts as ornamental, and we wonder why our boys and girls are not more refined. It is time that we recognize these as moral necessities, certainly as essentials to the unselfish reverence for our natural and life resources.

A nation without seers, poets, and artists, without those who hear—musicians—could not expect to have its great sources, not only of wealth, but also of beauty and music conserved. Conservation means both saving and using. It is these subjects which teach the use which cannot be money-reckoned.

So, all told, this paper is a plea for the respect for natural resources and the reverence of man, taught thru the formation of habits of self-respecting hygiene; thru humanizing life by that insight which comes of making things; thru constructive training in care of birds and plants, in the use of wood, metals, textiles, and other materials; in general, thru an habitual expression of thought in action; thru deepened historic and geographic courses; and thru a genuine emotional training in those arts which place values far above a money basis.

Beauty has use for you and me,
The dainty violet blooms within our thought
And we are better for its ministry.

THRIFT IN RELATION TO THE HOME

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Perhaps my remarks will not be altogether in line with what has been said before. You see I have had to practice thrift in the home all my life, and that is why I am not so enthusiastic over it as some of the gentlemen who

insist upon having it there. You know men have always preacht economy to women.

When we talk about thrift in the home, there comes to your mind, I think, a picture of the woman who does all her own cleaning, washing, ironing, turns last year's frock—and you know you can always tell a turned frock as far as you can see it—cuts down father's old suit to make some archaic adaptation that causes little Johnny many tears—an overworked woman in a gingham dress, that is the good old-fashioned picture of the thrifty woman. There is no doubt that that woman will have savings of a pecuniary character, but there are savings that are more valuable than those of mere money. The mother with a broad viewpoint is not obliged to do all those things and is far finer; therefore, I am asking not so much for emphasis on thrift in the home, as for emphasis on the scientific management of the home. The home will not be what it should be until there is scientific management, until, when father gets a new mowing-machine, mother will have a new washing-machine, when he gets a reaper, she will have a fireless cooker, a vacuum cleaner, all the things of scientific value that should be in the home as a matter of course. It will be money well spent, because mother prepares the rising generation for life, and when her time is conserved so that she may go intellectually hand in hand with her children and give them the viewpoint that she should be able to give, we shall have a better generation.

The woman who looks outside her home has learned that her place is in the civic community just as much as it is in the little cricle. Mothers are beginning to realize that the capitol of the state controls their power to make both ends meet in their own homes, and decides whether they shall have fresh eggs or bad ones, whether they shall have all kinds of imitations coming into their homes from the grocery store, or whether they shall have the things that they should have to nourish their children properly. We must work for the civic viewpoint in the home, because that viewpoint is the only one that is going to make the home better.

Of course, I am talking to a great extent from the standpoint of the woman of the city. I know my own city, and I know how imperative it is for the mothers of New York City to look beyond their own doorsteps and be able to have a hand in the control of what happens outside the home, because it controls in turn the home itself.

I have just returned from the Ford Peace Expedition. I know what the war is doing in Europe, and I believe that our mothers must be trained to know what is going on in the world everywhere and to have a hand in it.

In closing let me say again: We need not so much the power to save, as we need the broad viewpoint. It is not the thrift in the home, but the scientific management of the home that I want you to teach the children.

A MEMORIAL TO ZACHARIAH XENOPHON SNYDER

CHARLES H. KEYES, PRESIDENT, SKIDMORE SCHOOL OF ARTS,
SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.

At high noon on the eleventh of last November, death struck from our rolls the name of one of the most distinguished, most influential, and best-beloved of our members. At the command of our president, I submit, on behalf of the National Council of Education, the following minute of his life and work.

Zachariah Xenophon Snyder was born on a farm in Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania, on August 31, 1850. For nineteen years he lived to learn all that the farm, the country school, and a good home might teach him. He then entered Mount Pleasant Classical Institute and prepared himself for admission to Waynesburg College, from which institution he was graduated in 1876, receiving the degree of Bachelor of Science and winning the highest class honors.

He was almost immediately appointed principal of the graded schools of Wiconisco, in Dauphin County, of his native state. For six years he served this community with distinction, and at the same time pursued advanced study with such success that he was called to the chair of mathematics in his Alma Mater. Two years later he yielded to an insistent call to become superintendent of schools at Greensburg, Pa.

When three years later a call from New England took Thomas F. Balliet from the superintendency of the schools of the city of Reading, the board of education chose as his successor the gifted young man at Greensburg, who had the year before won the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Waynesburg College. It has never been an easy task to succeed Dr. Balliet; but Dr. Snyder rose to the demands of the situation with such distinction that two years later he was called to take charge of the great state normal school at Indiana, Pa. His inspiring leadership in this institution prompted the governor of Pennsylvania, within three years, to invite him to accept the office of state superintendent of schools.

But at this juncture the state of Colorado, seeking a man to develop a great state institution for the training of teachers, called Dr. Snyder to the presidency of their newly founded school at Greeley. Here the last twenty-four years of his service was rendered. Here he built up the Colorado State Teachers College, which today ranks as one of the foremost colleges of education in America. He won funds for its material development, and friends for its intellectual and spiritual ambitions. He called men and women of rare gifts and rare devotion to his faculty, and inspired them to great and continuous service. He gathered armies of aspiring young men and women to be their disciples, and inspired them all with his own high ideals of substantial scholarship and professional worth. The Colorado

State Teachers College is a great visible monument to the genius and devotion of Zachariah Xenophon Snyder.

But he has left a greater, more imperishable, and more precious legacy to the wife who for forty years was his sympathetic and inspiring helpmeet, to his children, and to his host of friends thruout the country. The certain knowledge that his transforming and inspiring service of education is undying, and that it will assert itself effectively in the lives of his disciples and their successors, must be a solace to the bereaved wife. It must be an inspiration for his children to noblest endeavor. It cannot fail to be to all of us who knew him as friend and brother a persistent call to greater effort and greater consecration.

It is now just twenty-one years since it became the blessed privilege of your memorialist to know with close intimacy our departed friend. In that time close association with him in the deliberations and the business of the National Council of Education and in the National Education Association, closer contacts with him in the work of his great institution, and delightful weeks in his charming and cultivated home disclosed to me the secret of his greatness.

A constant student of men and affairs, as well as of academic and professional problems, an independent thinker with the courage of his convictions, an aggressive administrator whom no opposition could discourage, he was blest with an unshakable faith that there is an element of worth and longing to be helpful to all right causes in every man and woman, and particularly in every teacher.

In more than twenty years of the closest friendship, involving the most intimate discussion of many movements and of more individuals, I heard the words of unqualified condemnation fall from his lips on but two occasions, and these were called forth by situations, to condone which would have been possible only in the prayer of Calvary: "Forgive them for they know not what they do." This tolerance of opposition, this sympathy for even the uncooperative and the unsympathetic, at times led him to unreasonable self-sacrifice, but never to sacrifice of his ideals. When these were threatened, the courage of the warrior for the right asserted itself, and abuse of confidence was handled without gloves, but also without malice.

Dr. Snyder was always a student with a growing philosophy of education. He never permitted even the important details of administration, however pressing and numerous, to engross him in a way that shut out the higher light and the larger outlook. He once said to me: "Determine the principle for the solution of such problems, convince your helpers of the soundness of these principles, and you may rely on their effective disposition of many of our worries."

He was a close student of the work of his contemporaries, getting from them stimulus in divergence and inspiration in support. He was a particularly close student of every important utterance of three of these men—

William Torrey Harris, Nicholas Murray Butler, and Stanley Hall. He said to me once: "It gives one power to accomplish the otherwise impossible when he finds his thought and purpose justified in the agreements of these three men; but oh, brother, how their disagreements let in the light! I often wonder for which we ought to be the more grateful."

No adequate estimate of the worth and work of a great man can be made which does not look at his deeds and accomplishments in the light of his faith and his philosophy. Zachariah Xenophon Snyder achieved great things because his was a great faith and a great philosophy. In this brief minute I can only set forth its high points, or, better still, let our brother himself declare them. At our meeting in St. Louis in 1904 he set forth his educational creed. In that address he declared his belief in the following theses:

1. The application of the doctrine of evolution is fundamental in the interpretation of an individual and in his education. All science, all art, all philosophy, all religion, is the evolution of mind and spirit. Hence all education is an application of the principle of evolution.

2. Every individual is an involution of possibilities. In him are race, national, and parental elements. The child is a concentration of the ages. The possibility to grow, to think, to feel, to purpose, to do, and to enjoy is within him.

3. The education of an individual is the evolution of the possibilities within him. Education for service is first for self, second for others, and third for God. It is devotion to vocation, to humanity, to destiny.

4. The possibilities in individuals are variable—no two being the same. This gives us our basis for individual treatment, and for the elective system that preserves the individual in the socialization of the school.

5. The biological principle that function precedes structure is equally a law of education.

6. Truly to socialize an individual is to transfigure his individual initiative into mutual aid for humanity. Education should individualize and at the same time socialize. To live in any stage of development is to share the sympathies, joys, sorrows, resistances, and labors of those with whom we live.

7. The child is born with the instinct and impulse to know, to think, and to participate with his fellows. The object of his training is individual; the aim, social; and the end, civic—not individual training that makes him selfish, but training that makes him powerful, just, and courageous; not social training that destroys the identity of the individual, but training that transfigures his ideas, sentiments, and doings into humanity; not a social training that makes the individual feel utterly dependent, but a social training that makes him feel independent in his ability and disposition to help his fellows, that leads him to seek opportunities to share benefits, whether they be physical, mental, or spiritual; not a civic training that enables him to use his state for his own personal ends, but a training that actuates him to regard the interests of the people above his own—a training that makes him battle for righteousness in public matters and for business and purity in politics.

8. The external sources of education are nature, mind, and spirit. There is a feeling in every soul that may be directed toward nature in such a way as to make him feel its beauty, its inspiration, and its uplift. Mind touches and quickens the possibilities within the forms of history and literature, the capitalized soul of the ages; history as a record of the will of humanity, and literature as an expression of the sayings, sentiments, aspirations, and inspirations of the race. These are indispensable in the expansion of a human

soul as it follows the track of civilization from the first rude beginnings to the present time.

The spirit of the Divinity as it operates in a human soul is a conception worthy of attention. In this materialistic and commercial period in which our civilization is living the utmost importance should be attached to the quickening of the spirit or the higher nature. It is not meant to decrease our interest in the industrial and scientific aspect of the people, but to feed the spirit. Religion is the life of God in the human soul. The spirit of nature, the spirit of literature, the spirit of the Bible, the spirit of God, should all touch the soul of the child. The pedagogical graces—truth, beauty, and good—should be emphasized more as fundamentals in the real life of the child and our civilization. Faith, hope, and love should be lived more, should be taught more, should receive time for their inception into the lives of the children and people. To study the Bible as mere literature is not enough. This conception would seem to degrade it to the level of all other literature. The four great world-bibles—Homer, Dante, Goethe, and Shakespeare—and the literature that has grown out of them and that clusters about them are powerful stimulants in the growth of a human being; but the Bible, which appeals to all classes, high and low, wise and ignorant, young and old, is the source of spiritual food, and should be recognized above all for aspiration, consolation, inspiration, and ideals of life. It alone portrays the lives of the prophets, martyrs, apostles, and the Christ. Teach it as life—the life of God in the human soul. Such is the creed set forth to all teachers who are leading souls toward destinies in this life and the life to come. The proper conception of the religion of the Bible among a people has been and is an index of its civilization.

Surely none but a great man could have held such a creed. Surely none but a great man could have worked it out in his own life-activities. He was ours in a peculiar way, and for that, gratitude and pride are mingled with the memory of our loss. Great thinker and teacher, great friend and coworker, hail and farewell!

THE FUNCTION OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

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In the time allotted to this address it will be possible to touch in the briefest way only a few of the essential points.

It is now less than eighty years since the first normal schools for the training of the elementary teachers were established in the United States. They gave more attention to the "what" than to the "how." It is only about thirty years since the first departments of education were established in colleges and universities. These had for their chief function the training of secondary teachers, and have likewise given more attention in their instruction to the what than to the how.

Within the past two years there have been established in the United States several strictly graduate schools of education, with the express purpose of preparing experts in all lines of teaching and school administration, a laudable, but quite ambitious, undertaking. It is the function of these graduate schools of education that we are to consider.

A study of the mind of the child reveals three important instincts fundamental to intelligence. With the beginning of speech the child makes known his inner life by a series of questions. These questions are quite uniform, whatever the race or stage of development. They are not the result of education, but are instinctive, the essence of science and philosophy. Beginning with the third year, the child starts the questioning by, "What is it"; six months later, by, "Why is it"; about the close of the fourth year, by, "How is it." These questions are not always put in this simple form, but the meaning is the same, however expressed.

The "what" shows the child's belief in the existence of facts which he is curious to know; the "why" indicates his belief in the causal relation of things, the purpose and reasonableness of life; the "how" indicates his desire to know how things are made, that he in turn may construct and describe. These spontaneous questions of the child illustrate the three most important stages of intelligence; What are the facts? Why are these facts as they are? How were they established or brought about? It is the dominant interest of science to discover the facts; of philosophy to explain and interpret them; of education (teaching) to distribute and vitalize them.

From a study of the individual, it is easy to see that teaching is one of the natural, inherent, fundamental processes of human development. The hunger and search for truth and the effort to understand and explain it are not more insistent than the desire to express and teach that truth to others. But since teaching is the final step in the process, it is the more complex and must contain all the others. Like the scientist, the teacher must know and appreciate the essential facts of life; like the philosopher, he must understand and be able to explain them; but more, he must live them and stimulate others to live them. True teaching consists in vitalizing truth and purity.

Since the desire to teach is so strong in us all, it is not surprising that many have been pushed into the field before their preparation was sufficient for the task. They are, almost without exception, hungry to learn, and desirous of rendering the best service; but their foundation is so faulty and the subject so complex, that they are scarcely ever safe from the toils of the wily demagog or commercial exploiter. Partly, no doubt, on account of its complexity and partly on account of its later development (being a social instinct), teaching has been the last of the learned professions to receive attention.

The preparation of the teacher is usually considered under two heads: the academic and the professional. The academic covers the what and the why, the professional the how. Unless the former is deep and true, the latter cannot be made successful. No one can teach what he does not know, neither can he make others see what he does not himself see. But perceiving the truth is not in itself sufficient test of ability to make others see

it. The tendency has been, and still is, to place too little stress on the how. The statement is frequently made, and doubtless believed by some: "If an individual knows a subject he can teach it." Often the teachers of the professional subjects are lacking in scholarship, scientific training, and genuine Christian character. Even with their good intention, it is but an effort of the blind to lead the blind. It is the shortsighted, self-assuming, unscientific, exploiting spirit of so many of our profest leaders that has brought disrepute to the teaching profession.

I have endeavored to call attention to the fact that teaching is instinctive, based on a real need of evolution and human intelligence. Being the last and most important step in human progress, it is only possible, in its best form, to those who thru tribulation have reacht the highest stage of human development. The teaching profession is without doubt the highest calling open to man. Its value to civilization is beyond measure. One-tenth of the money spent on battleships and war, if devoted to teaching and constructive service, would give us a new earth, if not a new heaven. The teaching profession ought to lead all others in influence and power. It should be the aspiration of every member of the profession to become a Jordan, an Eliot, or a Hall. This can never be done if we allow men in other professions to do our thinking, are satisfied with half-baked thoughts, or bloom out at the top before there is any depth of root. The teaching profession is too sacred a calling and too fraught with danger to human beings to enter upon its services lightly.

In another paper I have called attention to the essentials in the training of a teacher. Here I can mention only a few of the professional needs which it is the function of graduate schools to stimulate. First is the need of thoroness and going to the bottom of things; a clear understanding of the problem and the end in view; the best means of guiding others to higher levels with the least waste of effort and time. The teacher must be a biologist and know life; he must be a physiologist and know the way that life functions; he must be a psychologist and understand the workings of the psychic life; he must be a sociologist and have some knowledge of the group conscience and true human relations; he must be a philosopher and set up right standards of living; he must be religious and live consistent with his ideals and teaching. It may seem that I have set up a standard impossible of attainment. But such is not the case. In every individual all these qualities now exist in embryo. If they have not been developot in every individual, it is because of faulty teaching. Graduate schools of education must remedy this, at least in coming generations. How often we have wisht to live our school days over again that we might correct some of the faulty teaching. Thru smiles and flattery our teachers prevented us from seeing their ignorance until it was too late to remedy the evil wrought. With proper guides in our earlier and later development, we would today be living examples of the high ideal of

the teacher, as given above, and the difference in true happiness would be very great.

All thru our study the effort should be to come into possession of a true philosophy of life. We should study to know the child, to know it in all stages, to know it in its evolution, to know it as affected by its environment. This again is possible to those who go at it right. Since by division only the protozoa multiply, it is easy to see that the present ameba must be as old in its parts as the parent ameba of a thousand years ago. Likewise in the evolution of man there are complexes and elements born with the child of today that are as old as the race itself. These complexes and traces of experience of a former generation accumulate with the ages, are worked over and recombined with other elements, furnishing the faith, the instincts, the curiosity, the desires of the subconscious life, upon which only is it possible to build a dynamic conscious life. How shortsighted we are in our methods when we do not take into consideration the force and push of this submerged four-fifths of man in our effort to guide and shape the conscious one-fifth or less. The purpose of education should be to develop a self-sustaining, self-directing, self-sacrificing, or altruistic, individual, keenly alive to the best interest of humanity. To accomplish this ideal, the individual must be free to work out his own inner life, and must be held responsible for the results. Broadly speaking, there are two ideals of civic life, imperialism and democracy. In the former there are two classes of society, the ruling and the ruled. It is the effort of one class to impose its will and thinking on the other. In a true democracy all are equally free, and are held together by the law which they in turn have helped to construct. In education the tendency is nearly always toward imperialism. When the teacher tends to impose her will and thought on the child, she becomes, not an inspirer and guide, but a taskmaster.

The individual develops thru natural stages in which the dominant interests almost completely change. There are two important cycles in development: the first, extending from birth to twelve or fourteen, during which the individual is self-centered, and all activities have their relation in the self; the second, extending from twelve to twenty-four, during which the individual becomes altro-centered, and every experience is worked over with reference to the new viewpoint. Each of these cycles has three important levels which, if understood, can be used to great advantage in our teaching. The first, extending from birth to four or five, is a period of sense development and the functioning of early instincts, a period of gathering; the second, extending from five to seven or eight, is a period of motor development, of dramatization—acting and doing; the third, extending from seven to twelve or fourteen, is a period of intellectual development, of the associative or higher brain centers and the accessory muscles, an excellent time for necessary habituation and drill work. At first the dominant interests seem to be aroused thru dermal changes, then thru the

development of the fundamental muscles, and finally thru the development of the accessories or finer muscles.

With the growth changes that take place in adolescence, the three stages of development are again repeated in the same order. First come the changing sense-feelings and emotions due to the growth of the sex organs and related tissues, causing the restlessness, stress, and strain of the adolescent. Thru this growth, the entire leverage of the body changes and makes necessary to the youth the need of refinding himself in motor habits and muscular control. And, finally, the medullation of the tangential nerve-fibers, the growth of the highest brain centers and the accessory muscles, enable the youth to select his life's calling, to specialize, and to live the life of a man.

I have not time to enter into the discussion of ideals, but will merely mention three that have grown up in the process of education. According to the first, the purpose of education is to fashion the individual in the image of the past, usually the best past. It is the humanistic ideal, and tends to make the civilization conservative and static. According to the second, the purpose of education is to fit the individual to the conditions of the present, to the immediate needs of the social, political, and industrial life. It is known as the utilitarian or vocational ideal, and lays stress on education for citizenship. According to the third, the purpose of education is to develop a man, the best man possible under the conditions; to assist nature thru nurture; to enable the individual to find himself, and to evolve naturally and rapidly to the highest levels and even to rise above them. According to the latter conception of education, the initiative must come from within. Teaching becomes the effort to make others see and live what you see and live.

Development results from the interaction of the organism and its environment, by means of which both are modified. In this process of interaction there are four factors that should be noted: the surrounding physical environment; the surrounding social environment; the growing organism; and the self-active, organizing, directing, controlling force known as aspiration, longing, aim. Man is a great dynamo or generator of vital energy. This energy is constantly increasing thru nutrition and growth. It is the purpose of education to enable the individual to organize, control, and utilize this energy. The process brings more of happiness and real worth when it takes place under methods of construction. This accumulating energy of the growing individual must have an outlet, and will seek it in work or play, in channels of righteousness or in paths of evil. Education should teach one to make the best use of his inheritance, to overcome difficulties, to live truly, and to act nobly.

It is the function of the graduate school of education to give dignity and productive scholarship to the teaching profession; to add to the sum of human learning; to encourage scientific research in education; to create

a more intelligent and more efficient body of teachers; to direct educational investigations and school surveys, both state and national; to furnish inspiration and guidance to normal schools and undergraduate schools of education; to encourage able school men to make use of its laboratories in carrying on investigations that may be of value to the profession; to become a source of supply of the best-trained teachers; and to prove the fallacy of the thought that scientific research and productive scholarship are incompatible with the best teaching ability. These are a few of the things for which the graduate school of education should stand. But above all, these schools should create in their midst the true teaching spirit. They should stimulate men and women to become interested in research and productive activity; to discover, vitalize, and distribute truth; to live in harmony with that truth and to inspire others to do so. These schools should create for the teaching profession the confidence and scholarship that are enjoyed by the other learned professions.

DISCUSSION

W. P. BURRIS, dean, College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.—A rough analysis of the situation as we find it in this country shows that three groups or classes of institutions have developed as a result of an interest in teaching and education.

To the first group belong the teachers training schools and the normal schools. Their function is mainly to prepare for teaching positions in schools below high-school grade. Graduation from a four-years' high-school course is a condition of admission to a standard institution of this group, and the standard course leading to a teacher's diploma is two years in length. Much variation is found in the curricula offered, but we may say, in general, that the institutions in this group place more emphasis upon training, or practice teaching, than do those in the other two groups. A varying amount of academic work is found, including reviews of subjects to be taught, and there are courses in the theory of teaching and in the subjects from which this theory is derived. Psychology of one kind or another occupies a conspicuous place, with some attention to the history of education as a close second. School management and school hygiene also receive attention, but it cannot be said that there is any thoro study of education in institutions of this group. There cannot be, and it is not the intention that there should be. The concern here is teaching rather than education—ability in teaching gained thru supervised practice, with enough study in educational theory to show the difference between good and bad practice.

To the second group belong the normal colleges, schools and colleges of education, teachers colleges, and regular colleges, so far as they maintain departments or divisions of education for the training of teachers. Their function is mainly the preparation of teachers for the secondary field. In some cases provision is also made for the training of teachers of regular elementary subjects, as well as of teachers of special subjects taught in the elementary grades. Courses are also provided for administrators, supervisors, principals, normal-school instructors, and critic teachers, but the characteristic work of institutions in this group is in relation to the secondary field. Graduation from a first-grade high school is required for admission to institutions of this group, and the courses in education fall mainly in the last two years of a four-year course leading to a degree. Less emphasis is placed upon practice teaching than in institutions of the first group and

more upon subjects to be taught. More thoro courses in psychology, in history and principles of education, and in other professional subjects are offered, and a more scientific attitude toward education and teaching is maintained.

In several institutions of this group, notably those which are parts of universities having graduate schools, there is a growing tendency to make education a graduate study as well as an undergraduate study. In some instances, education as a department in the graduate school has already begun to overshadow all other departments of the graduate school in importance. This would more frequently be the case if the tendency were not held in check, and if there were more instructors capable of conducting courses in education worthy of a place in a graduate school. It need be no surprise that such is the tendency, for there can no longer be any question about education being our most important enterprise, conceived as the chief agency of our social reconstruction. Out of this tendency, wherever education as a department in a graduate school assumes great importance, the graduate school of education is coming. In a few and favorable places, it is developing out of a department of education in the graduate school, just as teachers colleges have developd out of departments of education in colleges of arts and sciences.

To the third group of institutions, then, developd out of a growing interest in teaching and education, belong the graduate school of education and departments of education in graduate schools so far as they do work of a given character. What is the unique function of this group? How different from the work of the other two groups?

In answer to these questions, I find myself, to some extent, in disagreement with Dean Luckey's paper, for the reason that certain phases of work which he emphasized in the graduate school of education more properly belong, in my judgment, to institutions in the other two groups. He dwells upon the preparation of teachers as a function of the graduate school of education—a function provided for without the necessity of a graduate school of education, so far as teachers in elementary and secondary schools are concerned. Assuredly the graduate school of education is not the place for the training of elementary teachers, and graduate courses in education in a graduate school suffice for the training of secondary teachers, where such training extends beyond the undergraduate period. On the other hand, a graduate school of education is the proper place for courses in education and teaching intended for the better preparation of those who expect to fill positions in normal schools and teachers colleges. Such a school is also needed for the better preparation of administrators, supervisors, principals, and research workers. Such a school should also provide appropriate courses in education for persons who aspire to positions in colleges of arts and sciences, or in colleges or schools of engineering, law, medicine, theology, agriculture, or commerce. How much "muddling" in the work of instruction, faculty meetings, and administration, found in colleges and universities at the present time, could be prevented if graduate schools of education were to become centers in which the efficient conduct of higher and professional education in all of its phases would be a serious concern of competent specialists in these fields! Such schools, indeed, are not only desirable, but necessary, in furnishing the very capstone of our educational pyramid, but they must be schools of a higher order than any hitherto establishd, in order to be worthy of the name of graduate school of education. As such, they must be schools of research, and their problems must be the evaluation, on higher levels, of the aims, means, and management of every phase of our educational system. In relation to the elementary and secondary phases of our education their function is not the training of teachers, but of those who are to lead them. In relation to professional and higher education only is their function analogous to that of the first group of institutions in relation to the elementary schools, and to that of the second group of institutions in relation to the secondary schools.

The graduate school of education is not merely an institution of the first group raised to the third power, nor is it an institution of the second group raised to the second power. Its function must be unique. The first and second groups of institutions, each within

its own field, are concerned with what is to be done and how it should be done. The first is properly and inevitably concerned with education and teaching chiefly as arts. The second group makes a more scientific study of the questions involved. But in the graduate school of education, for the first time, a study of the philosophy of education can profitably be undertaken. The graduate school of education, therefore, has for its unique task the preparation of leaders who know what is to be done, how it should be done, and why it is to be done. As such, it should occupy itself with the same questions—What? How? and Why?—with reference to academic, technical, and professional education, and, as a result of an experience in elementary, secondary, higher, and professional fields of education, I am convinced that this function is as necessary as the normal school in relation to the common schools. Shall the graduate school of education undertake this work, or shall it be left to bureaus of public service, municipal research bureaus, and Carnegie Foundations?

NOTICE

Papers were presented by members of the Committee on Standards and Tests of Efficiency, as indicated in the minutes. These papers appear in Part I of the *Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*.

NATIONAL WELFARE AND RURAL SCHOOLS

- I. THOMAS D. WOOD, M.D., PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION,
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Rural-school children are less healthy and are handicapped by more physical defects than children of the city schools, including all the children of the slums. This is clearly proven by statistics taken from many states and is, in general, true of all parts of the country. The general death-rate in rural New York has for five years been greater than that of New York City. Apparently within the last decade or two the health of rural America has declined below that of the cities, or perhaps it is truer to say that within this period the standards of living and health of the cities have risen above those of the rural regions.

The present inferiority of country life today, so far as human health and welfare are concerned, is apparently due, principally, to the following causes:

1. Much of the best human stock, particularly within the last half-century, has moved from the farms to the cities.
2. The science and art of human living have advanced much more rapidly in the cities than in the country. This applies to the immediate human environment in the country as well as to all habits of life affecting health. The farmhouse is, on the average, less sanitary than the city home. The rural school is relatively the least healthful type of building in the entire country. The diet of the people in the country is less hygienic, on the whole, than the food of city dwellers. In general, the standards of

human living in the cities, in relation to health, at least, are superior to those in rural America.

3. The rapidly increasing extent of absentee ownership of the farms works to the great disadvantage of the standards of human life in rural regions. Tenant farmers have relatively less intelligence and less money than the absentee owners to provide the requirements of life in the homes and in the schools.

4. The religious life and faith of the people are today weakening, or, at least, changing rapidly in the country as well as in the cities. In the rural regions, however, the idea and habit of social service are providing, much less rapidly than in the cities, a partial substitute and program for the religious life of the past. "Social responsibility is the most effective sacrament of religion."

In spite of the fact that at the present time city life is more healthful than country life, it is still true with reference to the future, as to the past, that the best of our human stock for leadership in country or city—for the nation as a whole—must come from the farms. The valuable raw material of every type (for human needs) must still come from the soil.

The improvement of human health and welfare in rural America must, then, be recognized as of peculiar importance in relation to our entire national welfare. The problem of bringing about sufficient improvement in the healthfulness of rural life to provide a worthy birthplace and nursery for the best human stock is not simply a problem of the rural school, of the farm, or of rural life in general, but it is a great, pressing problem of the nation, affecting national safety, national prosperity, and national perpetuity. It is the problem dealing with conservation of the most essential and most endangered of all our national resources. It is a problem which must enlist the services of the national and state, as well as local and volunteer, agencies. There is apparently no problem of fundamental character and national scope more vital than this, calling for solution at the present time. No factor is of greater basic significance than this with reference to promoting national preparedness either for peace or for possible war.

The most vital phase of this problem of rural health relates to the health and welfare of the children. Country children deserve as much health and happiness as city children. Country children are entitled to as careful cultivation as crops and live stock.

The rural school is the universal, the official, the strategic agency thru which these health influences may be most effectively exerted, directly and indirectly, not only for the care of the health of children, but for the improvement of rural health in general.

The Health Committee of the National Council of Education, in cooperation with the corresponding Health Committee of the American Medical Association, after careful consideration of this problem, strongly recommends the following measures for the improvement of the health

of rural-school children and for their influence in the promotion of rural health in general.

1. Health examination and supervision of all rural-school children.
2. Dental examination and dental care for the teeth of all children in the rural schools.
3. The service of the school or district nurse to provide the practical health service and follow-up work which, as has been so clearly demonstrated in our cities, can be best accomplished by the school nurse. The work of the nurse is even more vitally important in rural than in city schools.
4. Warm school lunches for all children in rural as well as in city schools. The indirect educational benefits of the school lunches upon the children and the homes are even more important than the immediate health improvement of the children themselves.
5. Correction of physical defects which are interfering with the health, the general development, and the progress of rural children. For this remedial and constructive health service, practical rural equivalents of medical clinics, dental clinics, and community health centers of the cities are urgently needed in all parts of the United States. The county unit of organization and administration for health as well as other rural interests has already proved successful, and promises the best results. Every county should have one full-time health officer, one or more school and district nurses, and one or more community health centers, to provide rational, self-supporting health and medical service for all the people.
6. Cooperation of physicians, medical organizations, health boards, and all other available organizations in the rural-health program.
7. Effective health instruction for the rural schools which shall aim decisively at the following results: establishment of health habits and inculcation of lasting ideas and standards of wise and efficient living in pupils; extension of health conduct and care to the school, to the homes, and to the entire community.
8. Better trained and better paid teachers for rural schools, who shall be adequately prepared to cope with the health problems as well as with other phases of the work of rural education.
9. Sanitary and attractive school buildings, which are essential to the health of pupils and teachers.
10. Generous provision of space and facilities for wholesome play and recreation.
11. Special classes and schools for the physically and mentally deficient, in which children may receive the care and instruction requisite for their exceptional needs.

Better health is to a striking extent a purchasable commodity and benefit. Vast sums of money are expended from public and private funds for the amelioration of human suffering and disability in the attempt to salvage the wreckage resulting from unfavorable earlier conditions which,

with foresight, and at very moderate cost, might in large measure have been prevented.

Our schools are spending millions in educating, or trying to educate, the children who are kept back by ill health, when the expenditure of thousands in a judicious health program would produce an extraordinary saving in economy and efficiency. A dollar spent in a wise, constructive effort to conserve a child's health and general welfare will be more fruitful for the child and for the general good than a thousand times that sum delayed for twenty years. The principle of thrift in education finds its first and most vital application in the conservation and improvement of the health of the children.

II. WICKLIFFE ROSE, DIRECTOR GENERAL, INTERNATIONAL HEALTH BOARD, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The most effective agency yet devised for the spread of disease or for the promotion of public health in the rural communities of this country is the rural public school, and whether its efficiency is to be made manifest in the one direction or the other depends upon the way in which the school is conducted. In the rural community, with its sparse population scattered over wide areas, the school is the one important point of contact; it is the central exchange thru which useful information, idle gossip, or communicable diseases may be transmitted with equal facility. There are about 250,000 such rural exchanges in the United States at the present time, and in these are assembled each day for five days in the week during school term some 12,000,000 rural children coming from and returning to homes in which live more than half the people of this country. The question, therefore, as to whether the rural school is operating as a help or as a hindrance to the public health is a matter of serious national concern.

Recent investigations of health conditions have been made in many thousands of rural schools in more than twenty-six states in different parts of the country, and the facts disclosed by these surveys seem to leave no room for doubt that, as at present administered, the rural school is in no small degree a menace to the physical welfare of the child which it is supposed to teach and to the health of the community which it is supposed to serve. In detail, the facts show that rural schools fail to supply proper sanitary conditions in school buildings and grounds; that they fail to make adequate provision for the discovery and cure, as far as possible, of those physical defects which impair the child's health and working efficiency and tend to retard his physical and mental development; and that they fail to make adequate provision for guarding the children and the community against the dangers of communicable disease. These general statements are borne out by an exhibit of facts:

1. To pass over such minor deficiencies as lack of washing facilities, wet playgrounds, inadequate playgrounds, or no playgrounds at all, one

survey reports that 64 per cent of the schools inspected were kept at a temperature too high for good work; that many of the children were compelled to sit too near the stoves and radiators; that in less than 3 out of every 100 schoolhouses heated by stoves had provision been made for supplying proper moisture to the air; that in 34 per cent of them no window boards or other satisfactory ventilating device had been installed; and that in 36 out of every 100 schools inspected no care was taken to flush the room periodically by opening the windows.

2. On the basis of an investigation in detail of some 600 rural schoolhouses in 18 different states, it is estimated that classrooms in rural schools receive only about half the amount of light which they should receive, and that even the light which they do receive is not properly distributed. In another study of rural schoolhouses it was found that in 3 out of every 5 of them blackboards were so placed as to produce harmful eyestrain, and that in 60 per cent of them the window shades were unsatisfactory in color and were so attached as to hinder rather than to help the proper distribution of light in the room.

3. In a study of 1400 rural schoolhouses it was found that 965, more than 56 per cent of them, had dirty, dusty floors as a chronic condition, and that by occasional sweepings, which did not clean, the dust was being distributed to the desks, window sills, and all possible ledges throughout the room. In another similar study it was found that in 81 per cent of the schools the floors were washed not more than once a month, and that in more than 56 per cent of them the floors were washed not more than once in two or three months. The use of oil to protect the children from the dangers of flying dust has not become general in rural schools. Of the 1400 schools referred to above, it was found that in 12 cases out of every 100 the children were subjected directly to the dust of sweeping. In view of the appalling tuberculosis rate and trachoma rate in rural communities in many parts of this country, these facts need no comment.

4. Under the head of water supply, these reports show that of 1258 schools examined in 18 different states, 691, or nearly two-thirds, depended on springs and wells over which they had no control; and that in one investigation the majority of all springs were found to be without protection from surface drainage or animal pollution; that in one inspection of 139 wells, 49, or 35 per cent, were found to be in danger of contamination from the school privies; that in a large proportion of cases the water supplied to the schools has never been tested as to its purity; that the tanks or buckets in use are left uncovered, are seldom or never scalded, and that in a large proportion of schools the common cup or tin dipper is the prevailing custom.

5. Under the head of sewage disposal, these reports exhibit a condition the concrete details of which are better omitted, but a condition which in the interest of common decency and public health cannot be ignored. It

is the consensus of opinion of health officials that the biggest single health problem of rural communities is the problem of soil pollution, and that complete control of this one thing would eliminate typhoid, dysentery, intestinal parasites, and other enteric infections. In the study of 1400 rural schools in 18 different states referred to above, it was found that nearly half of them had only an open pit, that 601 had no pit at all, that less than 20 had protection against flies, and only 1 in 100 had privies that were regarded as satisfactory. Eleven states, in a vigorous and systematic fight against soil pollution, made a sanitary survey of 280,685 farm homes in 752 counties. Of these, 135,831, or 48 per cent, had no privies of any kind, and at only .58 per cent of the homes were the provisions against soil contamination reported as satisfactory. The conditions found at the homes were repeated at the schools, where the dangers of the condition were multiplied by the fact that the school is the one point of contact or central exchange for the whole community.

6. The reading public is well informed as to the large percentage of physical defects which medical inspection reveals among school children. These reports of conditions among rural-school children show that of one group of children examined $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent had defective hearing; in another group 27 per cent had defective vision, 31 per cent had nasal defects, 27.7 per cent had adenoids, 30 per cent had enlarged tonsils, 47 per cent had defective teeth, and a large proportion were poorly nourished, or from some other cause exhibited lowered vitality. These conditions are not peculiar to the children in rural schools, nor are they peculiar to the children of this country, but they do show that the rural school must follow the example of the well-administered city school in providing for the detection, and as far as possible for the remedying, of those physical defects which endanger the child's general health, impair his working efficiency, and tend to retard his mental and physical growth.

7. The final count which these studies of health conditions have scored against rural schools is that they have not made adequate provision for protecting the children and the community against communicable diseases. This count has been sustained with sufficient emphasis by the exhibit of unsanitary conditions displayed above. But in the reports under review it is recorded that in 138 small rural schools, having a total enrolment of only 1000, the pupils lost $8\frac{1}{2}$ years of time in one year on account of scarlet fever; that they lost 3 years 4 months and 13 days on account of chicken pox; that the total time lost during the year amounted to 37 school years; and that 76 per cent of this loss was due to sickness, 60 per cent of which was preventable. In an examination of 21 rural schools, it was found that 10 per cent of the pupils had trachoma; in four schools the infection was 35 per cent, 43 per cent, 44 per cent, and 46 per cent, respectively. A microscopic examination of specimens from 403,719 children in 11 states showed that 43 per cent of them had hookworm infection,

and that in many schools the infection ran as high as 100 per cent, including the teacher.

These records of high percentages of infection are not offered as typical of conditions in all rural schools; they are not intended to imply that the school is the cause, or that it is responsible for the occurrence, of every case of communicable disease that may appear among its pupils. Of the cases of trachoma or hookworm infection referred to, many were doubtless contracted at home and were brought into the school. But, granted in case of any given school that all cases of infection were brought into the school from the homes, it remains that they are in the school, and their unguarded presence there points the responsibility which I desire to emphasize. One case of trachoma in a school is a menace to every other child in that school and to every family in the community from which children attend the school. And here are rural schools in which 10 per cent, 35 per cent, and even 46 per cent of the pupils have trachoma, with no apparent recognition that the disease is communicable, and with no precaution against its transmission to the other pupils and thru them to the whole community. I have seen many rural schools (and six years ago there were hundreds of them) in which from 25 per cent to 100 per cent of the children were carriers and distributors of hookworm infection. At many of these schools complete soil contamination prevailed, and the majority of the children were barefoot during the spring and summer season. Without thought, word, or act of precaution on the part of anybody these infected children, by being brought together in larger groups at the schools and made to live together there under insanitary conditions, were augmenting the infection among themselves, were transmitting it to the uninfected, and were thus distributing it thru the communities. I have no hesitation in affirming that rural public schools have thus contributed directly and in no small measure to the distribution of hookworm infection thruout hundreds of rural communities, and to the intensifying of the disease and its devitalizing results in the case of thousands of children who otherwise would have escapt with a much lighter infection.

On the other hand, let me hasten to say that, in the work now under way for the relief and control of trachoma and hookworm infection, there is no more important working agency than the rural school. And this brings me to the second and last point which it is the purpose of this paper to emphasize, namely: The rural school under intelligent administration may be made the most effective agency we have yet devised for conserving the life and health and working efficiency of the people in our rural communities. It is not possible, within the limits of a ten-minute paper, to exhibit in detail how this is to be done; but four things at least are fundamental, and are within the bounds of reasonable expectation: (1) the school when efficiently administered will safeguard the health of its pupils and will cease to be a serious menace to the community; (2) it will give definite and

systematic instruction in personal hygiene and community sanitation; (3) it will form a system of well-established health habits by having this instruction translated into appropriate action; and (4) it will so conduct its health-teaching and its health work that its instruction will be made effective thruout the community which it is intended to serve. And in the doing it will be found that these four things are inseparable.

Effective instruction in health subjects may well begin with recognition of the fact that the school is itself a community, with its diseases to be relieved and prevented, and its physical environment to be made sanitary and kept under control. Sanitary inspection of the school and medical inspection of its children will supply both motive and material for instruction of the most direct and definite character. Discovered pathologic conditions of teeth and gums, for example, will be made the occasion and the basis for the practical teaching of mouth hygiene; the finding of malarial infection, of trachoma, or of a typhoid carrier will be made to educate the whole school in the control of these communicable diseases; the proper care of the school building with its problems of heating, lighting, and ventilation, the care of its floor and furniture, the protection of its water supply, and the prevention of soil contamination about its grounds will be made to teach fundamental lessons in sanitation.

This instruction, growing out of the practical needs of the school, will be supplemented by means of books, leaflets, charts, and systematic oral teaching—all made simple, definite, direct, and concrete to the last degree, and illustrated in every possible detail by means of drawings, photographs, and lantern slides. These lessons will be driven home by the pressure of some practical situation to be met: the 43 per cent hookworm infection in the school must be eliminated, and reinfection prevented; teeth and gums must be made sound, and kept so; the water-supply must be protected, the dust kept down, and the temperature regulated. The school community will thus educate its members in the fundamentals of health by ascertaining what its own health requirements are, learning how these requirements may be met, and then doing the things which the situation calls for.

This rural schools may do, for they have done it and are doing it now. I have referred to the service which the schools are rendering in the work now under way for the relief and control of hookworm disease. The cooperation of state and county school authorities and of the teachers has been indispensable in carrying out the work. Hundreds of schools have had their pupils examined, have had the infected treated, and have made the proper sanitary provision for the prevention of reinfection. And more important than the control of the disease has been the educational result of the work. The intelligent doing of this one bit of health work in the school has given every child and the entire community an object lesson in the control of disease. Each child has been taught in concrete detail what this one disease is, what it means to him and to the community, how it

may be detected, how it may be cured, how the infection is spread, and how it may be prevented. This instruction has been carried out in action; and thus has been formed a system of health habits which will determine future conduct when these children come as men and women to preside over the homes and to direct the life of the community. The school authorities have been enlisted, and parents have shared in every step the children have taken. The community has been assembled at the school to see the demonstration that has been carried out, and to hear the story of it told in simple, straightforward language and abundantly illustrated by means of objects, charts, and lantern slides. The work of relief and sanitation carried out in the school is now being repeated in the homes. And one may see in many of these communities that a tide has set in—a tide of public sentiment which is bringing this disease under control, and which will in the end eradicate it. This sentiment, thus created, will continue, and will express itself in a demand for better health laws and larger appropriations for health work, and will be the basis for general advancement in personal hygiene and public sanitation.

*THE NEW IDEAL IN EDUCATION—BETTER PARENTS OF
BETTER CHILDREN*

HELEN C. PUTNAM, M.D., PROVIDENCE, R.I.

The only men and women society needs are those whose living betters the children that are and are to be. The disorders in civilization, the long destruction with powerful explosives, chemicals, and inventions directed by murderous wills, gives some little countenance to the query, What if humanity should be wiped out within the decennial? If it should be, sciences, arts, enterprises, personalities, would have no further usefulness. The corollary of this is: The supreme test of living is the next generation—our conservation of its qualities primarily, its numbers in part.

For the living many details are already settled. Heredity is beyond alteration, conditions of birth and early environment likewise. Later environment and reactions to it are still open to changes within limits of natural and political laws. Non-conformities to certain laws of well-being result for the next generation in imperfections, degeneracies, premature deaths. The next generation cannot be all it might be when the living prepare for it a heredity and environment either of which violates certain laws of well-being.

The individual's inheritance of life is made of infinite blendings thru infinite ages. No possession transcends it in antiquity, in costliness. It is beyond possibility of duplication, of restoration if destroyed or specifically injured. And yet it is a fair statement that no possession is more abused by its holder and by society. The responsibility of the living one to the

future for the right management of this ancestral trust gives him literally infinite power. If he chooses, this trust that has escaped annihilation up to the present may end with himself, eliminating from the race the strain confided to him. This is of infinite concern, somewhat to the past, somewhat to the future. Or the individual may contaminate a clean inheritance by choice of mate, or may handicap the next generation hopelessly through prenatal abuses and evil conditions of birth and infancy.

Again, the individual, even if not a parent, inevitably helps make the material, social, and spiritual environment of the next generation. He may help set the fashion for wages below possibility of decent living, for huge fortunes, for human maelstroms—great cities; for slums, alcoholics, prostitution; for suicide; for domination of democracy by wealth, by militarism, by competition instead of cooperation—domination of humanity by individualism. Or he may help establish the well-being of the next generation above greeds, lusts, vagaries, ignorance, and degeneracy of individuals.

The individual for his little moment has infinite power. Around his responsibilities are concentrated and heaped up all the vulgarities and vices, follies and shams, that twentieth-century civilization tolerates in the individual. Beyond these are national irresponsibilities. In Europe males selected for physical excellence are slaughtering each other. By-products of war are destruction of women and children, homes, means of livelihood. It is an incalculable price for the race to pay—for what?

Others accuse our nation of feeling "self-righteous" because not in the great embroilment. We have too many reasons for dissatisfaction with ourselves for that. The horrors of peace as disclosed in our census rival the horrors of war. They attract less attention because spread over more years. In our past nothing in authentic history equals our waste of natural resources by individuals seeking wealth under a government promoting its accumulation, with mutual indifference to rights of the unborn apparently as great as the indifference to rights of the North American Indians, for whose wrongs we thereby receive punishment. Reckless economic waste continues. It has meant vast individual fortunes, increasing numbers around the poverty line, exploitation of the masses, government by an oligarchy, not by all the people.

When other civilizations are being questioned, we are doomed if we do not recognize our own weaknesses. They are best measured in terms of human life. The census does this. In a decade of peace our people die by hundreds of thousands from preventable diseases, suffer by millions from preventable illnesses, endure, again by millions, preventable accidents. Our mortality rates of the very young are two and three times those in certain other countries. The preventable physical handicaps afflicting three-fourths of school children usually begin under parental care, and usually are continued and added to during school years, except under efficient medical inspection, which is very rare. Our mentally defective multiply

at rates faster than the average. The next generation is likely to have a larger burden of their support, robbing the normal, as we do, to provide for degenerates whose creation we allow, and who are already estimated in the millions. These are logical results of the ideal of "the rights of the individual" overshadowing humanity's rights.

All this that I have been recalling to mind is obvious. If humanity is to survive, individualism and nationalism must conform to laws of racial well-being. The only men and women society needs are those whose living betters the children that are and are to be. Acceptance of this standard is urgent. That nations are being exterminated in our own life-span reminds us that nations usually have had but a few hundred years of existence; that the length of life and power of our own country depends absolutely on what the living do for the next generation, delivering to them their inheritances of life and of environment not only no worse than received, but improved. Our books are audited by the Bureau of the Census, whose reports hitherto give grave cause for serious thought.

The evils of peace involve the whole people. Their prevention is determinedly thwarted by organized and unorganized individualism. Discontent with civilization under existing ideals is shown in grim and extended contests between labor and capital. There is unrest in the churches, in education, both accused of being unfairly influenced by wealth. Coercion of truth by money interests is as dangerous as coercion by violence. This is the risk in the foundations that people are resenting. It is one of the objections to great cities, whose abnormal crowding produces abnormal conditions and their abnormal treatments, that great wealth—abnormal too—advertises, influencing the whole country, leveling to expediency for commercial considerations standards and ideals that more wholesome environment creates and makes possible. This enlightened discontent is, like war itself, confession of failure, confession that peace such as we have had is not the kind of peace humanity wants.

It is said that democracy is on trial. Democracy has not existed—it cannot be on trial. Government that excludes from representation half the adult population because of sex, and possibly more than half the remaining adults because in so-called minorities (where progress always begins), is a vast oligarchy. It exhibits the imperfections that all forms of tyranny have always exhibited. The unrest of these unrepresented people is helping to urge the saving ideal of a better next generation. Neither democracy nor rights of individuals are ideals, as commonly claimed. They can be used as agents in establishing what appears to be the Creator's proffered possibility—a better human race.

For many months public attention had been occupied with plans for an international trade after the war such as has never been known. Competition is devised on a scale unprecedented. All signs point to even mightier preparations under the surface. The renewed struggle for wealth has all

the world for an arena, especially South America, with its millions of Indians and half-castes, some of them in all probability with qualities desirable to conserve in the racial inheritance, as had older peoples that have been exterminated under individualism and nationalism. The resources of South American forests, waters, and soils have hardly been sampled. Conditions promise a repetition of our colonial and early national history, whose crimes are not yet outgrown. To help on this commercial world war, public education plans commercial, trade, and industrial classes, encouraged by federal and local assistance, and strongly seconded by business interests. But thrift, commerce, and wealth that injure the living, and thru them the next generation, experience proves are undesirable. Unless some higher ideal directs them, we can expect nothing better than we have had. We may well expect worse—our powers for good and evil are greater.

On the other hand, demand is definite that we have a new kind of peace in which the race—not merely some of its living individuals—shall thrive. It comes from various honest and trustworthy sources, not always expressed in the same terms, nor professing the same immediate object, but when analyzed all converging to one ideal—a better next generation. Experts in research and specialists in experimentation, commissions and surveys, studies and reports, magazines and newspapers, forums and mass meetings, are presenting statements of wrongs, accounts of remedies under way, under consideration, asking consideration, or proved ineffective.

The more we learn of our mistakes, the farther back in the lives of children many are traced. Their susceptible organization stores influences more lastingly and deeply, whether bacilli of tuberculosis or effects of cruelty, selfishness, ignorance. During these highly sensitive years, as during prenatal life, the child's development is wholly in the hands of parents, its heredity also. Education omits preparation for this most critical business of life—making a human before school age. A hundred years ago teachers and nurses, like parents today, had only pick-up knowledge. Half a century ago, preparation of the first two was under way. Today preparation for the responsibilities of parents is beginning, largely thru insistence of women backed by statistics from the census.

We think economically. We need to think biologically. To an audience of biologists this statement would have certain definite meaning. It would mean such actual educational experiences that there remains in consciousness or subconsciousness a composite of details convincing the individual that life is a racial trust, that the quality of the next generation is the supreme test of human worth. But society is cultivating humans without preparation in elementary science of life, and with ambitions for economic competitions and successes. It is a law of mind that we do not appreciate until we understand. We shall always abuse life until we understand at least its essential laws. That during every decade in the United States four

million children die under five years of age, more than half of whom we could save if we would, should seem more humiliating than European carnage thru half a decade of passion. The deepest impression our holocaust makes is when we put it in dollars, of which more is understood than of the depreciation of the race by loss of family strains and of the waste of motherhood and fatherhood. Not all children who die are inferior. We have no reason for thinking that even the majority are.

Not only the need and the demand, but the opportunity for teaching racial responsibilities is greater than ever before. The recent extension of public-school teaching to those not in the regular grades, both children and adults, and increasing extra-mural instruction by colleges and universities are partly stimulated by demands of parents for help in their duties. This and the admirable work by the Department of Agriculture afford the opportunity. To assist each age in its special activities will pay in the end if, and only if, the ideal of a better next generation dominates the present economic ideals of those urging vocational and extension instruction. Eight hours of labor daily, forty to sixty weekly, or less, leaves more than three times as many hours without the protection of our greatest blessing—work. It is in unoccupied intervals that most of the crimes against the race are committed. Spending wisely is harder than earning. Society does not profit when its educational product earns twenty-five dollars a week and, for example, chooses a mate whose father was a moron.

The National Council of Education has a great opportunity to serve, and a great duty to use this opportunity. With vision of the future, understanding past failings and present resources, the Council can help establish another peace whose ideal of a better next generation shall prevail over existing follies. Deliberately to adopt the policy of teaching concrete facts, making real to individuals that each holds an actual trust from an infinite past to an infinite future—it can be impressed even in kindergartens—would be the greatest help to morals that exists. Probably the commonest trouble with young people, and with older also, is that they see no reason for being, no mission, no real responsibility; believing that what they do is of no consequence to anyone but themselves. This can be disproved more convincingly than most false assertions by those who know how to do it correctly. The Council should aid by all means in its power the making of teachers who know how. It should have a committee to study ways and means of doing this.

If we may indulge in fancy, with this ideal the ancient East and the new West are coming together—the East with its ancestor worship, a not wholly unworthy inspiration, measured by the graces of its civilization; the United States said to have a child-worship, much of it vague sentiment, much sensational and harmful. When society thru education fulfils its duty to give each age according to its needs truths correctly relating

ancestors and descendants with the living, the meeting of East and West promises an era more nearly complete and therefore more enduringly satisfying.

DISCUSSION

ADELAIDE STEELE BAYLOR, State Supervisor of Household Arts, Indianapolis, Ind.—In the little state of Indiana, with a population of something over two and a half millions, are 524 charitable and corrective institutions with 20,000 inmates, or one for about every 140 inhabitants. Recently the governor of that state in a public address advised the people that these institutions were filled to overflowing, and declared in no uncertain terms that instead of appropriating more money for new buildings steps should be taken to lessen the constantly increasing number of those who were daily becoming a burden to the state.

In the still smaller state of New Jersey, with a population of about two millions, there is spent a little less than \$1,000,000 annually for dependent and neglected children alone, or about fifty cents per capita of the population. The sum is so enormous that the last report from New Jersey suggests: "It might be well to ascertain, if possible, some of the causes which make so great a dependency of children in this state. If some of the causes could be ascertained, then measures should be taken to remove the cause."

Such conditions and such vast expenditures of money for dependents, defectives, and delinquents are widespread, and succeeding generations view the constantly increasing burden as one of the unavoidable accompaniments of progress, and mechanically make out their expense budgets with a certain amount for charity.

And such statistics do not represent by any means the sum total of subnormals and their support. They do not touch upon the children in our schools who are under the direction of special experts, and are demanding the time, attention, and money that could well be expended for a more profitable education for the normal child. They do not include the thousands of dollars expended by individuals in charity not reported to managing boards. They do not include the families and children not yet discovered and classified that are a menace to the present and succeeding generations.

The physical, mental, and moral stability of every citizen is the very essence of race preservation, and the weightiest problem for the public-school officials and teachers to solve today is that of discovering some method for enlightening the people, men and women, and for instructing the children, boys and girls, in the practical application of rational principles for the betterment of the present and future generations.

The outcry against the vast expenditures in New Jersey is an economic one. We need to make it a humane one as well, one that pleads for a newer and broader sense of responsibility, reaching beyond the individual self, family, community, state, nation and present generation to our successors, to the race itself without reference to time limits.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

NEW YORK MEETING

OFFICERS

President—ROBERT J. ALEY, president, University of Maine.Orono, Me.

Vice-President—AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING, first assistant commissioner of Education, Albany, N.Y.

Secretary—WILLIAM B. OWEN, principal, Chicago Normal College. Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—SATURDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 1, 1916

The meeting was called to order in the Ballroom of the Hotel Astor at 2:30 P.M. with President Aley in the chair. The president appointed J. Y. Joyner secretary.

"Educational and Psychological Aspects of Racial Well-Being" was presented by Robert M. Yerkes, assistant professor of comparative psychology, Harvard University, and psychologist to the Psychopathic Hospital, Boston, Mass.

Discussion: Carrol G. Pearce, Milwaukee, Wis.; Frank A. Fitzpatrick, Boston, Mass.; Ella Flagg Young, Chicago, Ill.; and Helen C. Putnam, M.D., Providence, R.I.

"The Course of Study as a Test of Efficiency of Supervision" was presented by A. Duncan Yocum, professor of educational research and practice, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Following this paper J. W. Carr, chairman, Committee on Superintendent Problems, presented the following resolutions which were adopted:

1. That the report as submitted by Dr. Yocum be printed, and that the members of the Council in general and those of the Committee on Superintendent Problems in particular, suggest in writing to him the modifications, omissions, and additions to the report which they deem necessary.

2. That he be requested to rewrite the report, enlarging on the topics treated in such manner as may be necessary to set forth the subject in proper form, and that the same be considered by the Committee on Superintendent Problems.

3. That the subject come before this Council at a later date, if the committee deems it advisable to ask the Council to take official action in reference to the matter.

"Rural Education" was presented by James Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction, Raleigh, N.C.

J. Y. JOYNER, *Secretary*

SECOND SESSION—SATURDAY EVENING, JULY 1, 1916

The meeting was called to order in the Ballroom of the Hotel Astor by President Aley at 8:00 P.M. The following program was presented:

"The Greater Thrift"—S. W. Straus, president, American Society of Thrift, Chicago, Ill.

"Normal School Preparation for Thrift Teaching"—William B. Owen, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"Teaching Thrift thru the 'Common Branches'"—J. D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

"Thrift and the Teacher"—Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary, California Council of Education, Chairman Thrift Committee, Los Angeles, Cal.

WILLIAM B. OWEN, *Secretary*

THIRD SESSION—MONDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 10:00 A.M., Vice-President Augustus S. Downing in the chair. J. Stanley Brown of Joliet, Ill., was appointed secretary.

In the absence of the chairman of the Committee on Health Problems in Education, Charles H. Keyes, president, Skidmore School of Arts, Saratoga Springs, N.Y., presented

the report of the committee. This report was discust by Walter B. Cannon, M.D., Harvard University Medical School, Boston, Mass., on behalf of the American Medical Association.

It was moved, supported, and unanimously carried that the Council of Education recommend the appropriation of \$1000 for the use of the committee during the coming year.

A round table on pensions was conducted by Joseph Swain, president, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa., chairman, Committee on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions. The discussion was participated in by Clyde Furst, New York, N.Y.; Kate D. Blake, New York, N.Y.; O. S. Westcott, Chicago, Ill.; C. H. Keyes, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.; J. Y. Joyner, Raleigh, N.C.; and W. M. Davidson, Pittsburgh, Pa.

J. Y. Joyner presented the following resolutions which were unanimously adopted:

1. That the National Council of Education appoint a committee of ten to investigate the status of rural education in the United States, to make full report thereon to this body and to the National Education Association embodying therein recommendations for the improvement thereof, and to cooperate with the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Department of Agriculture and the Federal and State governments for the study and promotion thereof.

2. That this Council recommend to the Executive Committee such appropriation as may be necessary for the expense of such investigation and report.

The Committee on Nominations presented the following report:

WILLIAM B. OWEN, Chicago, Ill., *President* Term expires 1919
 ADELAIDE STEELE BAYLOR, Indianapolis, Ind., *Secretary* Term expires 1917
 DAVID B. JOHNSON, Rock Hill, S. C., *Executive Committee* Term expires 1919
 JACOB A. SEAWAN, Columbus, Ohio, *Committee on Membership* Term expires 1919
 WALTER R. SIDERS, Pocatello, Idaho, *Committee on Membership* Term expires 1917

MEMBERS

TERMS TO EXPIRE IN 1922

L. R. Alderman, Portland, Ore., to succeed D. H. Christiansen, Salt Lake City, Utah.
 Payson Smith, Boston, Mass., to succeed himself.
 James H. Van Sickle, Springfield, Mass., to succeed himself.
 Grace Shepherd, Boise, Idaho, to succeed James A. Barr, Berkeley, Cal.
 J. Y. Joyner, Raleigh, N.C., to succeed himself.
 Robert J. Aley, Orono, Me., to succeed himself.
 Charles E. Chadsey, Detroit, Mich., to succeed himself.
 Davis Snedden, New York, N.Y., to succeed himself.
 J. Stanley Brown, Joliet, Ill., to succeed himself.
 Albert E. Winship, Boston, Mass., to succeed himself.

TERMS TO EXPIRE IN 1917

Fletcher B. Dresslar, Nashville, Tenn., to fill vacancy.
 Thomas W. Palmer, Montevallo, Ala., to fill vacancy.

The secretary was authorized to cast the unanimous ballot for the above-named officers and members.

On motion duly made and carried it was recommended that hereafter the first meeting of the Council be held on Monday instead of on Saturday, of the week preceding the general sessions of the Association. It was also recommended that future Council meetings be held in a room seating not to exceed two hundred people.

J. STANLEY BROWN, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

EDUCATIONAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF RACIAL
WELL-BEING

ROBERT M. YERKES, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF COMPARATIVE PSYCHOLOGY,
HARVARD UNIVERSITY, AND PSYCHOLOGIST TO THE BOSTON STATE
HOSPITAL, PSYCHOPATHIC DEPARTMENT, BOSTON, MASS.

1. *The proximately desirable, suitable, fit, in human nature, versus the ideal.*

—The reasonably successful, contented, and socially valuable individual is easy to find and describe; the ideal individual has never been discovered and is difficult to imagine. We know in a practical way what to work against in human nature; we are less certain what to work for. But our efforts toward racial well-being should not be hindered by diversity of opinion concerning the ideal man. Tasks of the utmost importance are at hand for each of us, and we may not ignore or neglect them without violating our social conscience.

2. *Education at present strives to perfect the individual. It concerns itself primarily with the nurture of man. It should strive also to improve human nature.*—As educators, we habitually and conventionally regard human nature as the proper concern of the Creator and of biologists, and nurture alone as our concern. It appears that this is a socially and racially unprofitable division of interest and responsibility, and that education should promote racial well-being thru the proper training of the individual. It lies within the power of us educators to effect racial improvement. Our work reaches from generation to generation. What the children of today are effectively taught will, as appreciation of the educational aspects of eugenics develops, determine in ever-larger measure the quality of the next generation.

3. *How may education most effectively promote racial well-being as contrasted with merely individual development? How may we, thru educational effort, guarantee that posterity shall be well born and well reared?*—Two lines of endeavor seem especially promising of good results: (1) we should educate to a sense of responsibility for the race, as well as for society and for the self; (2) we should educate to an appreciation of the values of research.

An ever-present consciousness of responsibility for human nature may be developed by appropriate and adequate instruction in (1) the sciences which deal with man's physical environment; (2) the sciences of life: botany, zoölogy, physiology, psychology, sociology; (3) the study of actual and possible relations of organisms to their world—as, for example, in hygiene; (4) the study of the self—as an organism among organisms, as a conscious and self-conscious being, as a member of social groups and, as a moral being with ideals, rights, and obligations.

Such instruction should tend to give the individual fuller and more valuable knowledge of himself and his place in nature, while at the same

time bringing him to feel that the future of mankind depends partly upon him. We need above all thus to increase educationally the sense of responsibility, dignity, and social value in every individual. Our modern conception of heredity modifies, but does not lessen, man's responsibility for man.

Today we train ourselves for almost everything in our catalog of vocations and avocations except the tasks of parenthood. Dare we still argue that instinct adequately prepares us for this racially important and most complex group of activities? Racial well-being demands that the nature and conditions of life be made objects of systematic and intelligent instruction thruout our educational system. The kindergarten is not early enough for the beginnings; they should, if possible, be made in the home; and the college age is not too late for wise instruction in heredity, eugenics, and eugenics. Where is the parent or teacher who has not keenly felt the inadequacy of his knowledge, insight, and skill. Our human duties call for infinite wisdom and devotion. Truly, "the proper study of mankind is man."

Appreciation of the values of research by the child seems impossible until one considers the matter in the light of genetic psychology. Then it appears natural, inevitable, and essential to racial welfare. For the creative impulse or instinct is ever present, awaiting the command of the wise and skilled teacher. Alike in play, daily tasks, art, science, and procreation, it finds expression, and, indeed, tends to sweep everything before it. It cannot be wholly suppress; it may be effectively guided. Education can ill afford to neglect either the creative tendency or the values to the individual and the race of creative endeavor and its fruits.

To educate to an appreciation of the values of research means so to direct the interests and activities of the individual that the satisfactions of originating, initiating, discovering, working out problems, adding to human knowledge instead of merely using what is offered, will be experienced repeatedly and will stimulate to further effort. Life offers no greater satisfactions than those of free creative activity.

Is education doing all that should be done toward racial well-being thru the stimulation and guidance of the impulse to research? Are we as teachers living up to our insight and opportunity in this respect? Readily we admit that the control of life depends upon knowledge of characteristics of the world, of the organism, and of their relations, but all the while we continue to regard research—and particularly scientific research—as something remote from human interest, impractical, the result of an acquired taste. Is not the search for knowledge, the creative impulse, the most natural of tendencies, which, if lacking, must have been suppress? Surely, a little wisdom, insight, pains, on the part of teachers, will greatly increase the satisfaction of individuals, while so adding to our knowledge as to prepare the way for racial improvement.

4. *Racial well-being demands also that an adequate scientific basis for the art of education be created.*—Social, psychological, and educational measurements have abundantly demonstrated that like tends to produce like. The

educator can no better afford to ignore this fact than can the farmer, gardener, stock-breeder. If we are to attain new levels of racial welfare and individual achievement, we must, in the light of the facts of environmental influence and heredity, treat man educationally as an organism among organisms.

In conformity to this necessity, the newer ideal of education calls for discriminating treatment of individuals in accordance with their nature, nurture, and probable value to themselves and to the race. Such discriminating and individualistic treatment can become possible only if adequate methods of studying the individual are developed and extensively used (1) for purposes of statistical research and (2) to supply facts for diagnostic statement and educational treatment. Today we educate, or attempt to educate, the individual, while ignorant or heedless of his characteristics. What shall be true tomorrow?

Summarily expressed, the promotion of racial well-being thru educational effort calls for: (1) the thorough study of the individual; (2) the scientific study of methods of achieving educational ends; (3) the careful relating of educational treatment to individual characteristics; (4) the segregation of subnormal individuals and their commitment to social and medical agencies; (5) increasingly discriminating individualistic treatment of the normal or average child; and (6) special study and supervision of the supernormal or exceptional individual.

The individual should be studied by reliable methods from every significant point of view, but especially as to: (1) family history or heredity; (2) individual history in home, school, etc.; (3) physical and medical history and status; (4) social relations, economic efficiency, and dominant traits of temperament and character; (5) mental constitution; (6) educational needs; and (7) vocational fitness.

The so-called "testing" of school children, now the fashion, is a poor substitute for the kind of individual study that is needed. We must not imagine that the child is easily analyzed, measured, described. Only experts, highly trained, experienced in their special tasks, and wise, are fit for the work. Incompetence is rife today in the mental examining of school children; and unless harm is to result where good is expected, we shall be obliged to look sharply to our methods and to the quality of our examiners. Reliable individual study should lead to practical, valuable classification with respect to mental and physical characteristics and to special educational diagnosis.

The special attention which is now being given to the subnormal child in certain of our school systems might much more profitably be devoted to the supernormal. The former is the handicap of the race; the latter, its hope. We should not neglect our social responsibilities to those physically and mentally unfortunate beings who never should have been born, but neither should we attempt for them the impossible. The supernormal

child is supremely important, for he is almost certain to prove in market degree a blessing or a curse to the race. More than his fellows he needs careful guidance, intelligent nurture. It is not generally known that delinquents, criminals, vagabonds, geniuses in vice, as well as our social and racial leaders, are commonly recruited from the supernormal and the ill-balanced groups.

5. *As a means to social progress along educational and eugenical lines, the intensive study of a single school system is proposed.*—The plan may be briefly outlined thus: In a fairly stable community (town, township, or county), the school population should be studied systematically by a staff of experts, over a period of ten to twenty years. The work should include:

a) Careful and accurate study of each pupil, physically, mentally, socially, genetically, educationally, and vocationally. Each record should be rendered as complete as possible by the cooperative labors of experts in medical, psychological, sociological, and educational measurement and diagnosis. The individual records or descriptions should be supplemented from year to year.

b) So far as possible every individual should be followed up after leaving school, in order that social, economic, and genetic data may be obtained.

c) Finally, the varied sorts of information should be skilfully arranged for statistical use, thoroly analyzed and studied comparatively, for the solution of varied educational, psychological, and broadly social or racial problems.

Ultimately, the information from such a survey should indicate important relations of characteristics of mind, body, and environment to social and economic achievement or value. A multitude of pressing problems should be illuminated if not solved. Much, for example, should be learned concerning the nature of the children who later become social blights or blessings—paupers, criminals, mental dependents, the insane, inventors, artists, reformers, leaders in various walks of life. Much should be learned about the marriage and mating tendencies in their relations to individual traits, about the results of various sorts of matings, about the values for different natures of certain modes of educational treatment. This catalog might be indefinitely extended, since most human problems would come within the scope of such a survey.

I submit that economy of effort in the interests of educational and eugenical progress demands the intensive and prolonged study of a human community.

6. *Summary.*—Racial well-being or eugenical progress must be achieved primarily thru educational effort. It must be recognized that the interests of the individual are inseparable from those of the race; that self-realization is conditioned by a measure of subordination of individual desires to racial

and social ends. As educators, we must learn to work for the next generation, because by so doing we shall best serve the interests of the children of today. Our responsibility for the conduct of our own lives may not be lessened, but we must accept a larger measure of responsibility for posterity—even for the unborn—and for social developments. Education must at once become more highly individualized with respect to treatment, more highly socialized with respect to immediate ends, and more highly racialized with respect to its chief purpose, aim, and ideal of achievement. To shape humanity is nobler than to strive toward the perfecting of the individual, and yet we must not forget that racial well-being may be achieved only by and thru the development of better individuals.

DISCUSSION

HELEN C. PUTNAM, M.D., Providence, R.I.—The committee to study methods of promoting the ideal of racial well-being has substantial progress to report for the five months since its appointment. In April we invited certain institutions training educators—universities, colleges, and normal schools above a specified minimum of requirements—to cooperate in studying the proposition, “The supreme object of education should be to make the next generation better than living generations.” We also offered honorariums to the amount of \$250 in each of four sections of the country, totaling \$1000 in 12 states, as acknowledgment of special excellence in these studies by graduating classes of 1917. A gratifying proportion has accepted our invitation. About a thousand men and women training to become educators are definitely engaged in this study. They work in cooperation as classes. The results will be collective, from the whole country, as it is our intention to extend this invitation next autumn to the class of 1918 in 12 other states, and so continue each year until we have reached the 48 states and our \$4000 fund is consumed.

During these summer months numerous groups and individuals are doing research work in their own neighborhood, or in their own families. Most of it is simple and elementary, some of it comparatively difficult, and likely to be of permanent usefulness. We have, for example, received requests for methods of study of the family, and Charles B. Davenport, of the Eugenics Record Office at Cold Spring Harbor, who is one of our advisory committee of specialists, sends in reply his blank form for this purpose, a duplicate of which, when filled up, is preserved at the office for studies in heredity. Some inquirers secure the blank form for “Study of the Self” that Robert M. Yerkes, of the psychologic laboratory at Harvard University, has issued, which contains Mr. Davenport’s family study form. In this and in certain other ways some of the work will be standard work.

These group studies or experiments will be reported to the classes when they reassemble next September. Such plans for the winter’s work as have come to us promise cooperation between different departments, such as pedagogy, or education; biology, or nature study; civics, or sociology; home economics, or domestic science; and training schools with children’s classes.

It is desired to afford all possible assistance to an institution asking suggestions, that it may do all it has opportunity to do in developing the study. The rivalry stimulated by honorariums we intend to be constructive—a rivalry in usefulness. It is constructive rivalry that distinguishes civilization from the barbarism whose supreme manifestation has always been slaughter of one’s kind and the winning of others’ possessions, either in a Waterloo or a Wall Street. But struggle is a law of being, even in the inanimate world, where form and energy exist as resultants of opposing forces. In organic life struggle is

the supreme law, and may be destructive as among barbarians, or constructive as we are finding is the secret of that civilization we hope to realize. Peace without struggle is death. And peace devoted to fighting with one's fellows for a livelihood or for wealth, to a struggle that exploits the poor and a sex and childhood, to a struggle of economic unco-ordination, such as peace has ever been, invites degeneracy—the degeneracy of poverty, crime, disease, and defectiveness, physical and mental.

The difference between the destructiveness of barbarism and constructiveness of a possible new kind of peace lies in the aims of the two sorts of struggle. To go no farther back than our own democracy, we have progressively enlarged our conception of the kind of individual entitled to life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness, until the beginning of the twentieth century found us in the midst of struggles for rights of labor against institutions favoring capital; for rights of women to fulfil their duties in human betterment against hampering laws made by men; for rights of children to be well born and well cared for against use of liberty by adults to pursue "happiness," meaning self-gratification, in unsanitary, immoral, ignorant, idle, and other individualistic living. These struggles for rights of labor, of women, of children, are all constructive, are against conditions maintained by the majority under dominating ideals of individualism and its by-product, commercialism. These struggles, still unfinished, are already large factors in such reductions of rates of mortality, morbidity, and perhaps crime, as the Bureau of the Census has reported; rates that are still, however, higher in some instances than numerous similar rates in certain other countries.

Reversion to war among civilizations nearest like our own, and the enormosity of our own preventable losses of life, health, and happiness during struggles in peace times are proofs that racial interests should supersede individualism as the ideal. Educators must prepare for these constructive rivalries in reduction of degeneracy, crime, disease, defectiveness, and mortality rates; must prepare for international contests devoted to this creative efficiency. Instead of recording battles, conquests, and exterminations of peoples as proud events, instead of exalting generals, admirals, governors, and multimillionaires as great individuals, historians should encourage other ambitions by narrating methods which were successful in replacing evils by excellences in communities and among nations, and the individuals who were leaders in these battles—the Pasteurs and Mendels, the Roger Williamses and Abraham Lincolns, Henry Barnards, and Matthew Vassar, Susan Anthonys, Mary Hunts, Ellen Richardses, and their contemporaries who work with them—will receive the new hero-worship, inspiring further achievement in universal well-being.

This requires all-round abler men and women than does destructiveness. We are not—or are we?—weaklings to shirk the challenge of the age. The traitors to the United States are they who actively or passively thwart such preparedness. The optimist believes that some nation will "arrive."

A national ideal, or an international ideal, one which the people deputize their schools to develop, can thrive only when enough of all the people believe in it. Its cultivation means widely extended efforts according to methods adapted to distant parts of our great territory and to our varied population. The first requirement, that a considerable number believe in concrete effort for the higher ideal, racial well-being, has been coming to pass rather rapidly and more or less unconsciously for a half-century. The second need in establishing an ideal is that educators shall use effective methods.

It is because of the fact, too often ignored, that one institution, or one group of students and teachers, or one commonwealth in a great nation does not and cannot know all there is to know in a great new venture—it is because of this human limitation and consequent fallibility that we are distributing our study thruout all educators' courses in the country, inviting their assistance. My own observation has more than once convinced me that the best work is not infrequently done in some obscure little schoolroom, and if we could adopt some of these methods extensively thruout the country, several of

our urgent educational difficulties would be solved. It is, therefore, by the collective assistance of this multitude of councilors dedicated to educational affairs that we are likely to arrive at best methods, as well as extended efficiency in future use of them.

THE COURSE OF STUDY AS A TEST OF EFFICIENCY OF SUPERVISION

A. DUNCAN YOCUM, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND PRACTICE,
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

This report has been prepared in the hope that it may lead to some general agreement by the Council concerning the fundamental characteristics of an efficient course of study. With this end in view, effort has been made to make the following propositions general enough to apply to any type of course, and yet definite enough to specify what is most essential to the efficiency of each.

The term "course of study" is used as the popular substitute for educational "content." In deference to Dr. Snedden's insistence that clear distinction should be maintained between "course of study" and teachers' manuals and school textbooks, I would have substituted the expression "material of instruction," were it not for my wish to avoid all technical expressions non-essential to the purpose of the report. Schoolmen in general understand "course of study" to include all the educational material that is to be brought to bear upon the pupil. Sometimes it merely enumerates school textbooks; sometimes it is supplemented by definite suggestions in teachers' manuals. It is usually taken, however, to include all that is authoritatively prescribed for the pupils; and it is in that sense that I use the term. Indeed it is only in the sense of authoritative prescription that I can speak of it as the test of supervision. Here again Dr. Snedden very properly insists on distinction between executive and legislative educational authority:

A course of study should be very analogous to the plans and specifications which an architect prepares for the guidance of builders. Supervision follows to see that the plans and specifications are complied with, and this supervision may itself be tested. The plans and specifications, however, are fundamentally the general and specific directions under which people are to work.

This, of course, I accept, but some authority or other must be responsible for the working plans, and the only expert authority that can be held responsible for the course of study is the superintendent or principal at the head of the school system or school unit. Committees of assistants or teachers may detail the course, and boards of education approve it, or select and adopt the textbooks that take its place, or on which it is based. But it is supervisory authority, either in the person of superintendent or principal, or usurpt by the board, that finally details the course and is primarily responsible for it.

1. Distinction must be drawn between a mere paper course of study with its textbooks and its manuals, and its results in actual practice. A course of study is a test of supervision merely in what it includes and omits, in the aims which it specifies, in the detail and definiteness with which it seeks to attain them, in its provision for readjustment, in its relative valuation and emphasis of details, and in the organization which results from definiteness.

2. The evidence offered by a non-detailed course of study is conclusive only in what it omits. If, for example, it fails to provide for drawing, domestic science, or esthetic training, and no cooperative social agencies exist in the community to supplement the work of the school, it is safe to assume that what is not prescribed does not exist as a systematic phase of school work. If it exists at all, the course of study is not responsible for it. On the other hand, the presence of certain forms of work in a general and undetailed course of study—the direction that “teachers at this point shall give lessons in morals and manners,” or the mere listing of lessons in hygiene—does not insure sufficient instruction or necessarily result in any instruction at all. A course of study which limits itself to apportioning sections of textbooks to successive school terms and years without emphasizing, omitting, or adding particular details, is usually so inclusive that selection is left to the individual teacher. The ordinary textbook designed to meet the needs of many communities contains more material than is required for anyone. Without detailed prescription, essentials and trifles are usually given equal emphasis in the vain effort to master the text as a whole.

Absence of a detailed course may stimulate individual initiative and result in a high degree of efficiency in particular phases of work, with the form of efficiency largely differing for each teacher. But even if supplemented by individual teachers' plan-books and problem-schemes, it is just as likely to result in such omission of essentials and overemphasis of minor details that investigation must look as carefully for fundamental failure as for exceptional success.

3. A detailed course of study not only insures sufficient data for a test of efficiency, but is in itself a favorable condition to efficiency, if it provides for initiative on the part of individual teachers with a view to continual readjustment. If absence of detail lays supervision open to suspicion, a merely logical detailing, whether in the course or in specified textbooks, neither menaces individual initiative nor insures efficiency. It may include sufficient data to determine quite fully what is taught as well as what is omitted. It may in itself thru its inclusions and omissions become a favorable condition to efficiency, but only so far as it makes possible the far greater pedagogical definiteness, yet to be described, that is gradually resulting from the scientific determination of educational values, and so far as provision for continual revision gives opportunity for additions and modifications. Since the individual initiative on the part of teachers that

effects efficiency thru the course of study must express itself in scientific contributions, or suggestions based upon them, rather than in individual inspirations and enthusiasms, its safeguard lies rather in opportunity for individual expression and provision for readjustment than in indefiniteness and lack of detail. Where the detailed course takes the form of individual teachers' plan-books and problem-schemes, self-satisfaction with individual achievement lacks the counteracting incentives to progress which result from collective criticism of a common course.

4. A just and adequate test must be broad enough to include all prevailing standards, current readjustments, and scientific determinations. The absence of provision for readjustment does not necessarily result in inefficiency, but confines the course of study to particular kinds of efficiencies. Standards not only change, but existing standards differ. A test or a survey that sets up a theoretical ideal, especially the ideal of an individual, and makes it the unit for measuring a course of study or any other phase of supervision where a different ideal prevails, is misleading and unjust. Even a test or survey that is based upon scientific determinations must show how the course of study measures up to its own particular standard as well as to that of educational science. If this is true, the fact that educational thinkers and experts are not agreed upon all standards, in place of making tests and comparisons indeterminate, makes it necessary that they should be analytic and definite enough to measure what is peculiar to each and to compare what is common to all. The distinction between existing standards and scientific determinations will gradually disappear with the development of education as a science. Every type of school, especially the public school, is, after all, quick to adopt what is scientifically demonstrated to be essential to efficiency. Meanwhile, every test will in itself become a means to popularizing scientific standards, if always accompanied by comparison and ranking based on the aims and standards of the institution or system tested. Dr. Snedden is right when he says:

I can readily understand why, when dealing with a selected circle of educators or an experimental school, we should wish to go beyond what is available in the ordinary textbook; but for the rank and file of teachers, I am wondering whether we are not increasing rather than diminishing confusion.

5. A just and adequate test must take into account local conditions, but only in judging the limited amount of subject-matter for which they are determining. The necessity for adaptation to local needs limits itself almost wholly to specific or social phases of education, and there mainly to the industrial. Later discussion will show the possibility of adaptation to local or individual tastes and interests, where different details of subject-matter within a particular branch of study, or in different branches, can accomplish the same essential aim or have in themselves equal probability of usefulness and survival. Limitation thru poverty of local resources bears less upon the selection and organization of subject-matter

than upon the quality of instruction and the more material provisions for carrying out the course of study, such as textbooks, library, and apparatus. No more serious blunder can be made by an investigator than to judge the quality of any course of study, or even the efficiency of instruction, thru the nature and extent of school equipment.

6. It must sharply distinguish between (1) essential details, the "irreducible minimum" to be memorized by all individuals in common; (2) optional details which, while presented to all in common, will be partially and variously retained by each individual; and (3) impressionistic details which serve to concrete or emotionalize useful things, but which should not be memorized at all. Since this distinction is "beyond what is available in the ordinary textbook," most teachers will vainly attempt to exact all details, if the course of study does not specify those which are to be given emphasis. As yet the distinction between essentials, optionals, and impressives has not been scientifically made. Supervisory authority in different localities will therefore not fix wholly upon the same essentials even where they are requiring the same branches. The fundamental requirement, however, is not that essentials shall be uniform or identical, but that they shall be sharply distinguished from optional details, and optional details from impressionistic. This distinction is the essential purpose in a scientific determination of the relative worth of details within the various branches.

When courses of study specify an essential minimum for each grade small enough for it to be required of all pupils, the problem of gradation and retardation will be largely solved. Meanwhile, such minimums as are required of backward children, immigrant groups and defectives, represent attempts to select essentials.

In the case of optional material, efficiency demands something more than its specification as nonessential. The course of study should include a sufficient amount and variety of equally useful details to appeal to individual interests, selected with a view to their greater likelihood of retention in the absence of drill. More than this, the partial and varying retention of different details by each individual, in as high proportion as native retentiveness permits, should be an end in itself rather than evidence of failure to remember all. It is necessary that all educated individuals shall be well informed, but not that they shall possess the same information, outside of minimum essentials. In the case of such details as minor causes and effects and the great mass of exact statistics—height of mountains and population of cities, the names of Columbus' ships, or the bones in the human ear—where usefulness lies, not in the things themselves, but in their concreting or emotionalizing of larger truths, the course of study should direct that they are not to be memorized at all.

7. It must make all practicable provision for individual abilities and interests which does not involve sacrifice of the minimum, essential to individuals in common: (1) Thru variation—that is, thru making the optional

material presented to all include a sufficient variety of equally useful details to appeal to individual abilities and interests conspicuously involved in retention. This largely reduces itself to insistence upon the use of a variety of visual, auditory, and motor illustrative material and occupations, and a variety of school readers and library books which collectively include all forms of emotional appeal. (2) Thru subjective specialization—that is, thru adequate opportunity for the early and continuing development of permanent individual abilities and interests. This must be sharply contrasted with that phase of Montessorian work which encourages temporary whim or impulse, but limits its exercise to choice among a variety of useful things—all of which must be finally mastered in common by every individual. Subjective specialization recognizes only permanent individual abilities and interests, and makes their development and use a different end in itself for each individual rather than a varying means to the mastery of identical things. Specialization must not be at the expense of minimum essentials, because they are fundamental both to society and to the highest development of individual efficiency itself. The irreducible minimum of common essentials must be small enough to leave time for subjective specialization for all but exceptionally backward learners. Provision for subjective specialization does not include classes for backward children and schemes of grading or individual instruction that are intended to insure the completest possible mastery of common essentials by all individuals. It does include: provision from the earliest school years for teaching exceptionally talented pupils such special subjects as music, art, the languages, etc.; recognition of work done outside the school, including not only music and art, but all forms of industrial occupation and preparation for the enjoyment of individual leisure; and, where complexity of administration does not make it impracticable, promotion by subjects, vocational guidance, elective subjects, and various types of higher schools, etc.

8. It must avoid definiteness in exhaustive detail which is without regard to relative educational values, but must present each relatively useful detail in the definite association on which its educational usefulness depends. Existing standards often require definiteness, but more frequently a definiteness that fails to suggest educational usefulness.

Mere definiteness is not in itself educationally useful. Facts are not educationally useful as facts, but in what they suggest or effect. The educational usefulness supposed to lie in the exhaustive or "thoro" study of peculiarly definite subjects is more economically and effectively gained thru frequent occasion in different subjects, for judging whether or not exhaustive detail is useful for a particular purpose, and thru enough experience with occasional and not too exhaustive topics to insure the will and ability to do exhaustive study when it is useful. The course of study that insists upon a particular branch of mathematics or a particular elementary science to the last detail is not necessarily efficient; but the course

that offers no requirements, or no adequate requirements, with a view to judgments, incentives, and abilities involved in thoroughness or exhaustive detail, is to that extent inefficient. On the other hand, the presence of educationally useful details in a course of study merely insures possibility of usefulness, unless the definite association of each possibly useful detail with the one or more ideas upon which its highest usefulness depends makes its usefulness certain or probable.

There are two sorts of definite associations which serve this purpose, and with one or another of which each relatively useful detail in the course of study should be associated, at least in its presentation: (1) Those definite associations which specify, not only the things which make the detail certainly and specifically useful, but the things which in themselves constitute its greatest specific usefulness. The relating of ventilation to health makes it specifically useful, but it has no certainty or even probability of usefulness until it is related to the habit of raising windows in bedrooms, and of insuring fresh air in various specific ways in any crowded room. As so-called social education, as well as academic, is ineffective in the absence of specification, it is not going beyond existing standards to criticize non-specific courses. (2) Those definite associations which help make usefulness general by suggesting further useful associations, which otherwise may or may not result.

The chief forms of generally useful definiteness are the association of a general idea with its type—popularized by Dr. McMurry—and what I have personally insisted upon—the memorizing of the most useful general ideas in firm association with the three or four words or phrases which most definitely suggest their most frequently recurring and varying associations. The helpfulness of the type is limited to mere identification. The suggesters or interconnection-makers compel the learner to look for particular sorts of new ideas and experience. For example, many mountains are sufficiently typical to result in the identification of all new mountains as they are encountered by experience. If a variety of mountains is presented thru illustration, it is to bring out their common characteristics, for that constitutes the type. But the firm memorizing of a mountain in its association with scenery, forests, minerals, boundaries, and watersheds definitely suggests new experiences with each identification. The suggesters are not only common to most mountains, but definitely point out further and more or less different ideas for each.

Mineral may in turn be identified as matter without life, or be made to suggest a number of things. Perhaps the primary suggesters would be kinds, parts, and uses, as associated in the kindergarten and earliest grades with every material thing. Mineral, then, like any other thing, would suggest kinds of material, uses of minerals, and their raw materials; and, thru this latter suggestion, the minerals from which other things can be manufactured identified as such. Here thinking and inquiry end, if raw

material has not habitually associated with it such further suggesters as source, locality, production, use, manufacture, market. But if they are so associated for each mineral found in a particular mountain, each may suggest still other ideas. For iron, source may suggest iron ore or even iron pyrites and hematite; locality—Pennsylvania, Lake Superior, Cuba, etc.; production—mines, veins, shafts, furnaces, coal, limestone, slag, and pig-iron; use—cast-iron, stoves, iron dogs on a lawn, steel cutlery, structural steel, industrial implements, war material, automobiles, etc.; manufacture—iron foundries and foundrymen, patterns and pattern-makers, coke ovens, rolling-mills, Bessemer process, American Bridge Co., munition plants; and market—anything from the city, with its skyscrapers, and the farm, with its ploughs and harrows, to the African explorer bartering knives for gum and ivory.

With a different set of suggesters, form, color, weight, hardness, and fracture, the identification of each new natural object as mineral may result in selective observation and familiarity with the name and characteristic qualities of a great variety of stones. The association of particular specimens with locality, stratum, fossil, etc., points the way to still broader and more varied knowledge. The point illustrated is that while the vast wealth of associations possible for each educationally useful thing, word, or idea cannot be memorized by all pupils or even presented to all, the few most far-reaching suggesters for the most useful details can be and should be memorized, reviewed, and cumulatively added to thruout the entire school course. Identification adds to vocabulary; definite suggestiveness varies and multiplies information and mental interconnections. The pupil must know what a gas is, both physically and chemically, or what it means to have two triangles equal; but if compressibility of gas or vapor surely suggests elasticity and condensation, it is more likely to suggest steam-engine and projectile, while the mechanical association of equality of angles with every way of proving them equal is often the necessary link in demonstrating triangles to be equal. War or settlement, Kuklux Klan or Abraham Lincoln, should not be included in history without the association that makes it educationally most useful—not merely thru identifying it for what it is, but thru making most probable the useful ideas which it should call to mind. I believe that the time will soon come when not a single fact will be put into the course of study that is not definitely associated with the ideas that specify its immediate or specific usefulness or suggest its further or general usefulness. Only a few can be retained by all pupils in such associations—the limit to efficiency here lying in individual retentiveness and effective memorizing and drill. Without permanent memorizing there is no permanent definiteness, and without suggestive definition the greatest educational usefulness is impossible.

The results of experimentation now under way will lead course-of-study makers to add these specifiers, suggesters, or interconnection-makers to the

usual forms of definition, because they compel pupils to think habitually and carefully more surely than the temporary "problems" and incentives now popular in method teach them how to study. Preliminary to any determination of the relative worth of different details in all branches is the determination of the definite associations thru which each is given its highest educational usefulness.

9. Its definitely suggestive details, whether specific or general, must be suggestive for every form of mental training or control on which their usefulness depends. This is merely a more definite way of saying that all knowledge contained in the course of study must result in power or in "behavior" in the broad sense in which I understand Professor Thorndike to use the term when he writes me urging "a definition in the actual change of behavior to be brought about grade by grade." Nothing is educational that does not result in some form of control over future experience. Hence, no course of study is likely to be a means to efficiency of supervision that does not definitely indicate what subject-matter is to result in each form of mental training or control—in impression control that emotionalizes, in vocabulary control that merely identifies, in variation control that suggests growing and varying mental interconnection, in habit and system control which makes useful things sure, and in conditions favorable to the transfer control which makes the most general usefulness probable. No branch as a whole is essential to mental training. Each distinct form of mental training or control requires the selection and emphasis of quite different forms of subject-matter. Efficiency demands that the details included in the course of study from each branch shall definitely call for each form which it can usefully and economically develop: impression, in the sense of permanent interests and incentives, ideals, tastes, appreciations, and points of view; vocabulary, thru increasing the number of words in general, or particular kinds of words; variation, thru mental interconnection, either as the result of multiplying information and association in general, or of making particular ideas suggestive of variety in particular sorts of experience; habit and system, either in the sense of definitely associated essentials, or unvarying activities or complexes following an easily identified stimulus; transfer, thru the presentation of ideas in their most generally useful form, and in definite association with the conditions favorable to their application when identification is difficult, whether in the branch itself or in remoter fields of experience. The course of study that is truly educational must not specify mere facts, but rather controlling impressions, vocabulary and vocabulary-makers or suggesters, multiplied and varying associations and interconnection-makers or suggesters, habits and systems of habits, and the conditions favorable to transfer.

To illustrate—whether we follow the popular current and look only for social values in the teaching of history, or for the unique phases of general training that it alone can give, its contributions to each of the five forms

of control must be determined and assured thru the selection and emphasis of the material which definitely specifies or suggests it.

a) Great care should be taken that the right feelings, interests, opinions, admirations, realizations, ideals, and incentives should grow out of the life of the past thru making them the definite center for cumulative impression assured by emotional passages in history itself, and by the still more emotional appeal of literary masterpieces. Should it be left to chance whether it is Napoleon or democracy that the pupil idealizes, or whether the impression made by reading Tennyson's "Revenge" is hatred of the Spanish or pride in the Anglo-Saxon spirit? What characters should be emotionalized, which of their characteristics are most ideal, what incidents definitely point them out, and what material in history, biography, or literature surely suggests the emotion they should evoke? The efficient course of study will make right impressions strong and sure. Then each school subject should result in unique impressions that the course of study should specify. Only properly prescribed historical study, for example, can develop consciousness of historical cause and effect, realization of the necessity for adjustment to changing social, economic, or political conditions, and realization of human betterment as the result of civilization and Christianity.

b) Oversimplification must not prevent history from contributing the vocabulary which it alone affords, or which is earlier gained thru historical study. Era, reign, epoch, settlement, government, forefather, campaign, general, administration, reconstruction, tariff, etc., are examples of a multitude of terms that the study of history involves. The efficient course of study should not only include those readily understood and retained, but should see that each general term is associated with the suggesters or vocabulary-makers that make its suggestion and retention of other words more probable. The passage in "Marmion and Douglas" which begins, "Sir Marmion turned, great was his need," emotionalizes rowels, steed, warder, portcullis, and drawbridge, and makes it easier to remember them. Castle, definitely associated with parts and uses, can suggest turret, dungeon, keep, rampart, moat, etc., and the use to which each is put; ruler, associated with kings, duties, powers, ceremonials, can suggest an endless round of other terms, from "king," "emperor," and "duke," to "throne," "scepter," and the "royal touch." The course of study should specify for each subject taught the words easily retained, the passages that contain them in the form that makes retention most probable, the words that are the most useful centers for vocabulary building, and the vocabulary-makers or suggesters that should be memorized with them. Even in arithmetic, Troy weight, caret, gram, and pennyweight may be so presented that they are remembered as units of measure without any effort at memorizing the tables, and endowment policies and asset values are understood without a useless solving of problems.

c) The growing but varying interconnection of ideas should add to the mere identification insured by vocabulary the further suggestion, variation, and multiplication of associations insured by suggesters. For example, associated with war in definite sequence, cause, campaign, result, effect, will suggest different events for each war in history, especially if cause is associated with immediate, remote, or final, campaign with ground-gaining, destruction, or capture of an army, or cutting it off from its base of supplies, etc. In every branch the course of study should specify the general training and the suggesters which thru frequent recurrence lead to the greatest variety of new experience.

But varying interconnection is furthered, not only by general ideas, with their suggesters, but by interconnecting locations. Both constitute interconnection centers, but the suggesters are what should be definitely associated with an idea, and the locations what an idea should be associated with. The unique value of history and geography to interconnection, for example, lies in location and sequence in time and space. The course of study should specify for each essential fact the particular location, general, relative, or exact, which can suggest the greatest variety of associations for it. Rarely will this be an exact date or parallels of latitude and longitude. It is usually only the more general periods and localities that are rich in associations actual and probable.

Similarly, the course of study should specify the general logical sequences, or groups of ideas, in each academic subject, and the fields of experience, in which an essential idea should be located, with a view to furthering suggestion and variation. In biology, for example, the general sequence—evolution, origin of species, adaptation, survival of the fittest, and De Vries' variation or mutation, constitute such an interconnection location. Any course in "nature study" or "general science," from the standpoint of interconnection, should provide such centers as these in each fundamental science, adapted to the age of the learner. A college course that omits them, for the sake of "discipline" and intensive study, cannot be inclusively cultural.

The final interconnections and locations that should be specified are those phases of the learner's experience which are suggestive of the most recurring associations for the particular idea to be located. It is from this point of view that the maker of a course of study must determine whether otherwise isolated facts in elementary natural science, geography, and history shall be related to food and clothing, farm life, the city, or a reproduction of *Hiawatha* or *Robinson Crusoe*.

d) The course of study in history or in any other subject must prescribe the associations that are to be transformed thru drill and review into habit and system. If they are definitely prescribed, every subject becomes "disciplinary." If they are not, the so-called "disciplinary" subjects may compel the memorizing of an unnecessary amount of subject-matter, or the

repetition of specifically useless processes to form a few generally useful habits. Habitual associations should include: (1) the definite association of ideals with what will certainly emotionalize them, of vocabulary-builders or centers with mere suggesters of other words, and of the most useful general ideas and locations with suggesters of further information and experience; (2) the associations specifically most useful in themselves, and (3) the associations favorable to transfer.

e) The course of study in history, as in every other subject, contains details that are general in their application both within the field of history and outside of it—the habit of logical grouping, a moral quality, the ideal and habit of selection, thoroughness, etc. They must not only be specified as generally useful, but prescribed for development thru particular subject-matter and under conditions favorable to their transfer. By ordinary application I mean applications so apparent that they are matters of course; by transfer, applications in fields of experience or situations so different that they are hard to discover. The course of study is little likely to insure transfer that does not prescribe the material that makes it probable. Pupils may be led to idealize the patriotic self-sacrifice of a Revolutionary hero, but if it is to be carried over into their own experience as citizens it must be associated with present-day activities and their personal experience; they must look for similar instances in the lives of present-day citizens, seek applications in current events, etc.

These illustrations are not fully adequate for course of study-making, but they should make clear what is meant by a course of study that definitely suggests what is essential to each form of mental training or control.

10. It must adequately provide for every phase of the social aim that can be justly or effectively taught thru the school system or institution in which it is to be used. While the social aim has been variously outlined and exprest, it includes morality and religion, individual and public health, industrial efficiency, social service, good citizenship, and the enjoyment of social intercourse and individual leisure. After the exclusion of all classes of socially useful details that cannot be justly or effectively taught thru a particular course of study—such as sectarianism in a public school, or possibly sex hygiene in schools as wholes, as distinct from individuals and social groups—every course of study should adequately contribute to all phases of the social aim.

a) As social development is continuous, its direction and control should be continuous thru every stage and variety of instruction. An elementary course that confines the teaching of truthfulness to the second grade and honesty to the sixth, or a law school that fails to teach legal ethics and social service, is non-social.

b) Adequate provision for social training, however, does not involve the selection and emphasis of every socially useful detail that can be

included in the traditional school subjects regardless of relative values and to the exclusion or neglect of material that is generally useful. The current movement toward the social may readily enough interfere with general training without resulting in social efficiency. Indeed any interference with general training is in itself a menace to social efficiency. This statement needs to be put more concretely, or Dr. Snedden would not write: "Your calling attention especially to the morality and citizenship phases of the social aim is good, provided you state clearly, also, where in the same connection belong arithmetic, English speech, nature-study, etc." I mean not only that every academic subject makes social contribution, but that the individual who is not generally efficient is limited in his social efficiency.

c) Adequate social education demands the emphasis of all material that has unique social value, such as selected portions of sociology, civics, economics, domestic science, etc., and the designation, among various details and branches having a common usefulness for each social aim, of those that most effectively teach it at each stage of development. In this selection and emphasis it must not be forgotten that a fact may be social without being educationally useful.

d) The adequate teaching of any social aim involves facts only in so far as they insure the development of impressions, vocabulary, varying inter-connections, habits, and the conditions favorable to transfer. The omission of any one of the five controls, for any social end, may render its teaching inadequate. A "scientific temperance" instruction that consists solely of facts that may not become incentives to action is ineffective if it neglects the formation of ideals, tastes, and habits; while a hygiene that is taught thru school baths and school dentists, in the absence of conscious efforts to create conditions favorable to transfer, may not carry over to home environment.

This necessity for the inclusion of all forms of control to the adequate realization of each social aim throws certain subjects and activities into social prominence on account of unique or exceptional educational values that would not be involved in the teaching of mere facts. For example, literature is essential to the emotionalizing of ideals; and the organized social activities, which President Wilson used to call the side shows that distract attention from the main academic tent, become essential to personal habits involved in social service and social intercourse.

11. It must adequately provide, thru selected subject-matter, for each definite form of general training, instead of expecting it to result incidentally from the teaching of a few subjects as exhaustive wholes. General training, as distinct from specific and social, reduces itself to the development of permanent impressions and habits, more or less general in their application, plus the conditions essential or favorable to their transfer; and,

prominent among these conditions, generally useful vocabulary, and the varying interconnection of generally useful ideas. No branch as a whole gives general mental training, but only as its parts contribute to one or another of these definite forms. The effective course of study must specify each definite form of general training it means to exact from the prescribed parts or uses of every branch.

The important test here is not what branches are included to insure general training, but whether each of its forms is definitely assigned material, thru which its certain and economical development is required, and, in the case of generally useful ideals and habits, thru which the conditions favorable to transfer are insured. It is equally ineffective to assume that general training is incidental and matter-of-course, whether thru the inclusion of particular subjects as wholes, or thru the selection and emphasis of specifically useful material. But it is more effective to prescribe the traditional abstract subjects which uneconomically but certainly develop general useful ideals and habits—even tho under conditions that make their transfer less likely than if they are associated with more many-sided material—than a course so completely and unnecessarily socialized—in the specific sense—that general ideals and habits are forgotten.

12. While no course of study which adequately provides thru definitely suggestive details for each practicable phase of the social aim and each form of general training, can be regarded as inefficient, courses in which these definitely suggestive details are most many-sided, recurring, and strong in emotional or sensory appeal are of relatively greater efficiency. There can be no division of details into essential, optional, and impressionistic, without an attempt to estimate their relative worth. And, more or less consciously, course-of-study makers and textbook writers have recognized many-sidedness thru giving prominence to general terms and principles; recurrence thru including "the practical"; and emotional and sensational appeal thru emphasizing what is interesting. While it would be unjust to apply a scientific standard before it is generally accepted, and to condemn as inefficient the course that fails to meet it, it is just to point out that many-sided details that are not presented in the association that definitely suggests their most useful many-sidedness, recurring details that fail definitely to suggest what makes recurrence useful, and emotional details that do not definitely associate their emotional appeal with the thing that is to be usefully emotionalized, are not necessarily useful at all. For example, the British evacuation of Boston on the mounting of guns on Dorchester Heights is a potentially many-sided fact, but its many-sidedness is improbable if it is not associated with an army's surrender or retreat, when cut off from its base of supplies. Identification of river is a recurring experience, but not educationally useful if "river" fails to call definitely to mind such suggesters as scenery, fertilization, navigation, and power. The picture play, *The Making of a Nation*, is strongly emotional, but it may result in

race prejudice if it is not definitely associated with the need for impartial judges and just laws.

It is also just, even in courses that definitely distinguish between essentials, optionals, and impressives, to condemn as inefficient the memorizing of the relatively less useful, the impressive presentation of what is little useful or has little chance of survival, and failure to omit insignificant details that fail to concrete larger truths and can be displaced by what is relatively more useful. With the exceptions of details uniquely useful in the sense that nothing else can take their place, the apparent presence or absence of definitely suggestive many-sidedness, recurrence, and emotional appeal is an essential criterion for emphasis, inclusion, or omission.

13. The efficient course of study must have eliminated or rejected all details (1) antagonistic to any phase of the social aim, (2) useless to the majority of individuals except thru the specialist, and (3) incapable of efficient furtherance thru the particular system or institution concerned, or that have been adequately provided for elsewhere. The two social aims most likely to be antagonized in a course of study are morality and good citizenship—morality, especially in higher schools, thru literature or art that pleurably emotionalizes wrong characteristics, experiences, and ideals; and citizenship, thru failure definitely to guard against undemocratic ideals, viewpoints, and attitudes of mind in historical subject-matter, or definitely and emotionally to associate war with its horror and suffering, as a check upon militarism and a stimulus to preparedness.

Most courses of study, and especially textbooks, have failed fully to eliminate material useful only thru the specialist, a failure which usually takes the form of the study of particular branches as exhaustive elementary wholes at the expense of what is of relatively far greater educational usefulness in other subjects. In rejecting the material of specialization from the general course, however, care must be taken not to omit so much as to close the door to future specialization in any subject requiring years of habit formation as preparations for advanst work, and essential to a great variety of occupations. This applies with especial force to mathematics. The movement toward socialization, with its tendency to ignore all that is not immediately and specifically useful, must be carefully safeguarded from this extreme.

The same movement here and there is resulting in demands for phases of instruction that the school cannot effectively or economically provide. Absence of such provision—as class instruction in sex hygiene, or training in the care and nurture of infants—cannot be lookt upon as inefficiency.

14. The efficient course of study (1) must be organized from the standpoint of educational usefulness and relative educational worth; (2) must include the most useful parts, or selections from the most useful parts, of every branch in the earliest school grade for which their usefulness becomes immediate; and (3) must provide for the continual review of all definitely

associated essentials until they become a firmly memorized and an increasingly complex efficiency system. The immediate effect of the movement toward the socializing of the school course, adaptation to genetic and individual development, and the selection of the most useful details from a great variety of subjects, is disorganization. Familiar academic systems are being torn into fragments. But the cumulative result of definitely suggestive associations in the order of their educational usefulness, both specific and general, is a pedagogical system more complete, more complex, and more probable of retention and application than the most exact of special sciences.

Immediacy of usefulness, and not natural interest or readiness of development must determine the grade in which particular essentials are first introduced into the course of study. When definitely suggestive details suggest in a many-sided way ideas and experiences that are recurring in a particular school year, lack of natural interest and readier development later on must not prevent the most many-sided and recurring from being taught. Immediacy of usefulness must include, however, as early preparation as is necessary for what is of high immediate usefulness farther along the course, but no activities should be included merely because they are natural, nor material merely because it can be readily mastered.

Much academic or logical organization will be found to have either social or general usefulness, but mere logical outlines, however elaborate or systematic, have no educational usefulness in themselves. The test of organization is not the recollection of headings and subheadings, but the fact that a detail suggests the ideas on which its highest educational usefulness depends, and each suggested idea what is necessary to still further usefulness. It matters not at all how detailed and exactly organized a branch of knowledge may be, if its specifically useful facts fail to suggest similarly useful details in other branches, or its generally useful ideals and habits, the conditions favorable to their transfer. This test of organization is just alike to the course that sticks to the traditional subjects and to the course that is socialized, and can be applied with increasing complexity from grade to grade. If the product of any type of course is isolated facts, or outlines that suggest nothing and effect nothing, it is not educationally well organized. Obviously, the final test of organization is in the mind of the learner. But while an effectively organized course of study may be taught by such inefficient method that it is not effective for all learners, in the absence of an effectively organized course there is little likelihood of efficient organization in the minds of most teachers or of most pupils.

15. While the task of course-of-study-making will be greatly simplified when school textbooks more fully measure up to the standards discussed in this report, each suggested standard has been so qualified as to make it a just basis for judging all varieties of existing courses.

So qualified, general standards may be agreed to, which are capable of being applied in a great variety of textbooks—each with its ardent champions. All experts may agree upon standards such as these, yet each would write a different textbook or plan a different course. I none the less heartily agree with Dr. Snedden when he writes:

Would it not be a great deal better for men in your position, instead of giving so much attention to courses of study, to go to work and produce actual textbooks that would exemplify the details of what we have in view? I am thinking, of course, of a textbook as being chiefly a teachers' guide to what is to be taught in particular subjects, and I have always desired that this teachers' guide should be supplemented by a small booklet which would give specific recommendations as to method.

At least, tho unwilling to give less attention to courses of study, I agree with Professors Chamberlain and Suhrie that experts should apply their scientific conclusions in actual school texts. Historically, actual reform in course of study has usually been preceded by pioneer work on the part of school-book writer and publisher. Textbooks, already increasingly inclusive and selective, will soon become more definitely suggestive of the educational usefulness of their details. Some of them will surely be written by professors of research, and may even sell, if their writers are experts in teaching, supervision, finance, and textbook-making as well as in theory. Occasionally courses like the early Detroit course in hygiene will go further in reform, thru courageous local initiative, than can be expected thru textbooks seeking a general market.

One thing is clear. Agreement upon definite but adaptive standards for both textbooks and courses of study by representative experts in research, supervision, and textbook-making, would surely constitute what Mr. Elson has called in this report "a distinct forward step" toward both more efficient textbooks and courses of study.

RURAL EDUCATION

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Rural education bulks big in public thought and public discussion today. It is a problem of national as well as of state and local importance, of urban as well as of rural interest. Quantitatively it is 58.4 per cent of the whole educational problem in the nation; a much larger per cent of the problem in all distinctly agricultural states; and at least 80 per cent of the problem in the states known as the "Southern States." It is of vital interest to the city as well as to the country, because the country is vitally related to the well-being of the city. According to the evidence of past history and of present observation, the city is largely dependent upon the renewal of its population from the countryside for leadership in all lines of business, commercial and professional, for civic righteousness,

for spiritual guidance, and for the preservation and the perpetuation of the best in its civilization. Truly has Emerson said that if the cities were not reinforced from the fields, they would have rotted, exploded, and disappeared long ago. A reliable authority states that five-sixths of the ministers and six-sevenths of the college professors of this country were born and reared in the country; twenty-six of the twenty-seven presidents of the United States were country-born; three-fourths of the men in authority in our city churches and about the same percentage of the influential men of affairs, merchants, manufacturers, bankers, lawyers, were born and reared in the rural regions. From such evidence the supreme importance of this problem of rural education is apparent.

To make clear in the outset the viewpoint from which this subject will be discussed, let me submit for your consideration this simple definition of rural education: "Rural education is the education of country folks in the country, for the country." This definition includes the three things that, in my opinion, should be the determining factors in rural education: (1) rural education is primarily for country folks, and therefore should be adapted to the needs of country folks; (2) the purpose of rural education is primarily to educate country folks for the country, not for the towns; (3) the best place for the education of country folks for the country is the country itself, not the town. These seem to be self-evident truths, and yet in the rural education of the past, and in most of that of the present, they have been almost ignored.

The content of the course of instruction should be determined by the purpose of it. In rural education the purpose of instruction should be to prepare country folks to make the most, and to get the most, out of country life and country things for themselves and for others; to make life in the country as profitable, as comfortable, as healthful, as beautiful, as joyous as life anywhere, that country folks may love it more, and be more content to live it. The course of instruction, therefore, should be closely related to country life; should be adapted to the general and special needs of country people; should give a knowledge, an appreciation, and a mastery of country things and country environment.

The fundamental needs of country folks are, of course, the fundamental needs of humanity, namely, economic, social, spiritual; but the material, the opportunity, the means for supplying these are so different in the country from what they are in town and city, and the specific needs of country and city life are so different as to necessitate different courses of study, different types of school, differently trained teachers. The chief sources of wealth in the country, and, for that matter, in the world, are soil, plant, animal. The chief business of the country is farming, which deals with these. The economic needs of the country and of the world must be met by the wise and intelligent handling of these. The efficiency of farming depends upon a knowledge of them and the way to handle them most

intelligently and profitably. Yet such has been and is now the inefficiency of rural education that the farmers who live closest to these greatest sources of wealth often know least about them and get least out of them. The majority of these farmers do not get enough out of them to supply the bare necessities of the meagerest life, and have nothing left to contribute to the wealth of the community or to supply good schools, good churches, and other necessities for the intellectual, social, and spiritual needs of the community. Should not country boys be taught in country schools by teachers prepared to teach them the simple principles of the conservation, the fertilization, the tillage, and the drainage of soils, and their practical application; a knowledge of plants and plant life and their adaptation to soil and environment, how to grow them and how to handle them most profitably; of animals, how to feed them, how to care for them, how best to utilize them? Health, food, raiment, and shelter—these are the elemental needs of life. They are more easily supplied in the country than anywhere else, and yet, on the whole, more poorly supplied there. How much does the country teacher know about either? Should not sanitation, food selection and preparation, canning, sewing, dressmaking, millinery, home-making, and decoration have a place in the preparation of the country teacher, and in the curriculum of the country school for country girls? You may cry, "Back to the country! Stay on the farm!" but I declare to you that until you teach country boys in the country schools how to make money out of soil and plant and animal by better farming and better marketing, how to command in the country the modern conveniences of life, and how to break up its isolation and barrenness; until you teach the country girls in the country schools how to use the money to make country life and country homes as comfortable, as healthful, as beautiful, as attractive, as sociable, as life and homes anywhere else, your cry will be all in vain. Good houses, good churches, good schools, good roads, good vehicles, good clothes, modern conveniences, and all other things that reduce the drudgery, break up the isolation, add to the sociability, the comfort, the beauty, and attractiveness of country life, are costly—and the country boys must be taught in the country schools how to make money out of soil, plant, and animal; and the country girls must be taught how to use it in the making of country homes and for the enrichment of country life. For 95 per cent of these country boys and girls never see the inside of any other than the country school.

Rural education must minister not alone to the economic needs of country life thru bread-and-butter studies, thru vocational training for country life; it must supply the means for meeting its economic needs—but it must do more than this: It must also supply the means for meeting its social needs. The country school must be adequately equipt in building, grounds, and teachers, to be a social and recreational, as well as an intellectual and industrial, center for the country community, for the adults

as well as for the children. And the country teacher must be prepared for social and recreational leadership and instruction. It must never be forgotten that the making of men is more important than the making of money; that life is more than meat, and body more than raiment.

Finally, rural education, thru the country school, must be made to minister to the spiritual needs of the country people, and the country teacher must be prepared for this. I use this term, not in its restricted religious sense, but in its broadest sense, the esthetic, the imaginative, the emotional—in a word, all that is “likest God in man.” How reads the record? “God formed man of the dust of the ground and breathed into his nostrils the breath of life, and man became a living soul”—Spirit, the breath of God in man. God has revealed himself to man in three great books; the book of direct revelation the Bible; the book of humanity, God incarnate; and the book of nature, the Universe. “The heavens declare the glory of God and the firmament showeth his handiwork.” “God made the country, man made the town.” God first placed man in the country. The Garden of Eden has remained ever since the ideal home of man, ever since man has wandered thru the earth bearing in his heart a life-long hunger for it. God commanded man to dress and keep it. The country child and the country school are closest to this book of nature—in the heart of this heaven-ordained home of man. The country child, thru the country school, should be taught to dress and keep the garden, might be taught to transform it into a veritable Eden again. Instead, thru neglect of his education and training, he is allowed to grow up to kill the birds, to destroy the trees, to trample down the flowers, to waste the soil, to defile the streams, to mar the beauty of forest and field.

How many country children, how many country teachers, know even the names and uses of the commonest trees and plants and flowers, can even recognize the wild birds and their songs, know or feel aught of the miracle and the mystery of forest, field, and firmament? Oh, the pity of it! Oh, the folly of it! Oh, the tragedy of it! For the lack of teaching the majority of our country children pass from the cradle to the grave surrounded by this revelation of the glory and the beauty of God in his wonderful book of nature, with eyes that see not, with ears that hear not, with hearts that understand not. To them that book is sealed; to them the world is a dull and an ugly place. The infinite harmonies of earth and heaven, the very music of the spheres, if heard at all by them, are but discordant and commonplace noises.

My heart grows sick within me sometimes as I watch the little country child in the towns and cities rushing to the moving-picture show, seeking to satisfy his little famisht soul with these poor husks of imitation and artificiality, and I have thought: “Back there in the country whence you came, everyday from the rising of the sun unto the going down thereof, there

moves before your eyes God's great moving-picture show, its scenes shifted every moment by his own hands for the delectation of his children, and, in the midst of it all, you move every day with unseeing eye, with unkindled imagination, with unmoved heart." Sometimes I have watched these little ones wandering thru the artificiality of town and city, caught by the music of the brass band, with its toot of horns and rattle of drum, and I have thought: "Oh, hungry little souls, feeding upon this poor imitation of the melodies of God, while back yonder in the country whence you came, every morning at the rising of the sun, in spring and summer and autumn, and at the going down thereof, the earth is filled with the orchestra of the birds, the myriad-voiced music of nature; and you surrounded by these entrancing melodies of God, because untaught, hear them not, understand them not, enjoy them not." How long, oh! how long, before we shall teach these country children to understand and appreciate these mysteries and melodies of heaven and earth—to enter into their rich heritage? After all,

'Tis heaven alone that is given away,
'Tis only God may be had for the asking;
No price set on the lavish summer,
June may be had by the poorest comer.
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And what is so rare as a day in June?

For such rural education a new type of country school must be provided—a country school with house enough, land enough, teachers enough of the right sort, children enough, money enough, and equipment of every sort, to furnish cultural, occupational, and recreational training for country boys and girls at home; to fit them for more profitable, more comfortable, more efficient, more complete living in the country; to prepare them to make the most and to get the most out of all that is about them, and to put the most into the life around them; in short, a country school that shall be adequately equipt for adequately ministering to all the needs of the country people, and that shall become the social, intellectual, and industrial center of the whole community—the unifying, uplifting force in its life. In order to do its work, the country school must be made a permanent influence. At present the prevailing type of country school is a transient, unpermanent influence, because of a transient, shifting population, and of transient, shifting teachers. Statistics seem to indicate that about two-thirds of the teachers in the country schools teach not more than one year in the same school. Rural education of the right sort for any country community must, of necessity, be an organic growth of many years out of the life and needs of that community. Permanency and continuity thereof are absolutely essential to its success. To make the school a permanent, continuous influence, a permanent, or, at least, a long-tenured teaching force is necessary. The rural school of the new type, therefore,

like the Danish schools, must have its teacher's home, and its resident principal employed for life or during good behavior.

The new type of country teacher must have special training for her special work—training that will give her a knowledge of country things, country people, country needs; a sympathy with them, and a love and appreciation of them. Above all, the country teacher must have rural-mindedness, a sympathetic attitude of mind and soul toward country life and country things born of a scientific and practical knowledge of them, and of a love and an appreciation of them. Such a country teacher is beyond price. The virtue of rural-mindedness passes out of her into the children that touch the hem of her garment; and, tho they may forget many things that she taught, there will abide with them the "vision splendid" of the country and the country life that will never "fade into the light of common day," and they will never forget how their hearts burned within them as they walkt along the way with her in God's great out-of-doors.

Let the agencies for rural education cost what they may, they are cheap at any price. They will not come in one generation, for all the greatest things in civilization are of longest growth. This generation may be well content to sow in faith the seeds, assured that from them shall grow some day a finer flower and fruit than ever were before produced.

THE GREATER THRIFT

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I have chosen as the subject which I shall discuss tonight "The Greater Thrift." Your organization has undertaken to investigate the situation as it exists in America today with reference to the practices of thrift among the people, with the view of ultimately making recommendations along the lines of teaching thrift in our schools.

I think that, generally speaking, there is a misunderstanding as to the scope and purposes of the thrift movement in this country. The lack of understanding lies primarily in the fact that to the popular mind thrift means simply saving money. In striving to differentiate between mere money-saving and the practices of the greater thrift, I am reminded of the truth of an utterance by Benjamin Franklin, who said: "Learning, whether speculative or practical, is, in popular or mixt governments, the natural source of wealth and honor." The difference between mere money-saving and the greater thrift is learning—which, as Franklin declared, is the natural source of wealth and honor.

Education, taken in the sense of mental discipline, is the foundation of all wealth and all honor, national or individual, and it is only thru its processes that we can bridge the chasm between money-saving and the

greater thrift. Saving money is one of the foundation stones in the building of a thrifty character—but it is no more the sum total of thrift than one stone is the sum total in the foundation of a great house. A man may be a money-saver, and yet, if he dissipates or is immoral, he is not thrifty. A man may save money—yet if he works eighteen hours a day, to the detriment of his health, he is not thrifty. True thrift consists in the judicious use of all our mental, material, and physical resources, and when we merely save money, we have only gone part way. A miser is an undesirable citizen. What, pray, would be the fate of a nation of misers? The wheels of industry are turned by men and women who spend and employ their money wisely, and live sanely.

Perhaps I can more clearly indicate the point I have in mind at this time by telling you a story:

Last summer in San Francisco, while I was conducting the Thrift Congress held by the American Society for Thrift, a lady came to me and said: "Mr. Straus, you are preaching thrift, but do you personally practice what you preach?" And I replied by asking her if she referred to financial matters or to thrift in health, time, and energy. She said: "I notice you are living at an expensive hotel in this city—and that you are giving away money for essay contests and things of that sort. Now, you must either be a very rich man or a very extravagant one." And I said: "If I were a very rich man, or if I were a very poor man, and were spending any money unwisely, I would be extravagant; but if I spend what I can afford for worthy purposes which will result in good to myself and to others, I am not extravagant. Suppose we take a school teacher who is earning \$800 a year, and of this sum she saves \$400. Would you call her thrifty? Of course you would. Now, suppose this woman is promoted to a principalship and receives \$1200 a year, and spends \$600. Would you still call her thrifty?" "Yes," was the answer. "Now, suppose this woman is promoted to a superintendency," I continued, "and receives a salary of \$2500 a year, spending \$1250 and saving \$1250. You would still call her thrifty, altho she would now be spending over three times as much as she spent at first. Let us fancy now that she has become more ambitious, opens a private school, and earns \$10,000 a year. Would she be thrifty if she saved \$5000 and spent \$5000?" "Yes, she would," was the reply. "Now, let us presume that prosperity continues to smile on her and her school grows to the point where she is earning \$40,000 a year. With a changed environment, a broadened viewpoint, and wider opportunities, she is able to do much for her family, to donate to charities, and to live well on half her income, while the other half, \$20,000, she saves. Now, you will admit, will you not, that she is still thrifty, altho she is spending exactly fifty times as much money on herself, her family, and the community as she spent at first? But if this woman had continued to increase her income and had not increase the amount that she spent, so that when she was earning \$40,000 she was only spending \$400 a year, what would you call her then? Why, you would call her a miser, of course. Yet there was a time when she lived on \$400 a year and you called her thrifty. And as a miser she would be as useless and as undesirable in her citizenship as if she were a spendthrift."

The man who pays \$50,000 for a work of art, the product of the brain of a genius, and hangs it in his home, or donates it to an art gallery, is not thriftless or extravagant—altho many would believe that the advocacy of thrift is against such practices. The man who pays \$50,000 for a work of art places a glorious premium on genius and brains, giving impetus to

artistic progress, refinement, and civilization. In Chicago a man died recently, and left \$700,000 to the Orchestra Association of that city, to be used subsequently in the founding of a school for music the equal of any in the world. That man has given impetus to artistic development, he has exemplified the greater thrift. It is thru such deeds as these that the world progresses. The man who is penurious and tight-fisted is a dead weight to civilization. We who have the interests of the great thrift movement in America at heart must realize that one of our chief problems is to teach our fellow-men that merely putting money in a savings bank is not the sum total of thrift. The prudent use of money, and the practice of liberality where it could be afforded, have brought about the development of the arts and sciences, and the manifold blessings of civilization. Nothing ever has been accomplished solely thru selfishness and greed. Men who acquire wealth by merely piling one dollar on top of another are not good citizens in the broadest sense.

The man who adorns his home with expensive period furniture, with costly rugs, and who maintains beautiful grounds is, if he can actually afford these things, a benefactor, because he is rewarding skill and artistic accomplishment. The man who dines from costly china is a more useful citizen, if he can afford these things, than if he uses cheap crockery, because in the purchase of fine chinaware and costly linens he places a premium on the development of the applied arts.

The woman who buys fine gowns and fine hats, who employs a costly modiste, and who uses expensive fabrics in her gowns, is not thriftless, if she can well afford these things and lives up to the tenets I have heretofore stated in the true meaning of the greater thrift. She might purchase a suit or a gown that would cost \$20, and it would serve the purpose of the one for which she pays \$100, but the \$20 goes to unskilled labor and the sweat shop. On the other hand, the \$100 goes to skilled labor and to a designer whose work is art.

The French probably have had a keener understanding of the significance of the greater thrift than any other people, and they have been known for many generations as an exceedingly prosperous nation. They have done everything to encourage art and the industries that demand skilled labor and the employment of persons of education and refinement. That is why the average woman in America today thinks that anything, from a hatpin to an evening gown, if it comes from France, is a little better because of its origin.

There is a happy medium between extravagance and penuriousness. One of the evils of the day lies in the fact that many of us live far beyond our resources. Jealousy, social ambitions, business rivalry, personal egotism, false pride, all play their part in the strife and the stress and mad rush of the twentieth century. Many of our false economic conditions are due to this baneful tendency to overlive, to overspend, to overindulge,

and to overlay our part in life's daily round. On the other hand, we have those citizens who are cheap and tight-fisted in their habits, who are unwilling to reward their fellow-men for work well done. With them progress halts; they contribute little or nothing to the upbuilding of the things that are worth while. Midway between miserliness and extravagance lies the pathway of the greater thrift, and I say that it is in the better understanding of this fact and the application of it in our lives and in the lives of those around us, that we have a problem and an opportunity.

What is the "greater thrift"? It is constructive thrift; it is scientific thrift; it is liberal thrift; it is thrift that builds character. It is the thrift that comes thru education. It is the thrift that is the basis of all progress in art, in science, in business. It is the advancement of civilization accomplished thru the reward of education, morality, and industry. Summed up, the greater thrift is personal economics in its broadest sense, and, in a general way, the true art of living. This should be the spirit of the twentieth century.

Money-saving is but one link in the chain of a perfect character; economy is only a strand in the thread of thrift, and it is only thru the process of education that it can be developed. It cannot be taught in a haphazard manner. Thru our schools the practices of this great virtue must be introduced. We are teaching our boys and girls arithmetic, history, and geography. Our agricultural schools are teaching them to till the soil scientifically, and to develop the resources of the land thru education. We are teaching household economics. We are teaching morality and hygiene. We are teaching everything worth while but practical thrift; and I say to you, my friends, that we are neglecting one of the most important branches of education. If there is any merit in the greater thrift as I have pointed out, if he who practices the greater thrift is a valuable citizen, a benefit to his fellow-men, an encouragement to genius, an aid in the progress of civilization, then is it not worth while to look into this problem more carefully, and to discover how and by what means we may develop this virtue in our people? If there are a million citizens in America today who are practicing the greater thrift, and whose fellow-citizens are deriving the benefit therefrom thru their well-regulated lives, would it not be better if there were two million such citizens, or five millions, or one hundred millions?

These are simple facts. If every citizen in the United States today were familiar with and practiced the greater thrift, what a power of strength for good and righteousness and peace this glorious land of ours would be! We speak of wonderful America—and it is wonderful. Yet if we turn to the statistics on thrift in America we find our enthusiasm tempered; and we perforce wish that America were as wonderful a nation in the practices of thrift as it is in wealth and material resources. The last census of the United States gives the number of families occupying homes as 20,000,000. Of this number more than one half, 10,700,000, are renters. Of the 9,000,000

who live in their own homes, 6,000,000 are free from debt, and 3,000,000 are carrying mortgages. Some idea of the thriftlessness of the Americans, with all their opportunities, is gleaned from the last national census, which shows that of the 84,198 paupers in institutions, one-half were born in this country. The native-born number 44,254, the other 40,000 are composed of persons from foreign countries, who were handicapt by ignorance of our language and our working methods. Let us take the statistics dealing with the average American citizen. We will take one hundred men at the age of twenty-five. In 10 years we find that 5 have died, 10 have become of independent means, 10 are in good circumstances, 40 have moderate resources, and 35 have not improved at all. In another 10 years, at the age of forty-five, 11 more die, making a total of 16, and all but 3 of those who had anything have lost their accumulations; 3 have become wealthy, while 63 are working, and, while self-supporting, have no other resources, and 15 have ceast to become self-supporting. In another 10 years 4 more have died, making a total of 20 deaths, and 1 more has become wealthy; 3 others, at the age of fifty-five, have reacht good circumstances, but 1 of the 3 who was wealthy at the age of forty-five has lost his fortune, so that of the original 100 there are but 3 who now are independent or wealthy; 46 are still working for a living, and have no other resources; 28 become more or less dependent upon the charity of society, their children, or their relatives. In another 10 years 16 have died, making a total of 36 deaths. Of the remaining, at the age of sixty-five, 1 is very rich; 4 are wealthy; 1 of those who lost everything before he reacht the age of forty-five has regained his hold and has become wealthy; 6 are self-supporting, with no other resources, and the other 53 are dependent upon charity—not alto-gether public charity, but the kind indulgence of children and relatives. In another 10 years 63 of the original 100 have died, 60 of whom left no estates whatever; 2 of the 5 who were rich have lost their fortunes; the remaining 34, at the age of seventy-five, are dependent upon their children, or others charitably inclined. The records of the Surrogate Courts show that out of 100 men who die, 3 leave estates of \$10,000; 15 others leave estates from \$2000 to \$10,000; 82 of every 100 leave no income-producing estates at all. Thus out of every 100 widows only 18 are left in good or comfortable circumstances, while 47 are obliged to go to work, and 35 are left in absolute want.

I believe you will agree with me that a thoro appreciation of the greater thrift is a national necessity, and you members of the National Education Association, you school teachers, school principals, school superintendents, and college professors are the ones thru whom this must be accomplisht. It is only thru education that we can become a thrifty nation, and it is you, more than anyone else, who should understand and study the greater thrift, its economic value, and its importance to the industries, arts, and sciences. I am making a plea here tonight that the educators of this

nation take up this question, because here is a great opportunity and a great duty. If character-building and sensible living and thrift in its broadest sense are worth while, then why not lay the foundation aright, why not teach these things scientifically, as we teach farming, cooking, and all branches of education? Knowing these things, and understanding these things ourselves, are we doing our duty to our children and to posterity, if we fail to do that for which I am pleading tonight? You understand better than I can tell you the influence of the public schools and of the parochial and private schools. You understand that the nation of tomorrow will be no greater than the truth you are teaching your pupils today. You understand that the boys or girls who go out from your schoolroom into actual life with only a haphazard idea of frugality will without doubt never become frugal men nor frugal women. They will, in all likelihood, live haphazard lives, saving and spending alike, unwisely. But if they had been taught lessons in thrift, if there had been as much attention paid to teaching them personal economics as geography or any other one study, their equipment for practical life would have been much better. I think we are just beginning to understand these things, and the fact that your body now has a committee which is investigating the question of teaching thrift in our schools shows that we have become awakened to a realization of these necessities.

We cannot, in the schools or elsewhere, teach a boy how to make money. Making money is a knack. But if the boy is not endowed by nature as a money-maker, we can teach him to live a sensible life, to spend his earnings wisely, to the best advantage of himself, his family, and society. We can teach him thru the practices of thrift, good citizenship. On the other hand, the boy who is a natural money-maker will, in spite of everything, acquire wealth when he matures, and in his school days we can so mold his character that when he becomes a prosperous citizen he will employ his accumulations as a sacred trust, using them to the greatest good of himself and his fellow-man. We can teach him, by the examples of the lives of worthy and successful men, that it is more praiseworthy to succeed in good citizenship than to be a glorified butcher on a battlefield. From plow boys to captains of industry—how many great Americans have trod that path! How many of our citizens begin life with the handicap of poverty and gain the heights! Let the children learn that success does not mean only the winning of great political or industrial battles, or the slaughter of human beings, but that the men who build factories, banks, railroads, hospitals, art galleries, colleges, and churches do so because they have learned how to save and how to spend wisely, and have mastered the science of living.

A few weeks ago I received a letter from a western governor, who told me that a wealthy citizen of his state had written him regarding the advisability of endowing a chair for the teaching of thrift in an institution of higher learning. I believe that the time will come in America, my friends,

when the greater thrift will be taught in our colleges, universities, and academies. I believe this just as firmly as I believe that the time is near at hand when thrift will be taught in the primary classes, the grammar schools, and the high schools; and I believe, above all things, that thrift should be taught in our normal schools, so that our teachers will be especially well equipt to instruct their pupils in personal economics.

In one way only has the doctrine of the greater thrift influenst our curricula. I refer to thrift in human material. In past ages feeble or defective children were so much mere human wastage, to be thrown on the scrap heap. Two thousand years ago, the Spartans deliberately put to death children who seemed to be below the physical grade demanded by the code of that fiercely militaristic nation—abandoned them to the tender mercy of the storms and wild beasts in some rocky glen of the mountains. Today we conserve this human material. The declining figures of infant mortality show vividly our care for the less robust members of the race. Our schools for backward children, our asylums, our charitable homes take the human material that would have been thrown away as worthless a few centuries or even a few decades ago, and eventually turn the feeble, the backward, the subnormal child into a good citizen. Yet this is the only instance, with the exception of school savings banks, that I can find in which thrift in any of its aspects has even toucht our educational system of the twentieth century.

But whatever comes, the American of the future must be individually prepared. He must be strong in character; he must be frugal; he must be sensible. He must be able, not alone to save money, but to spend money wisely. He must be educated in the ways of correct living. And I trust that we, today, have in our hearts the steadfast purpose to add to the curriculum of our schools the broad principles of the greater thrift, of scientific character-building, of personal economics in their most comprehensive sense.

This is the patriotism of the greater thrift. This is the duty that the America of tomorrow is calling to us to perform. Let us not fail! Let us be loyal and true to the purposes of this republic, and let us feel that as this nation goes forward in its lofty mission that we shall be known thruout the world as a people which is moral and clean and right—which wastes not its substance in debauchery, nor saves to the point of miserliness—a nation of men and women who are happy in the peace and prosperity and joy that come to those who live the lives of the greater thrift.

NORMAL SCHOOL PREPARATION FOR THRIFT TEACHING

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In undertaking to discuss the teaching of thrift in the normal school, I assume that it is a practical, rather than a theoretical, motive that has led to the selection of this subject. On this assumption, then, I shall consider the practical difficulties to be met in introducing the subject into the normal-school curriculum, and suggest some possible ways of meeting these difficulties.

First, let it be understood that the normal-school curriculum is already greatly overcrowded. This is not only testified to by principals and teachers of normal schools who are in practical contact with the situation, but is proved by the recent changes in the normal-school curriculum designed to relieve the pressure. It is a simple, literal fact that the two-year normal-school curriculum designed to train teachers for the elementary schools is filled beyond the saturation point. During the last quarter of a century, we have added so many new subjects, and the development of the subjects themselves has been so great, that the normal-school student is now required to assimilate a mass of material that is excessive.

It would be interesting and perhaps pertinent to the present inquiry to discuss the question as to how relief is to be secured. The curriculum of the normal school, unlike the curriculum of the college, for instance, must, in the nature of the case, be affected by the curriculum of the elementary school which the normal-school graduates are preparing to enter as teachers. The overloading of the normal-school curriculum is directly due to the overloading of the elementary-school curriculum. We have been fondly hoping that the congested elementary-school curriculum was going to be relieved by elimination of unnecessary material; by closer correlation between subjects; and by new methods of teaching the new subjects, whereby the old would get in incidentally. In spite of the theoretical discussions on this topic, and the promises held out by enthusiastic advocates, the fact still remains that little relief has been found. Two different methods, therefore, have been adopted recently which give some promise of relief. One plan is frankly to disavow any attempt to give students an all-round training for the elementary school of eight grades, but to set up curricula which train them for either the kindergarten, the primary, or the grammar grades. Thus, by narrowing the scope of the training, it is hoped to get some relief. The other plan is to depart from the custom of requiring but two years for the normal-school course, and to add another year, making a three-year course. Theoretically this would be the desirable solution of the difficulty. There would be a gain of a year's study; increased maturity on the part of the students; a much needed increase of the time given to practice teaching under supervision; and other advantages from a scholastic point of view that cannot be developed here. Under unusually favorable conditions, this

scheme has been inaugurated in Boston and in Cincinnati. It would seem at times as if in other places conditions were ripe for the lengthening of the normal-school course. This will be brought about, however, under the pressure of the law of demand and supply. As long as there is a dearth of normal-school-trained teachers, it will be difficult to increase the years of study required for receiving a diploma. On the other hand, as salaries increase, and the tenure of office becomes more secure, and more teachers go into the profession for a life-work, we may naturally expect competition to lead candidates to seek and obtain a more extended training. The better trained, then, will have better opportunities to secure better positions, and it will be a relatively easy matter to lengthen the course to three and even four years. Furthermore, the recognition given to normal-school work by the great universities, taken together with the fact that graduation from college with a Bachelor's degree is coming to be one of the requirements for teachers in high schools, makes it easier to convince students that they should take the more extended training.

It is this situation that we must have in mind, therefore, as we think of taking up the question of teaching thrift to normal-school students. We naturally ask, Is there anything that can be eliminated? If we are to take the answer of the heads of departments now represented in the normal schools, the negative answer is the only one to be expected. The teachers of every subject represented in the curriculum are complaining that they have not sufficient time to do the work as it should be done. Then arises another question, Is it possible to find a legitimate place for the teaching of thrift within the time allotted to any of the subjects already represented in the curriculum? The answer to this can at best be only a hypothesis. Within the subjects, education, educational sociology, civics, and history, it would seem theoretically possible to find the proper place for considering this very important question. There are signs that indicate a growing consciousness on the part of educators that we shall have to find place in our elementary-school curriculum, and therefore, in our normal-school curriculum, for instruction in the actual processes and in the methods of control of our industrial, economic, and social life. The traditional American history, valuable as it was as a source of inspiration and patriotism, and civics, which has so long been a description of the structure rather than of the actual processes of government, are even now being transformed internally to meet the demands for a more vital connection with the actual everyday life.

If this new point of view finally gains the field, the teaching of thrift will fall into its natural place as being one of the virtues on which financial prosperity and power of the individual, as well as of the nation, are founded. If the teaching of thrift can come into its rightful place in such a plan for instruction, the result will be not only the spread of desirable knowledge among the pupils of the school, but it will serve to enlarge and vitalize the

social studies of the curriculum. If on the other hand, the normal-school course should be lengthened, there would inevitably be found a larger place for social studies, and the teaching of thrift would naturally find a place in this enlarged curriculum.

Passing from the question of the time and place for the teaching of the subject, let us discuss briefly some considerations that cannot be overlooked if any teaching on the subject of thrift is to have any real value. Teaching about thrift and teaching thrift are two fundamentally different things. We have not recognized this distinction in the older subjects of the school curriculum. The fundamental principle that knowledge must be translated into action may be regarded as the most fundamental factor in transforming our school practice in the last few decades, in laboratory science, in the school shop and school kitchen, in dramatization, in art. This principle is clearly recognized and made fundamental. It has not been so easy to work out a method of applying the same principle in history and the social studies. This is the great desideratum of the elementary and high-school curriculum. How can we impart standards of conduct when it is so difficult to provide suitable opportunity for putting the knowledge of these standards to a practical test? If we could answer this question, the problem of modern instruction in schools would be solved. Thrift is a matter of habit, and involves the use of a scale of values. Merely to understand this scale of values without applying it practically in determining conduct is a very abstract and meaningless performance. In the modern movement for improved teaching in some of the social studies, that of civics, for instance, we may find suggestion as to how to proceed. Those who are the leaders of the movement are experimenting successfully in the direction of selecting problems from the immediate social environment of the pupils, and are teaching the pupils how to proceed to solve these problems, and to get a check on the validity of their methods thru the practical results secured. Questions of public health, the proper care of the streets and alleys, obedience to city ordinances, and the like, are practical problems in civic life that are furnishing real opportunities for a new kind of civic training, which is teaching government, not about government. If we are going to teach thrift, we shall have to find some practical way of making the children's activities themselves the means of imparting knowledge about thrift and its results.

If this general point of view is accepted as sound, let us set forth, then, a possible program of thrift-teaching in the normal school. Such a program will involve, (1) a minimum of theory of economics, and (2) the use of the students' own contacts with economic problems.

In expressing a demand for the teaching of economic theory, I wish to emphasize again that our teaching must not be merely hortatory. There must be gathered a basis of economic fact within the range of the students' own interests and experience. The economic principles and ideas which

interpret these facts should constitute the theoretical element in the instruction. Methods of economic control, money, banking, investments, the function of capital in production, and other elements of economic theory should furnish the groundwork of ideas and the classification of motive that would justify such a course of instruction. Whether this instruction in theory should be given in a special course, or should be a part of the courses in history, sociology, and education, is a matter to be determined. But there is no question that the ideas involved in the modern economic interpretation of history, in setting forth the economic basis of social organization and the economic need and justification of industrial education, furnish a body of economic doctrine that would suffice for the purpose of teaching thrift and that should, on other accounts, be in the possession of every school teacher.

As to the students' own contacts with economic problems, it would be unnecessary as well as impossible to enumerate them all. As typical of the possibilities within the range of the subjects of the curriculum, we may mention home economics, with its emphasis on the relation of expenditure to income, the proper buying of food and clothing, the keeping of family accounts and the like, the cost-keeping and cost-reckoning practised in the work in industrial arts. As typical of the extra classroom activities that are at hand as a means of vital instruction, we may mention school gardens, with records kept of the earnings of the pupil-gardeners, the home-credit system, with its emphasis on the economic value of the work for which credit is given, the practice instituted by many schools of publishing an account of the earnings of pupils outside of school hours. Perhaps the most effective means of building up the habit of thrift is the school bank. Its effectiveness is due to two things: (1) it makes saving relatively easy by providing facilities for deposit; and (2) it brings social pressure to bear on the pupil by reason of the power of suggestion and emulation inherent in a movement accompanied by such publicity. Other opportunities are capable of use for this purpose. The subject of school resources is of vital interest to the community, the teacher, and indirectly to the pupil. The school as a financial enterprise on the part of the community is a topic capable of yielding both theoretical knowledge and practical motive. School entertainments which are cooperative enterprises for some specific good that the school community can understand and appreciate might well serve as a means of sound economic instruction. The care of school property, taken in connection with the subject of school resources, can be made a means of inculcating the habit of community thrift and individual responsibilities so sorely needed in America.

There is a timeliness in the discussion of teaching thrift that should not be overlooked. If we are wasteful in America it is because we have grown so as a people on account of our abundant natural resources and the relative ease with which, until recently, we have been able to make a living. Our

forefathers came to this country with the habits of thrift that European conditions had imposed on them. We have lost those habits because we have not been living under European conditions. As our population increases, and our natural resources in land, timber, coal, mines, etc., are either exhausted or appropriated, we begin to approximate to European conditions. The European war will perforce teach us many lessons. It is possible that the economic competition that will follow the end of hostilities will serve to emphasize in striking fashion the advantage that accrues to the man or nation that learns to eliminate waste. If no such economic pressure comes to bear upon us, we can still appeal to the real genius of the American mind by emphasizing the importance of thrift, not so much as a niggardly saving of a little money, but as the proved method of attaining financial and industrial power, with its consequent social good.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

CHARLES H. KEYES, PRESIDENT, SKIDMORE SCHOOL OF ARTS,
SARATOGA SPRINGS, N.Y.

The committee held its annual meeting in Detroit, and authorized as the work of the current year: (1) the printing of a small introductory edition of a second report of twenty-four pages on the health care of rural-school children; (2) the reproduction of the committee's health charts in pamphlet edition to be distributed as effectively as may be and if possible thru the Bureau of Education; (3) the reproduction in actual size of an edition of one hundred copies each of all, or some, of these charts to meet the demands which we are receiving in considerable and increasing numbers (the committee would hope to lend some sets of these charts in answer to requests for them, and to sell the sets or individual charts at cost in response to requests that may be received; it seems desirable that the committee should have sets to lend to state or county fairs and to other exhibits attended particularly by people from rural regions); and (4) to undertake when there may be sufficient funds made available for the purpose, under the auspices and supervision of the committee, a national investigation in ten or fifteen states of the health and welfare of teachers.

The second report of the committee, entitled "Health Requirements for Rural Schools," has been printed in an edition of 800,000 copies, and all but a small portion of these have been distributed by the United States Bureau of Education. The printing of 750,000 copies of this report was made possible by a generous gift of approximately \$3,000 from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund in Chicago. This report, from the evidence of many expressions received by the chairman of our committee, is exerting a very extensive influence for better health conditions in rural schools in many parts of the country.

The third report of the committee, a twenty-four page pamphlet, entitled "Health Essentials for Rural-School Children," is now in press and a preliminary edition, made possible by a small balance of the joint-committee budget of the year just closing, will be ready for distribution in the near future. The purpose of this report is: (1) to state the health conditions of rural-school children at the present time; (2) to propose and recommend the practical measures which seem necessary and possible for the health care of children in country schools; and (3) to report praiseworthy efforts which are now being made in a few instances to provide for health care of rural-school children, and which may result in giving to rural-school children at least as much health care as is provided for children in the cities. Commissioner Claxton, of the United States Bureau of Education, has already stated the desirability of having 400,000 copies of this last report provided to meet the needs of the whole country.

Our committee exhibit of twenty charts was installed in the Panama-Pacific Exposition with the exhibits of the United States Bureau of Education. These charts attracted much attention, particularly from the representatives of Japan and of South-American republics. A revised and enlarged chart exhibit of our committee was displayed at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Detroit. After further revision, selected charts from this exhibit are being reproduced, first in pamphlet form for general distribution, and, secondly, in full size for loan and for sale at cost. A large number of requests have been and are being received for sets of these charts.

The small balance of the joint-committee budget will provide only for the beginning of this program of reproducing and distributing the committee charts. The chairman of the committee is constantly receiving requests for committee reports and for information and advice relating to matter included reasonably within the general program of this committee.

With reference to its future program, the committee recommends as of great importance the following phases of health work in the field of education.

1. Experiments in, and demonstration of, improved health work in the schools (particularly in the rural schools) to which our committee has given special study and attention. Proposals for such experiments and demonstrations (particularly for improved health of rural-school children) have received cordial approval from leaders in the field of public health, education, and social service.

2. A comprehensive and authoritative study of physical conditions and characteristics of children for the purpose of establishing physical norms of child-development. Such standards would improve greatly the value and efficiency of health examinations and health supervision of children generally. All those who are engaged in work for children agree in endorsing a study and report of this kind.

3. A national investigation of the health and general welfare of teachers. The present study of health and welfare of teachers in New York State points convincingly to the need for a national study in this field.

4. A thoro investigation of the health effects of athletic games upon school pupils of various ages and of both sexes. Such an investigation is recognized as of great present importance by leaders in the medical field as well as by educators.

5. A study and report on health-teaching and training in the schools. Health-teaching is in a period of rapid and significant transition. An investigation of the work of the schools brings to light many valuable efforts in this field. A report in the near future which might authoritatively support the principles of sound health-teaching and make conveniently available information regarding some of the best efforts in this field would provide a valuable document for the guidance of teachers.

The support of the committee during the last four years has come from annual appropriations from the National Education Association, which have been duplicated by the American Medical Association. That great Association stands ready today to appropriate from their treasury for the coming year any sum up to \$3000, that shall be appropriated by the National Education Association for the use of this committee. We are asking that this Council recommend to the Board of Directors an appropriation of \$1000 for the support of the committee's work for the ensuing year. In this connection, I desire to call attention to the fact that no part of the funds appropriated in previous years to the committee has been expended for traveling or personal expenses of members of the committee; all such expenses have been cheerfully borne by the individual members. The same policy will be continued with any appropriation which may be granted for the ensuing year.

The committee desires to express its appreciation of the continued encouragement and help of United States Commissioner Claxton. We desire to record our high appreciation of the continued splendid support and cooperation which the American Medical Association has extended to this work thru its Council on Health and Public Instruction and thru the special cooperation of its members on the Committee on Health Problems.

This report cannot be closed without expression of the very deep feeling with which members of the committee learned of the sudden death of Henry B. Favill, who has been such a tower of strength. Dr. Favill was chairman of the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association, and has been considered in interest and by courtesy an active cooperative member of our joint committee. His death causes an irreparable loss to the country, removing as it does one of our most influential personalities, devoted unselfishly in spirit, and effectively in constructive action, to many vital interests in our national welfare.

DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—MARY B. FOX, dean of women, Chicago Kindergarten Institute..... Chicago, Ill.
Vice-President—ELLA C. ELDER, supervisor of kindergartens..... Buffalo, N.Y.
Secretary—FANNIE A. SMITH, principal, Smith-Froebel Training School.... Bridgeport, Conn.

FIRST SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The department was called to order by the president, in Concert Hall, Madison Square Garden, at 9:30 A.M., and the following program presented:

Topic: Educational Trend as Shown in Some Recent Experiments (with Lantern Illustrations)

"Relation of the Kindergarten and the Primary in the School of Childhood of the University of Pittsburgh"—Meredith Smith, School of Childhood, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Kindergartens of Yesterday and Tomorrow"—Patty S. Hill, head of Kindergarten Department, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"The Demonstration-Play School of the University of California"—Mrs. C. W. Hetherington, director of Play School, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

At the close of the meeting the chair appointed the following Committee on Nominations:

Luella A. Palmer, New York, N.Y., *Chairman*
Emily Pryor, S. Pasadena, Cal.
Lucy Wheelock, Boston, Mass.
May Murray, Springfield, Mass.
Pearl Johnson, Cleveland, Ohio

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 6, 1916

Reception and story-telling at 4:30 P.M. on Columbia University Campus, by local kindergartners of Greater New York.

Madam Kraus Boelté was presented as one of the oldest and most loved kindergartners; at one time a president of this department, and a member of the Association since 1873.

STORY-TELLERS

Mary Adair, Normal School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Marietta Stockard, Wilson Normal School, Washington, D.C.
Anna Tyler, Children's Department, Public Library, New York, N.Y.

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Department of Elementary Education, at 9:30 A.M. The following program was presented:

Topic: The Relation of the Kindergarten and Primary Grades

"The Educational Values Which the Child Carries Over from the Kindergarten into the Primary Grades"—Mary D. Hill, supervisor of kindergartens, Louisville, Ky.

"Should the Kindergartners and the Primary Teachers Teach an Equal Number of Hours and Receive the Same Pay?"—Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.

"Practical Means of Unifying the Work of the Kindergarten and the Primary Grades":

(1) "The Elementary Point of View"—Junius L. Meriam, professor of school supervision, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

(2) "The Kindergarten Point of View"—Luella A. Palmer, assistant director of kindergartens, New York, N.Y.

(3) Discussion—Thomas M. Balliet, dean, School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York, N.Y.

The papers will be found in the report of the Department of Elementary Education.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 7, 1916

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:30 P.M., and the following program presented:

Topic: The Arts in the Kindergarten

"Literature for the Kindergarten Child"—Marian P. Greene, Public Library, New York, N.Y. (An exhibit of books suitable for children of all ages was presented for inspection.)

"Art in the Kindergarten"—Grace Cornell, Fine Arts Department, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (An exhibit of work done by children and adult students was presented for inspection.)

"Evolution of the Dramatic Arts in Child Life"—Caroline Crawford, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. (Interpretative illustrations of the moods and feelings of the child were given by Miss Crawford.)

The following officers were elected on recommendation of the Nominating Committee:

President—Elizabeth A. Woodward, instructor, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N.Y.

Vice-President—Gail H. Calmerton, supervisor of primary instruction, Fort Wayne, Ind.

Secretary—Mary Hill, supervisor of kindergartens, Louisville, Ky.

A vote of thanks was given to the various committees which had made our sojourn in the city such a pleasant and profitable one, to the Press for its generous publication of the Proceedings, and to the officers for the pleasing and helpful program which has been an inspiration to those present.

FANNIE A. SMITH, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

RELATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY IN THE SCHOOL OF CHILDHOOD, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

MEREDITH SMITH, SCHOOL OF CHILDHOOD, UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH,
PITTSBURGH, PA.

With this question of relation of kindergarten and primary grades is bound up the problem of so correlating the work of both as to make the education of the early years a more consecutive process—one which eliminates the break in education at the period of promotion from kindergarten into the first grade. We all know that no marked change appears in the child of six years. He has the same impulses and tendencies and about the same capacities and powers as the child of five years. The same principles should determine and govern the education of both.

In our School of Childhood in the University of Pittsburgh, we have not considered particularly the problem of the relation of the work of one grade to that of another. We have been very deeply concerned with the problem of the relation of education in each particular grade to the child, his impulses, capacities, and needs. If the child is a growing, developing organism, and if the work of the school is adapted to his needs at each stage, his education, as he passes from one grade to the next, must follow a process of continuous development. The attempt has frequently been made to work out a solution to the problem of relationship from another standpoint. We have expected the teachers in the kindergarten and first grade to become acquainted with each other's work to the end that the primary teacher may carry over into the first grade valuable phases of kindergarten work, and that the kindergartner, recognizing the needs and demands of the primary school, may prepare her children to meet them.

The problem of psychology is here involved. Psychology is a comparatively recent science, and many believe we have made a mere beginning of the understanding of the human mind and its processes. But psychologists have told us enough about child nature to give us a basis, at least, for reconstruction of early education. We know children are essentially active beings; that the period of childhood is pre-eminently the time when they are interested in doing and making. It is the time when they are educated thru and by means of their activity. Kindergarteners have recognized these facts, and they have, as part of their equipment, a wide variety of materials, such as blocks, dolls, clay, sand, trains, hammers, nails, etc., which make many forms of activity possible. However, we cannot say that the use they have made of these has always been in accord with child nature. The kindergarten furniture is not stationary, so that floor space is available when needed. But the primary teacher is not so provided. She may have clay, possibly a sand table, pencils, and paints, and, of course, books. But this is, as a general thing, the limit of the material provided for her children. In such a situation, how can she adjust her work to the child's needs and capacities? In our attempt to work out a scheme of education adapted to child nature, we have found it necessary to equip our first grade with even more material and a wider variety of material than is provided for the younger children. They are older and they need more material to carry out their ideas. They have as much available floor space as the younger group, and they keep it nearly covered with their constructions most of the time. The absorption of the children in the work, their joy in it, and the results achieved lead us to feel that we are on the right track.

Another great handicap to the primary teacher in adjusting the education of the first school year to the children's needs is the absolute necessity imposed upon her to teach all the children to read before the end of the year. Reading has very little relevancy, it seems, to the activities of a child

of six years, or to his mental needs. Interest may be aroused in a more or less artificial way, but it is generally independent of other interests of child life. Someone will say very truly, "But children want to learn to read." The traditional idea that reading holds the key to enlargement and enrichment of life is past on to children. Learning is identified with acquiring ability to read, and children come into the primary grade eager to learn. So it was with our children. They did not care so much at first for the material, but asked for reading. It was enlightening to see the change of interest as the possibilities of the constructive occupations opened out before them. They became more and more absorbed in working out their ideas and had less and less time for reading and soon ceased to ask or care for it. The vision of a child, psychology tells us, is adapted essentially to seeing large, moving, and somewhat remote objects in the mass. They are warning us of the danger to the child of undue nervous strain consequent upon this effort at so early an age to make the fine and accurate adjustments of the eye necessary in following printed or written words. The age of eight years seems to be considered early enough for a child to give more than incidental attention to the written language forms.

The processes of production, transportation, consumption, etc., which are most significant in our social life, may be reproduced by children in a miniature way. In their spontaneous play they do this to a certain extent, but, as an educational agency with direction and proper management, it has possibilities that have not begun to be realized. Such reproductions played by the younger children are the simple activities of the home and immediate neighborhood, furnishing and caring for the playhouse, providing for the needs of the doll, buying and selling, visiting each other, etc. Our younger children are supplied with large blocks, five-inch cubes, and bricks $10 \times 5 \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ in. so that they may build stable houses large enough to live in, sometimes with roofs, often with walls only a foot or two high. In these they relive the life they see about them, assuming obligations and responsibilities in play that they are not afforded in real life. The experiences of the primary children are wider, and their constructive work is developed along the line of reproductions of city and country life. With development we find the objects made become smaller, allowing for greater complexity and detailed representation. Thus we have different sets of materials for these children.

In the work of the primary grades as well as that of the younger group, the children largely determine their own ends. There is guidance and suggestion, of course, but they are carrying the play on themselves. They suggest a great deal to each other. For example, one day some one said, "We ought to have a hospital," and a group of children took up the idea, erected a building and equipt it, making beds for the patients and tables on which were placed boxes of clay pills. They had a storeroom filled, it seemed to me, with everything that could be shipt there—barrels of apples,

oranges, etc.—Hailman beads—sacks of flour, meal, etc. As they were working on it, one of the children said, "We ought to have some place to buy beef tea and other things for the hospital." And in time a drug-store was built and equipt. Another day it was said, "We ought to have a fire department; these buildings might take fire." Two or three boys took up the suggestion, built the fire-engine house, with apartments upstairs for the firemen, constructed an engine, made ladders, and completed it, all just in time to put out an imaginary fire in one of the buildings. Later many of the children became interested in reproducing certain phases of country life. They built barns with a hayloft and a pulley and string to draw up the hay. They made bins for their corn and hauled it in wagons to the train, which carried it to the mill. Sacks of meal were then shipt from the mill to the grocery store in the town. These children all had broken bits of experience regarding farms, farm products, etc., and this play helpt to organize the knowledge they had, and enlarged and made more definite their conceptions. They went to their store one day, bought meal, and made corn-meal mush for luncheon.

In connection with these plays children should have the opportunity to enlarge their experiences by excursions to museums, parks, and public buildings, to every available place of industry, and to the country, or, if country children, to the city.

On the side of mental training, more distinctively, these children are acquiring control of the method of experimentation which, with certain regulations regarding observation and verification, is the method of science. It is the method by means of which human beings gain access to the new, the unknown. It is the method we all must use in any new or problematic situation if we are exercising control of experience, and if we are making adjustments in a thoughtful way. When analyzed, we find in all experimentation an element of inference. From something observed, something known or believed, an inference is formed regarding what will be or may be brought to pass. It is by means of this ability to look ahead, to anticipate possible results of action, that we gain control of experience and are not left to the mercy of the immediate, of habit, nor of instinct as an animal is. As we cannot be certain in advance that what we infer will come to pass, all inference and consequently all thinking involve risk. Training and experience are necessary to make inference accurate and reasonable.

If this is a method so significant in our modern life that progress is dependent upon it, and if training is necessary to make it trustworthy, would it not be the part of wisdom to expect education to make some provision for it, especially when it is a method children may become acquainted with and use? They are using it continually in their spontaneous activities, but before Dr. Dewey gave us his analysis of thinking we failed to recognize it. A child building a barn, when perhaps he has never seen one, infers from buildings he has seen that shelter for an animal would be of a certain

kind. As he works out his ideas and gets the consequences of his endeavors, he tests the reasonableness of his inferences and thus develops power of judgment.

If education has any influence at all, it will make a great difference in our social life whether children are trained in the attitude of passive, unquestioning acceptance of authoritative material, mastered by a process of memorization under conditions of external control, or whether they are trained to think and plan for themselves, in situations where they are receiving the natural consequences of success or failure which follow the execution of their ideas, and where knowledge acquired and skill developed in the process make it possible to conceive and execute ever more adequate ends. It seems a far cry from the education of a child to the development of democracy; but the analysis of the mental processes of child and adult, and the increased understanding of the educational value of play in all its phases, are giving us a new conception of the significance of childish occupations, not only for individual development, but for social and national progress as well.

KINDERGARTENS OF YESTERDAY AND TOMORROW

PATTY S. HILL, HEAD OF KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

While the kindergarten is the youngest member of the educational organization, it has now been in existence for three-quarters of a century, and has been an organic member of our public-school system in America sufficiently long to play its part in the history of education. The history of the kindergarten is worthy of study in so far as we may profit by its mistakes and make them the stepping-stones to kindergartens of a higher type for the children of today; while the radical reconstruction which the kindergarten is undergoing today is our sole guaranty for a future kindergarten far better than the best ones of the present time.

As we cast a retrospective glance over the kindergartens of yesterday, we can trace three distinct stages thru which they past. In the first period the kindergarten was far in advance of current education and was struggling to voice a superior message. The second period was one of arrested development, when the kindergarten fell in love with itself, and formalism threatened further development and progress. In the third period the kindergarten was torn by opposing factions within itself, one in favor of radical reconstruction, the other fearing the results of any attempts to improve upon the theory and practice of Froebel and his immediate followers.

No impartial judge can doubt the fact that during this first period the kindergarten was nearly a half-century ahead of its time. The struggle was a noble one—the battle of the new against the old, the modern against

the traditional, the superior against the inferior in educational thought and practice. Faulty as these kindergartens appear, when measured by our present-day knowledge and standards, they were so natural and so happy compared with the schools of that day, that the average teacher could not conceive of such activities as educative. The kindergartens of this period were based upon so much truer conceptions of the nature and needs of children, and the children were surrounded by so much more freedom, that they naturally developed into "misfits" when they entered upon the deadly régime of the elementary schools. The kindergarten suffered greatly from the demand made by the schools at this time. They looked upon the kindergarten solely as a place to prepare the children to enter the primary school. As the primary schools were devoted almost exclusively to a mechanical method of acquiring the three R's, had the kindergarten yielded to the criticisms made from above, its specific message and contribution to education would have been lost. While the enthusiasm of the kindergarten for Froebel's theory of self-activity, appealing to and based upon the instinct of play, was ill understood by the schools of the day, still, when the happy results on both children and teachers were observed, the primary school began to adopt the best the kindergarten had to offer. In this way the original order was reversed. The school grades above gradually adapted themselves to the new ideals in the lower grades, and in time the theory and practice of the primary school was transformed, and rivaled the kindergarten in its intelligent application of self-activity.

All would have gone well had the kindergarten continued to develop, following the spirit and outgrowing the letter of Froebel; but unfortunately, in this second epoch of our history the kindergarten became self-satisfied and consequently entered upon a stultifying period of arrested development. In the preceding period the kindergarten was in the lead; during the following one it fell behind. The cause of this is not difficult to trace. The era was that of genetic psychology and child-study, and when new data from these sources were offered the kindergarten, they were measured by those conceptions of the child past on from the days of Froebel; and when they ran contrary to these they were denounced and declined. This attitude arrested the development of the kindergarten for some ten or fifteen years, and had it continued, or been universal among kindergartens, the kindergarten would already have sunk into oblivion. Fortunately there are in every generation leavening elements—those who refuse to bend the knee to the god of custom or tradition. A few kindergartners timidly gave a listening ear from the very first, and grew bold as they were more and more convinced that the returns from the experts in child-study tallied with and illuminated their daily experience with little children. As this conviction demanded some renunciation and much modification of the kindergarten procedure of the day, decided difference of opinion arose and initiated the third period in the kindergartens—a period of struggle

from within, as one wing fought for the right to renounce much of the past or to alter and reconstruct radically in the light of the new psychology. This conviction grew rapidly and finally resulted in a widespread demand for progress which has emancipated the kindergarten from slavery to the traditions of a half-century ago.

But what may be said about the kindergartens of the present? Are they the blind worshipers of Froebel, as they are frequently accused of being? Are they isolated from other educators and falling behind the times? Most decidedly, no! It must be granted that kindergartners may be found here and there who still belong to the primitive period, but they are diminishing rapidly and are losing the race. On the other hand, it can truthfully be said that kindergartners as a body are thoroly awakened to the demand for progress and reconstruction. They are an open-minded, developing body of teachers, eagerly searching for ways and means of bettering their best. A survey of teachers studying now would, it is believed, find as large or a larger number of kindergartners in proportion to the kindergartners as a whole than of any other body of teachers. It must also be acknowledged to our credit that the proportion of kindergartners studying primary work is far greater than the number of primary teachers studying kindergarten work. There should be no separation between the two. The kindergartens and primaries of tomorrow will be taught by teachers thoroly trained in the psychology and educational procedure for the period from four to eight; but in the meantime all teachers trained separately should familiarize themselves with both fields; and kindergartners are actively preparing themselves along both lines.

Experimental kindergartens are springing up here and there, with kindergartners leading who are absolutely free from any desire to cling to Froebel, or to prove him superior to his critics. These experimental kindergartens have but one aim, namely, to discover what is best for the child at this period, be it kindergarten, Montessori, or whatnot. The experimental kindergartens are permeated with the spirit of service. They are eagerly endeavoring to discover the native tendencies of the child at this period of life, and the most developing materials for these instincts and impulses to feed upon. They are trying out many new materials and methods, and are eager to have their results put to the test, so that all false claims of value may be eliminated and all worthy ones verified. It is actuality, not conjecture, which we must face. It is the period, not the system, we are striving to protect and enrich. Many of us are more than willing to forswear both the name and the system when better ones are found. We believe this period is rich with possibilities for the child and the race, and we believe that it is one which will prove worthy of all the best that civilization can offer in environment and equipment at any cost to the community. But in order to secure these advantages for little children, we must prove that the investment of the best is not only worthy, but a good

investment from the economic point of view. As J. J. Findlay, professor of education in Manchester University, says: "The chief reason why governments support education is because the investment is sound." The results must be proved actual, not potential only. If we claim development in initiative, in self-control, self-dependence, ability to solve problems independently, habits and acquirements which carry over into the schools, the home, and society, we must invite investigation of our claims. Better tests and investigators must be found or made if need be. So far neither the tests nor the investigators seem to be such as will get at the best that the kindergarten legitimately has to offer in results.

We need a new curriculum of stories, songs, games, and materials which will hold the child at the kindergarten period with the minimum of coercion and persuasion from the teacher. The test of worth in these should be their actual holding power under conditions of freedom. The test will not be the teacher's ability to hold the child to the material, the story, the game, or the problem in hand, but to cause these to present an appeal to the child as his own, whether the teacher is present or absent. Can the teacher leave the individual or the group with any assurance that activities will continue to hold when she withdraws her authority, her influence, and her personality?

It seems safe to prophesy that one of the greatest assets in the kindergarten of tomorrow will be health. The kindergartners of the future must be so convinced of the priority of health over all other demands at the kindergarten period that they will educate the boards of education, the parents, and superintendents to the fact that they should not crowd little children into small, dark, ill-ventilated rooms; that they should not increase the number of little children to the teacher in order to add to the educational resources of the older pupils who are mature enough to protect themselves by protest or request; that the child at this period must have the largest space possible for exercise and air, the greatest amount of light, and the cleanest and most dust-proof quarters it is possible to procure. The child must not lose ground when he enters school, as at present. It is not sufficient even that he hold his own. He must add to his capital in weight, height, vitality, and resistance to all of those cruel diseases to which he is so peculiarly susceptible at this period.

We will now turn to the stereoptican, hoping to give some convincing proofs of the immense progress made by the kindergartens of today over those of yesterday, urging all who are interested in the protection and welfare of helpless little children to unite with us in protecting them from all evil influences on mind and body at this impressionable age. We invite the cooperation of parents, boards of education, superintendents, physicians, psychologists, and sociologists in our effort to make this period of childhood yield the richest output for the child and the race. Truly should it be said hereafter of every child in future kindergartens, "He grew in wisdom and stature and in favor with God and man."

*THE DEMONSTRATION-PLAY SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY
OF CALIFORNIA*

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The Play School was organized under the Department of Education of the summer session of the University of California in 1913. The demonstration was conducted during the summers of 1913, 1914, and 1915, culminating during the Exposition year, 1915.

Our schoolhouse consisted of about three acres of ground covered with fine old oak and eucalyptus trees. The little equipment we used was, in general, of the crudest character, consisting of tables quickly thrown together by the carpenters of the university, a large platform for the rhythmic and musical activities, large sand boxes, quantities of large blocks and boxes, and about two dozen blackboards nailed against the huge eucalyptus trees which group themselves obligingly close together. The work benches for the manual activities were constructed of heavy boards also nailed securely to the eucalyptus trees. Nearly all the books and tools were borrowed from the university and the city public schools. Large boxes fastened with padlocks served as storage cases for the tools and working materials. Water was piped to the grounds for drinking and toilet purposes as well as for the animals which the children used in their animal experimentation. Pianos were rented for the rhythmic and musical activities, and vocophones were purchased for the band. In the pictures which I shall show later you will see the band in operation. Near-by the Agricultural Department furnished a plot of ground for experiments with plant life. All of the activities were conducted outdoors, but the outdoor feature, while important, is not an essential one in the play-school plan.

The play school is a demonstration of a school organization covering the child's whole active life thru the 365 days of the year from birth to established adolescence. The organization is based on a present-day interpretation of child nature and its institutional control and direction to meet the conditions of modern social life.

If we consider child nature and child education broadly thru all stages and conditions of human development, there are two conspicuous outstanding phenomena: (1) the child's spontaneous active life or play, with its evolved forms; and (2) the child's dependence, complemented by parental instincts for protection and control with their evolved institutional forms. In considering the organization of the child's education, the points of view presented by these two conspicuous but complementary phenomena have equal weight.

The child is a bundle of hungers and instinct tendencies, and in these hungers and instincts are found the fundamental springs of all his conduct. He acts spontaneously because he is driven from within. He is spontaneously a manipulator of things and of ideas. He is spontaneously

linguistic and talks until he can express what he thinks and feels. He is spontaneously social and enters into social relationships. He is spontaneously suggestible and educable; he is a follower, an imitator, craving leadership and instruction in ways of acting that will satisfy his hungers and give him adjustment.

Now, this spontaneous and expanding expression of energy (impelled as it is from within by the power of hungers) is play. Thus you see that play is not the popular "just play" nor the schoolman's "mere play," but is identical with the child's spontaneous living.

In this expanding play life the child develops all his powers for response. Among other things he learns to work. We emphasize play, but the child must learn to work; for his needs—supplied in early life by parents—he must later satisfy thru work. Moreover, if he is to become an efficient social being, he must learn to perform duties that frequently are not pleasant, and his later social adjustment will be flexible and complete in proportion as he masters the essential culture of the race. The ability to satisfy needs, to perform onerous duties, demands the capacity for long-sustained volitional effort under the control of an idea of need or duty.

Play activities frequently take forms that are not efficient from the adult or educational standpoint, owing to lack of leadership; and it is this aspect of play that the educator thinks of when he rebels against it. Leadership is as necessary in play as in work. To identify the child's play with fooling, or futility, only shows a twisted understanding of child nature that is a very subtle survival of mediaevalism in modern educational thought. One sees this attitude exhibited so often by our educators when play is even suggested as an educational force in the life of the child. They fairly shrink away and tremble at the thought. During the play-school demonstration this attitude was often displayed by teachers. A woman teacher of perhaps fifty-five years, after a short period of observation, said to me one day: "Well, you may call this teaching, but I don't believe you can teach children anything unless you put them into seats and make them study their books. I believe in discipline." She could understand neither the method nor the organization of the play school. Contrast this attitude with that of a well-known professor of biology from another university, who, after observing the groups of children in their various activities, said at a public gathering on the evening of that day:

I walkt about the play-school grounds this morning and it is hard for me yet to say that I have not been dreaming. All my life I have dreamed of a school organization that would allow children to live and develop normally while they are being instructed in the arts that man has developot. I could only dream, because I couldn't get far enough away from our traditional school organization to see how my ideal could be accomplisht. But I saw it this morning—my life-dream realized.

Play is a better developer of the capacity to work than work itself, because of the emotional content in play. Play is more intense, more

varied, and of greater duration because of the sustaining power of enthusiasm which postpones the onset of fatigue and reduces the consciousness of effort. Enthusiasm is the very spirit of healthy childhood. It carries the burden of sustained volitional effort until the capacity for sustained effort is established as a habit. Play, therefore, is a better developer than work, of the whole work mechanism. It develops organic vitality, nervous energy and skill, interests, volitional attention, and enthusiasm together as a unified and efficient working-whole. Work is less effective because enthusiasm is lacking, and enthusiasm is necessary in the development of volitional capacity.

The capacity to work, therefore, is best developed in the child's natural life or play. It is developed only in a negative way when the child sits still and does things foreign to its nature in obedience to the command of adults. The capacity to work from its simplest to its highest form is acquired most efficiently by living out in activity, broadly and intensely, the instinct hungers of each age period. By realizing a progressive series of aims in play, the child learns how to work and how to achieve life through work. This is the law of child progress.

But no aims can ever be accomplished without leadership. The child must have leadership if his activities are to be satisfying or educationally efficient. So in the play school we shifted the emphasis in our organization from subjects of study, that are selected products of racial achievement, to the organization of the child's own spontaneous active life; from the attitude of teaching primarily to that of leading.

Thus it seems that the natural, the most economical, the most effective method of educating the child is to organize his natural, spontaneous activities—his play life—and to bring all the resources of the adult into the leading, the guidance, and the discipline of these activities.

At the present time there are three classes of institutions that control the child's active life: the home, the school, and the play centers or playgrounds. In the past the home was the center of life and experience. The majority of homes were not only the centers of family life, but industrial and social centers as well, furnishing large opportunity for the child to see and participate in all the essential human activities. The factory took from the home both the industrial occupation and the machinery of manufacture, with all their stimulus and opportunity for child activity. Hence the function and the size of the home have contracted. Moreover, the size of the family has decreased, leaving children not only without generous opportunities for activity, but without even the stimulus of an adequate character-building companionship. Parents are helpless in their efforts to supply the leadership needed. So, instead of the home and its immediate environment supplying practically all the opportunities for the child's activities, these must be furnished by the school and the playground. The school has absorbed an increasing amount of the child's time, but it has not, except

in a very limited way, attempted to supply what has been eliminated from child life by modern social changes. The public playground has come in to help fill the need for educational activity and experience otherwise limited by a physical environment that is unnatural, and a social one that is complex and specialized.

The playground, if properly equipt and directed, not only furnishes many of the opportunities for activity which have been squeezed out of the home, but it also furnishes leadership. As the home approaches the apartment type and the family the one-child type under the pressure of modern socialized conditions, the relative importance of the play center and the school increases.

In this new social situation child welfare requires a new spirit and a new organization of the school and of the playground. Both are extra-home institutional centers of child life, and both exhibit the inefficiency of an incomplete organization of child life. As the playground is a center of life and education organized from the child's standpoint, and the school is a center of child experience and education organized from society's standpoint, the two institutions should be combined to unite the two points of view and to unify the child's educational experience. It is not sufficient that a playground space be added to the school nor that a group of manual or other activities be added to the games of the playground. The play center and the school center must become one in spirit, aim, and organization.

Thus the play school purposes to organize the child's whole active life. It is a single extra-home educational center in which the child's spontaneous, natural activities are organized; and, by means of leadership, all the essential culture of the race is loopt up to these natural activities.

The organization of the child's whole active life requires a classification of his activities for administrative purposes. The classification must include all the natural phases of his complete living, and the activities when organized must be as natural as when unorganized. The difference consists in the educational results which are possible thru organization. When these activities are thus organized they furnish a progressive curriculum that is as easily administered as a subject-of-study curriculum, and it includes everything that the latter includes and more.

The following classification of activities gives the divisions of the child's whole active life. It provides for the development of all powers, feeds all the native hungers, and will evolve naturally into the racial forms of adjustment.

1. Vocal and linguistic activities
2. Social activities
3. Environmental and nature activities
4. Rhythmic and musical activities

5. The manipulating and manual activities
6. Big muscle activities
7. Economic activities

1. The linguistic activities arise from the vocalizing and communicative instincts. These instincts are the primary elements in the evolution of the languages and the literatures of the world. The linguistic activities are naturally associated with each group of activities, and develop in questions and discussions, or in organized intercommunication. This is especially important in the environment and nature activities. Under this class the mechanics of reading, the mechanics of number, and foreign languages develop, and are used as tools in intercommunication.

2. The social activities arise from the social instincts. These tendencies in human nature have created society. In his social activities the child develops his social habits and ideals, and his fundamental sex and civic consciousness, as well as the art expressions of these adjustments. The miscellaneous social contacts of the school and the social life of the several activities are unified in the special social hours of song, exhibits, discussion, dancing, dramatics, etc. In these activities are centered the spirit of the school.

3. The environmental and nature activities arise from the investigating and interpreting tendencies. They include all environmental exploration and all experimentation with the physical, biological, and social environment. Racially, these activities have discovered continents and produced science and philosophy. In the child they are the source of experience with, and information about, the environment and life. They include geography, history, and all science.

4. The rhythmic and musical activities arise out of vocal and manual experimentation, and the pleasures derived from rhythm, tone, and melody. In the race these tendencies have produced the musical arts of man. In the child they are the source of a developed capacity to enter into the most influential art-expression and form of community social recreative life.

5. The manual activities arise from the manipulating and constructive tendencies and needs. Racially they are conspicuous in all survival efforts. They have produced the vast range of industrial enterprises and the graphic art of man. In the child they develop the constructive powers. They are the direct avenues to industrial skill, adaptability, and economic adjustment.

6. The big muscle activities arise from the primary hungers for activity and the instincts controlling locomotor adjustments to the environment. Thus they include spontaneous hiking, playful gymnastics, dancing, vigorous games, and athletics. In the history of the race these activities have been the great socializers and primary sources of many fundamental art-expressions. In the child they are the sources of organic vigor and general nervous power. While regarded usually as mere muscular exercise, these

activities carry the discipline of racially old instincts, and are therefore fundamental in their influence on character-development.

7. The economic activities arise out of the acquisitive impulse and economic needs. The organized leadership of these activities ranges from incidental money-making to vocational training and guidance.

Now, if this analysis of activities is correct, we have a natural grouping of the child's activities susceptible of practical organization and administration for efficient educational results.

Thus the play school is a demonstration of a school organization—a larger school and play center, that fuses the child's play life with his need for instruction and society's demand that he be instructed. It is adapted to meet the needs of the child and the demands of society arising from changes in the home caused chiefly by the introduction of modern machinery. The functions of the school and the play centers are fused, educationally fused, so that we have one extra-home institutional center in which, thru leadership, the child can satisfy all his spontaneous growth hungers and play enthusiasms.

LITERATURE FOR THE KINDERGARTEN CHILD

MARIAN P. GREENE, PUBLIC LIBRARY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It is more than a hundred years since Froebel taught the world that children need play to help them in learning to work. The kindergarten embodies principles that have come to stay, and Froebelian methods are now introduced in every grade and in every school, from the baby class, just entering, straight on thru college.

The modern teacher is so accustomed to the idea of "learning by doing" that she does not often stop to think that there ever was any other way. Play—"healthful play"—has come to be generally accepted as a factor for good. The very foundations of a love for literature are laid by play and at an extremely early age. It is thru the real, old-fashioned "Mother Goose," for instance, that we teach poetry; for rhymes and jingles are poetry in its simplest form, and are invaluable aids in developing a sense of rhythm in the child which may train its ear, in later years, to catch the throbbing beauty and music of real poetry.

Few, if any, children are born utterly prosy. Very often a child who is full of imaginative poesy loses this quality as the years go on. To be kept alive, our powers must be exercised constantly, and grown people are too much inclined to forget that poetry is language at its highest power, and consequently they neglect to give it to children at the age when they would accept it without question to be enjoyed and understood like any other form of story. The love of literature is not a thing to be forst upon us at this age or that. It must just grow, simply and unconsciously. A tiny

child invariably responds to rhythm. There is hardly an English or American home where "Pat-a-cake, pat-a-cake" has not brought a smile to some baby face, and the babies of Germany, France, Italy—every country of the world—have their own rhymes and jingles, constituting a literature of the nursery that is common to all nations. In my own childhood poetry was read aloud to us almost as much as prose, and tho a great deal of it went over our heads, we loved the music of the words and the beauty of poetic description. In those days our elders had to hunt about for poems that were suitable for childish ears, whereas we now have such collections for little children as Kate Douglas Wiggin's *Posy Ring*, Thachers' *Listening Child*, Lucas' *Book of Verse for Children*, Burton E. Stevenson's *Home Book of Verse*, and other delightful anthologies.

The child loves first anything rhythmic, whether it is understood or not. We all remember the charm of mystic words which meant nothing, but nevertheless delighted us by the mere sound. All children sing words that have absolutely no meaning; the sound alone, apparently, is all they care about. Soon, however, words begin to have the value of pictures. Any five-year-old who cares for fairy stories would be sure to love such a description, for instance, as that of the tiny warrior, the "Culprit Fay."

He put his acorn helmet on;
It was plumed with the silk of the thistle-down;
The corselet plate that guarded his breast
Was once the wild bee's golden vest;
His cloak, of a thousand mingled dyes,
Was formed of the wings of butterflies;
His shield was the shell of a ladybug queen,
Studs of gold on a ground of green;
And the quivering lance which he brandisht bright
Was the sting of a wasp he had slain in a fight.

We may, therefore, safely include simple poetry in the literature for children under six. Among the minor poets who have given us stories in rhyme are Jane and Ann Taylor, who chose their subjects from the daily life of normal children, described them in language that children use and understand, and also imagined them much as a child would have done. Alice and Phoebe Cary wrote in the same style; but Phoebe, at least, had more charm and wit. The "Crow's Children," "That Calf," and the "Chicken's Mistake," among others, are thoroly clever and entertaining.

We have, however, real poetry, written by a true poet, when we read the *Songs of Innocence* of William Blake, poet, dreamer, philosopher, as well as painter and engraver. Tho written long ago—he died in 1827—his poetry for children is so full of tender charm that it will appeal to childish hearts forever. Many passages from the Bible, tho written in the form of prose, are really poetry of the purest type. Read the Songs of Solomon, or the Psalms, and try to think of anything more poetically beautiful. Since I have spoken of the Bible, it seems natural to discuss the telling of Bible

stories to the child of kindergarten age. Personally, I believe that Bible stories are better left to the child over six. Many disagree with me, and I must leave the matter to your own judgment. I feel that the very small child gets nothing more from these stories than from fairy tales, and I am not satisfied with any of the rewritten versions of the Old Testament stories that have come to my notice. The very titles of some of these collections excite my prejudice. *Truly Stories from the Surely Bible* was the name of one that appeared this year. I am narrow-minded enough to decide from the title alone that I do not like it!

By training the child's ear, thru poetry, we develop in him that most important thing, a feeling for English. Just as necessary is it to train his eye, by presenting to him correct form and harmonious color in the many delightful picture-books that are now available. In the picture-books of today we find everything that the child needs to satisfy his inherent love of color, his awakening imagination, and his developing sense of humor. This last is a precious thing to encourage, but why should vulgarity so often be mistaken for fun? The "Charlie Chaplin" variety of humor is cheap and degrading, yet that is the kind widely exploited by the newspaper supplements and the moving-picture films. When I saw the spectacle of twenty-five little children drest as "Charlie Chaplins," marching in a "Baby Parade," drunkenly staggering and stumbling in piteous imitation of that hero of the "movie" world, my heart was sick within me. We can, at least, offer an antidote to these pictures and to the comic supplement in presenting to the children picture-books provided for them by the best-known artists and illustrators of Europe and our own country. Leslie Brooke's *Three Little Pigs*, for example, is full of clever fun. Kate Greenaway will always be beloved by children. Her very name brings sunny memories of green fields, neat village streets, with bright-colored roofs and gay, blooming gardens, where rather sedate little boys and girls roll hoops, skip rope, pick flowers, or walk peacefully, hand in hand. Nothing is violent, everything is cheerful.

New York with its humor, its tragedy, its gaiety, and sordidness, has been rightly termed "the greatest melting pot of the world." Here Jew and Gentile, every nationality and every type, are all in a great process of amalgamation. How are we to reach them all? How help? The best and biggest answer is, "Thru the children." Picture-books and fairy tales are the first means by which we win the interest of the little strangers within our gates, and, thru them the interest of the older members of the family. Much informal work has been done with picture-books, and for about ten years some libraries have made it a practice to hold picture-book story hours for kindergarten classes with markt success. A little girl in the kindergarten for cripples told her first coherent story after one of these visits. Thus, thru interest in the subject, is the desire for expression aroused and stimulated.

There have been story hours for foreign children in the German, Italian, and Bohemian languages, and at the Seward Park, branch mother's meetings have been held in Yiddish. Tho those who come to the story hour are older than the kindergarten child, they retell the stories to younger brothers and sisters and even to the parents. One little girl in my own branch had a regular story hour for the little ones in her neighborhood, at which she told stories read or heard in the library. "I listen very hard and try to do it just as you do," said Bessie, as she told me of her "club," "and when I grow up I am going to be a 'liberry' teacher too."

And now we come to the literature that seems most to belong to the small child—the great field that is covered by fables, fairy tales, and folk-lore.

How many of us, in our daily conversation, realize the origin of countless phrases borrowed from Aesop and La Fontaine—expressions we have used ever since we first began to understand language? "Sour grapes," "a wolf in sheep's clothing," "counting our chickens before they are hatcht," "dog in a manger"—all these are actually literary references which are, or should be, familiar to the smallest children. Fables and folk-tales appeal to children in many ways, but perhaps the characteristic they love best in these stories is the constant presence in them of animal life, the naturalness of relation between animals and human beings.

The child himself lives in a world of wonder, and to him all things are seen with a sort of glamor. The ordinary occurrences of daily life are often, to him, fairy marvels. I knew of a little boy who came from the country to visit an aunt who lived in New York. The basement kitchen was never seen by him, nor were the unknown intricacies of a dumb-waiter explained. What wonder then that he should tell his brother when he returned to his home: "Auntie doesn't have to bother about cooking. When we are hungry we just sit down at a table, and a little magic elevator brings us all the food we want!"

Excellent collections of fairy tales are those of Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora A. Smith; and there are many books to help in story-telling. Edna Lyman's *Story-telling; What to Tell and How to Tell It* is a practical one, but, to my mind, the best of them all is *The Art of the Story-Teller*, by Marie Shedlock, herself a true fairy godmother to all story-tellers and story-lovers. Miss Shedlock is a real artist. It is so easy to confuse art with artificiality, and that is what many would-be story-tellers do. Art is not a thing assumed; it is something felt, and unless you feel a story you never can tell it at its best. Once more I desire to emphasize the necessity for giving the child the very best that you can find, whether it be poetry, pictures, or stories. It is better to cling to the things that have stood the test of time rather than to search constantly for something new and wonderful. In an age when mediocrity and vulgarity are presented in new forms on every hand, not the latest thing, but the finest thing for children should be the concern of every parent, teacher, or librarian.

ART IN THE KINDERGARTEN

GRACE CORNELL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

I recently read this paragraph in a book on the sense of beauty: "We know on excellent authority that beauty is truth, that it is the expression of the ideal, the symbol of divine perfection, and the sensible manifestation of the good. A litany of these titles of honour might easily be compiled, and repeated in praise of our divinity." In this talk I shall try to show art as a structure, a building-up of harmony by means of arrangement and fine choices. The material out of which we build our structure is three-fold. It is shape, tone, and color—or line, dark and light, and color. To be sure, everything has shape, tone, and color, everything that we can see, but in art we think only of the fine or beautiful shapes, lines, tones, and colors. The artist is able by appreciation to choose and combine lines and colors so as to produce harmony. He composes or puts together elements in such a way that beauty results. Many people do not think of art in this way. The old Greek stories of the painter whose picture of fruit was so natural that birds pecked at it, or the one who deceived a brother artist by painting a curtain, show only the childish view of art as representation. Henry James has said: "Nothing counts in art but the excellent." Let us accept that as absolutely right. It is the excellent, the fine, not the true, nor accurate, nor anything else, that makes a work of art.

Kindergartners have asked this question, "How shall we put art into the kindergarten?" Other kindergartners have asked, "How shall we bring out and develop the art which is in the kindergarten?" The kindergartners who ask the second question show the right thought about art and its relation to the kindergarten, because the art faculty is a common human possession which is given to each of us, and, while it is frequently allowed to remain inactive, it may be developed thru use. We do not put this gift into the mind of the kindergarten child, but we either do or do not lead the child to use its gift. If the children are to be led, it is important for them to have efficient leaders. The efficient leaders are those who have developed their art faculty thru appreciative study of fine things and thru the exercise of their own creative thought. I emphasize especially one's own preparation as a leader thru doing. Many of us read about art in books, we travel and visit museums, and some of us possess beautiful things; but each of us can choose and create, if we wish to, and that is the surest and quickest road to art-appreciation. There is the person who says, "I know nothing about art, but I know what I like when I see it." Then there is the one who says, "I know nothing about art, but I can feel it." We forget, however, about these people when we meet the people with sincere art interest who say, "What can we do with art?"

Since the development of the kindergartner's own appreciation thru doing is so important, I shall tell about this in the first part of my talk

and in the second part shall tell you a little about its application in the kindergarten.

Quality is the one thing sought by the artist, and quality is obtained thru choices. All art has grown up from simple arrangements and spacings, from something where there was opportunity to choose as to size, shape, placing, tone, and color. The exhibit which is on the wall back of the platform is the work of students in the training school of the New York Kindergarten Association. This work was planned so that the student could have opportunity to choose and invent good arrangements of space, mass, and color.

These three elements, line, dark and light, and color, might be called the "language of art." Beauty of line is seen in architecture, sculpture, or metal work. When you visit the Metropolitan Museum of Art, you will see some Gothic figures, part of the sculptured detail from Rheims Cathedral, which are examples of beautiful line. Beauty of dark and light lines is one of the chief elements in the textiles, and laces, the porcelains, and the paintings which you will see there. Then there is the beauty of color, which is seen in textile design, stained glass, embroidery, pottery-decoration, and in painting. If we study the art of the world, we find this language exprest in many different forms. There is the idea of good proportion, which is illustrated by such great examples as the Parthenon and Giotto's Tower. These simple line exercises are the result of an effort to invent some good proportions of space.

One of the oldest and most common ways of creating harmony is that of rhythm, the production of beauty by repeating the same lines or groups in rhythmical order. Rhythm, in fact, forms a large part of our lives. There is the march of the seasons and the alternating days and nights. Each season gives us its rhythm. In the winter there is the falling snow, in spring the sound of the rain. In the summer we see fields with rhythmical patterns of flowers, and in the autumn we watch the fall of the leaves. There is the rhythm of clouds in the sky, and at night the rhythm of stars. We like the rhythm of marching figures in processions and the rhythm of the dance. By rhythm I do not mean mere repetition or placing of things in a row. By rhythm I mean the ordered arrangement of shapes or masses which are finely related to each other. This art principle is shown in primitive art, in textile design, in Byzantine mosaic, in the decoration of Greek vases, in architecture, in sculpture, and in painting.

There is another art principle which is the opposite of rhythm. This is the creating of harmony by having one great central idea and other parts subordinate to it. Salisbury Cathedral is a great example of this kind of beauty. The idea of principality does not belong to visual art alone. In an epic poem the principal thought may be some grand event of historic or religious importance, to which all the other events that are mentioned are subordinate. In drama principality may be given to some character, like

Hamlet or Lear, to whom all the other characters and their actions are in some way subordinated. These elements, rhythm and harmony, are some of the great principles of spacing and dark and light.

This study of line and tone helps very much in the study of colors. Color may be reduced to three simple elements: (1) hue, as red and green; (2) value, as light blue, dark blue; (3) intensity, as bright red, gray red. These three elements may be called the language of color. I refer you to Albert H. Munsell's book, *A Color Notation*, for a very clear statement of color theory. There are violent differences of opinion among artists, teachers, and critics as to what constitutes good color instruction. The most that I can do in this short talk will be to show you how different kinds of color harmonies may be created with the three simple elements of hue, value, and intensity.

Let us consider difference of hue. If we wish a color scheme which is full of vitality and life, we choose bright contrasting hues. Sometimes we harmonize these bright, contrasting hues with black or gray. If we choose, we may harmonize them with white. Any of these three are great harmonizers of bright contrasting hues when they are used in the right proportion. Again, we might harmonize the bright hues by contrasting them with each other. If we wish a color harmony which is delicate, poetic, and subtle, we choose neighboring hues, as blue and violet blue, or we choose hues which are not very intense. After we have selected our hues, either bright or gray, we need to know how to use them. It is here that the study of good spacing helps. Beautiful hues, when used in a poor space arrangement or, in other words, when used in the wrong proportions, frequently produce a disagreeable discord. One of the simplest ways of creating color harmony is to choose different values of one hue, as light blue, middle blue, and dark blue. If we wish the color scheme to be vigorous and forceful, we choose values with a decided difference of dark and light. If we wish a subtle scheme, we may choose the lighter and more delicate notes with slight differences of value, or if we wish a rich, mysterious scheme, we choose the dark, low-tone-value notes. Sometimes it is interesting to have a large quantity of dark color surrounding small starlike shapes of light, or one may prefer masses of dark group against a light background.

It has been my experience that difference of intensity is not understood by students as readily as difference of hue or value. This may be because much color-study is based upon color as having two qualities, hue and value, or "tint" and "shade," as they are sometimes called, and not upon the fact that color has a third quality as well, that of intensity. Arranging color notes of one hue, from bright and gray, gives a simple and beautiful kind of color scheme which is often delicate and iridescent in its effect. Another way of using this idea of intensity is to arrange small starlike shapes of very bright color against larger contrasting masses of dark or gray.

These are a few of the things which the kindergartner who wishes to become a leader toward art might do toward developing her own appreciation. You may say, "I have no talent for art." Of course, some people have more talent than others, but each of us has the art faculty, and this power may be developed.

After emphasizing the importance of the kindergartner developing her own appreciation thru doing, let us consider some of the ways in which the art-principles studies may be applied in the kindergarten. One would not, of course, talk about art principles to little children. But it is possible, thru simple art activities, to give children the experience of using these principles. The kindergartner, and not the art-teacher, is the one best fitted to say how this experience shall be given to the children. Surely there are opportunities in many of the occupations to use the ideas of spacing, invention, and color.

It is not necessary to limit art activity to so-called "art materials" such as paints, brushes, crayons, or the like. Art is broad and it enters into many things. The choice of pictures, their proper mounting, the arrangement of the room, the sense of order, the breadth of interest, are all things in which art has a finger. And it is inspiring to think of what the kindergartners will do with art. They will lead thousands of children to make choices which bring forth the hidden treasures of the mind. They will start them on the road to good taste and sincere art-appreciation. They will aid in forming a vast throng whose desire for beauty will help to create great art.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—ELWOOD P. CUBBERLY, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University,
Stanford University, Cal.

Vice-President—SIDNEY E. MEZES, president, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.

Secretary—JOHN E. ROUSE, head of School of Education, James Millikin University,
Decatur, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The department met in the Horace Mann Auditorium, Teachers College, Columbia University, at 9:30 A.M., and was called to order by President Cubberly.

The following program was given:

"Present Tendencies in College Administration"—Stephen Duggan, professor of education, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.

"The Elective System—Its Function and Its Limitations"—Thomas M. Balliet, dean, School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York, N.Y.

"The Great War in Its Relation to the Study of History, Politics, and Sociology"—Edward Krehbiel, professor of history, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.

"The Baccalaureate Degree as an Obstacle to Educational Progress"—Barclay W. Bradley, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 7, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 2:30 P.M. in the Horace Mann Auditorium, with President Cubberly in the chair.

The following program was given:

"Possible Modifications in Our Educational Work Likely to Come as a Result of the Great War"—James E. Russell, dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"Education and Militarism"—George W. Alger, of the New York City Bar.

"The Service of Business Schools at the Close of the Great War"—James C. Egbert, dean, School of Business, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"An Experiment in Practical Commercial Education in the National City Bank of New York"—F. C. Schwedtman, director of efficiency, National City Bank of New York, New York, N.Y.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—Edward C. Elliott, chancellor, University of Montana, Helena, Mont.

Vice-President—Charles H. Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Secretary—John E. Rouse, head of School of Education, James Millikin University, Decatur, Ill.

JOHN E. ROUSE, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PRESENT TENDENCIES IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

STEPHEN DUGGAN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF
NEW YORK, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The body of final control in the American college and university at the opening of the twentieth century was the board of trustees or board of regents. In state universities the board was usually appointed by the governor, as in Wisconsin, tho sometimes elected by the people, as in Michigan. In private institutions the choice was by cooperation, tho there were some institutions, chiefly of a larger size, in which the alumni were permitted to choose trustees either directly, as in Columbia, or indirectly, as in Harvard. All powers not specifically delegated to any other body or individual were understood to reside in the board.

A board of trustees was, and is, almost wholly made up of business men and lawyers. From its personnel as well as its method of appointment it was essentially a conservative body. The average lawyer is guided by precedent and has his face turned to the past; the average business man usually wishes conditions as they are at present to be maintained. The board of trustees appointed the president and all the instructing staff. Tho it had legal control over the educational as well as the financial and material interests of the institution, it usually turned over the educational interests to the president and faculty. But practically nowhere did the idea prevail that the faculty was a body coordinate with the board of trustees. In most institutions the principle of relation was that of the employe and employer. Just as the board appointed teachers, tho nearly always upon the recommendation of the president, so it dismissed teachers sometimes of its own volition and against the advice of the president. Appointment, tenure, and dismissal were wholly within its discretion.

As stated, the board usually turned over the whole matter of educational policy to the president and trusted him to work out the details. Since he was held responsible, he was given great powers. He was the sole means of communication between the board and the faculty. As he nominated all candidates for appointment and recommended promotions to the board, he practically controlled the teaching staff. For the same reason he dictated the policy of the institution, as few of the faculty cared to oppose his wishes unless he were personally very democratic. He organized the budget and thereby controlled departmental policies. In practice the president held the heads of departments responsible for the good working of the departments without making prescriptions as to how it should be done. Sometimes the president was also president of the board of trustees, e.g., in Dartmouth, with a vote, or in Michigan, without a vote. President Eliot believes that the president of the college should be chairman of the

board of trustees. As the trustees knew very little of the actual running of the college, the president usually imposed his views upon them, and with the great growth of higher institutions of learning in the United States he became more and more a business-manager and often introduced into college administration the ideals and methods of business-management. In few great American corporations was there an individual who had such autocratic power as the American college president.

The principle of autocracy ran down the line: The senior professor was usually the head of the department and determined the policy of the department; he also recommended appointments and promotions within the department. In many institutions the faculty was made up only of heads of departments, or if assistant professors and instructors were admitted, it was only to express views, not to vote.

The student body was usually under the control of the president, the dean, or a faculty committee on student affairs; and this control usually extended to most student activities, athletics, publications, organizations, etc., as well as to matters of discipline.

As to the relation of the institutions to the public, only in a few places was there maintained the idea that the college or university existed directly for the public welfare and that it should interest itself in all kinds of social activities looking toward a better organization and administration of society.

But as the result of changed conditions, the pressure of public opinion, and the growth of new ideals, it is undoubtedly true that where changes are taking place they are usually in the direction of placing the educational affairs of colleges more in the control of the faculty than of the president; the affairs of departments more in the control of the entire staff of the department than of the head; and the control of student affairs and activities more in the control of the students themselves than of the faculty committees. Let us take up these points seriatim.

The relation of the board of trustees to the faculty and president. There is a decided movement away from cooperation in the filling of vacancies on boards of trustees of private institutions and toward the granting of increased alumni representation. It is noticeable, however, that the new spirit has not yet affected the representation of different vocations and interests on the board of trustees. It is still made up almost exclusively of lawyers and successful business men.

A second tendency is the growing recognition that the trustees and faculty occupy something approaching a coordinate position. In an increasing number of institutions it is explicitly provided in new constitutions or amendments to constitutions that all appointments and promotions shall be recommended by a committee of the faculty (Pennsylvania, Bryn Mawr, Reed). In a still greater number the tendency has no explicit recognition in trustee by-laws but has in actual practice. President Hyde, of Bowdoin, writes: "In an informal but not in a legal way, the full professors are given an increasing influence in determining the policy of the college."

This is the report that comes from the great majority of those who have answered my questionnaire. In William and Mary faculty government is absolute in everything not involving finances. In Randolph-Macon all matters of educational policy are settled by majority vote of full professors. The desire that the board of trustees and faculty should have something approaching coordinate position is, of course, especially manifested in the faculty. The report comes from the University of California that a considerable number of members of the faculty would like to see faculty representation on the board of trustees (non-voting). The most explicit recognition of this desire was given in Cornell. In his annual report for 1912 President Schurman recommended that the faculty of the university have "a larger measure of participation in its government." The board of trustees appointed a special committee to confer with a special committee of the faculty, and the conference committee reported two recommendations: (1) that the university faculty elect three representatives to the board of trustees who should have all the powers of trustees except that of voting; (2) that there should be councils representing the several colleges of the university for conference with the trustees on matters affecting the several colleges. The board of trustees on April 29, 1916, adopted both recommendations.

The tendency on the part of boards of trustees to get the advice of the faculty on matters of policy is shown by the increase in the number of institutions where the faculty appoints advisory committees to confer with the trustees, e.g., Lawrence College, Wisconsin, and the College of the City of New York. The plan adopted by the board of directors of Bryn Mawr on May 29, 1916, provides for the election by the faculty of a committee of three which shall have the right to attend and take part in the discussions at all meetings of the board of directors.

It must be evident from all that has been stated that the position of the president is nearly everywhere becoming less autocratic, as a result either of legislation or of practice. In some large institutions, especially universities, the tendency is for the maintenance of a cabinet or a council (Reed and Kansas) to which the president submits proposals for changes in policy and administration before bringing them to the board of trustees. Clark University organized recently a "senate consisting of full professors only, who advise upon all matters pertaining to the conduct of the university, leaving ordinary matters to the faculty." Even where such advisory bodies do not exist, the tendency is for the president to yield to the faculty's desire upon educational matters (Lehigh University) and to throw the administrative work more and more into the hands of the faculty committee (Earlham College).

The president has ceased to be in some places the autocrat that he was in the matter of appointment, promotion, and tenure. In most institutions it had always been the policy of the president to consult heads of

departments in these matters, but in recent years in new constitutions or amendments adopted by a number of institutions it is explicitly stated that appointments and promotions shall be upon recommendation of the department or school concerned, e.g., Illinois, Reed, Kansas, Pennsylvania. The new plan at Bryn Mawr provides for a faculty committee of five, whose duty is to become familiar with the teaching staff. This committee must be consulted by the president before he makes any recommendations to the board of directors on reappointments or refusal of reappointments. Whenever practicable the committee is also to be consulted on initial appointments. That the "hired-man" principle is gradually passing into oblivion is evident from the explicit provisions for security of tenure that have been put into all the more recently adopted constitutions and amendments to constitutions. Pennsylvania now provides that professors be appointed for an indefinite term, assistant professors for a first term of three years and then for periods of five years, instructors for one year. Kansas provides that "professors and associate professors are on permanent appointment, assistant professors are on one-year appointment for the first two years, after which their appointment, unless otherwise stipulated, is permanent." Illinois provides that appointment as professor or associate professor shall be for an indefinite term. This shall be construed to mean definite tenure.

Illinois, moreover, provides that "only immorality, gross neglect of duty, or conspicuous and continued inefficiency and incompetency shall be considered cause for discharge. No appointee shall be removed before the expiration of his term of service without the filing of formal charges and a hearing before the board of trustees." Pennsylvania and Bryn Mawr, which have most recently adopted new principles with reference to tenure, provide that no teacher shall be dismissed until after a conference between a faculty committee and a trustee committee and only after a written report of the findings of such conference shall be made to the board of trustees for consideration and action by it.

It is evident that the old conception of the college teacher as "employee" of the board of trustees is rapidly passing away. The former conception was natural to boards of trustees made up of business men solely, but the newer conception and the one rapidly gaining ground is the one expressed last January by the committee on academic freedom of the American Association of University Professors.

There is a growing tendency to distinguish between two functions of the faculty, (1) policy-determining, and (2) administration, and for the faculty to give more and more of its attention to the former and leave the latter to be done by committees and individuals. Possibly it is for that reason that departmental organization has felt the democratizing influence less, perhaps, than other elements in college and university administration. Even the last constitution adopted (Kansas) provides that the senior professor shall be chairman of the department. This is still the status in the great

majority of institutions, but there is a growing number, especially among the larger institutions, organizing departments in the manner of Wisconsin. Wisconsin provides that each department shall have a departmental committee, which shall consist of all members of professorial rank. The immediate government of each department shall be vested in such departmental committee, which shall have jurisdiction over all the interests of the department with power to determine all matters of educational and administrative policy pertaining thereto. Harvard and Yale in the East, Chicago and Illinois in the Middle West, and Idaho in the Far West are typical of a growing number of institutions which are abandoning the old system of permanent headship of departments upon the part of the senior professor in favor of temporary chairmen appointed by the president from the members of the department for a limited period. In Mt. Holyoke, in two departments which have no professors, the experiment is being tried temporarily of having the chairmanship rotate among the associate professors. In Yale the chairman of the department is elected by its full professors. This year in the College of the City of New York, in the case of two departments whose heads had retired, the department was put in commission, i.e., departmental policy was to be determined by the members of the department in departmental meeting, the chairman, who is appointed by the president for two years, being merely the executive officer of the department. This is also true of smaller institutions. In Middlebury College, Vermont, "heads of departments have no distinction in salaries or powers. The department is run by its most influential member, if he has the president's approval." This tendency toward greater democratization is more evident in the organization of faculty committees. In a growing number of institutions it is now true that the chairman of a committee, who naturally guides its activities, need no longer be a full professor. A few years ago the Harvard Committee on Admission, one of the most important of all committees, had as its chairman an instructor who had proved himself especially efficient in that kind of work. Of course, this principle is not everywhere accepted. From Union College comes the information that "the increase in the number of the faculty makes necessary an increasing subordination of those of lower rank to the heads of departments."

It is a gratifying evidence of a willingness to share powers that the faculty, which has been demanding an increasing voice in the conduct of affairs, has shown its belief in the democratic principle by giving an increasing share of power to the students in the administration of their own affairs. Not only is it true that the student council is called more and more into consultation by the faculty, but the responsibilities placed upon it or assumed by it are astonishing. The better means of getting evidence possessed by the students and their more appreciative viewpoint undoubtedly make the student council a safer organization for discipline than the faculty. The administration can get many things done thru the student council

which would be difficult to secure by the exercise of authority, e.g., the abolition of hazing. Chicago is typical when it writes that the decisions of the student council are usually accepted without question by the university authorities. California writes that the faculty committee on student affairs has had but one meeting in seven years. The great confidence shown in the integrity and fairness of student councils was well illustrated in William and Mary College two years ago when the parents of two students appealed to the faculty against a penalty of expulsion imposed by the student council, and the faculty refused to interfere.

The student council has control of the widest variety of interests as well as of discipline in most institutions. The publications of the students, including financial responsibility, their dramatic and musical organizations, athletics, and those who participate in them, are under the control of the student council. Several institutions write that the student council decides how much extra-curricular activity a student may undertake. In Ohio Wesleyan the student council not only establishes a budget fee to cover expenses for athletics, student publications, etc., but a hospital association which they maintain by a fee paid by each student. This is also true of California. No college representative wrote in disparagement of the work of the student council, and the great majority wrote enthusiastically about its advantages.

The desire to be of greater service to the community may not necessarily be a democratic tendency, but it is certainly a present tendency in college administration. Of course, we are all familiar with the wonderful work done by the state universities, practically all of which is a twentieth-century product. The summer sessions, extension work, seasonal courses, correspondence courses, bureau of general information, public-welfare service, are only the most striking of these. But from small and relatively unknown institutions comes the information that their libraries, art buildings, hospitals, and material plant generally are at the service of teachers, farmers, and the community. Another illustration of this spirit of service is the entrance of the college teacher into civic employ as an expert on state and city committees, library boards, etc. Too great emphasis cannot be placed upon the amount of time and energy given by college teachers to this kind of service. Another tendency is that of extreme frankness on the part of the university in its dealings with the public. It is only comparatively recently that the urban institutions were inspired by the example of the state universities. Two years ago there was formed an association of urban universities, and it was then discovered that the amount of work that is being carried on by urban institutions for the public welfare is truly remarkable. The faculty is a sort of professional body of consultants for the municipal government in its various departments of administration, in health, public works, finance, and education. Moreover, there is a widespread tendency in both state and urban institutions to provide training

for the improvement of those in the public service. California even has courses for policemen in abnormal psychology and in sociology. On the other hand, the college and the university are taking advantage to an increasing extent of the great laboratory possibilities of organized society in the city itself to give field experience to their students in the various departments. If space permitted, it would be interesting to continue the discussion of this aspect of college and university administration. But I think enough has been said to permit the generalization that the present tendencies in college and university administration are toward democratization and socialization.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM—ITS FUNCTION AND ITS LIMITATIONS

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Widely differing views have always prevailed since its introduction and do now prevail among educators as to the true function and scope of the elective system in American high schools and colleges. Four reasons have been assigned in justification of it: (1) the field of knowledge has become too wide for any one student even to sample all departments of it; (2) the student gets more profit from a study which appeals to his native ability and interest than from one which is forced upon him against his taste; (3) it enables a student to elect his undergraduate studies with reference to his later professional studies; and (4) it enables him also to elect teachers, which is quite as important as to elect studies, and which may, incidentally, have a wholesome effect on teachers themselves. These are the reasons assigned by educators; to the student there appears a fifth reason, which has had no little weight with some, to the effect that it enables him to elect easy courses and secure his diploma or degree at a minimum cost of labor. This last type of student is the "pass degree" man of the English university and the man who makes a "gentleman's grade" in the American college.

The merits and the evils of the system are well understood; they need not be discussed here; but its specific function and its specific limitations have been but vaguely conceived; and its administration, both in colleges and in high schools, has been correspondingly lacking in definiteness of aim. Is it possible to formulate both its functions and its limitations more definitely?

Every person needs at least four types of education:

1. It is essential that he must master those fundamental studies a knowledge of which is not only universally necessary for practical life, but is basic for all further scholastic attainments. This includes the curriculum of the elementary school and certain studies of the high school and college. These must be required studies.

2. Every individual is entitled to a training which fits him for some specific calling in which he may not only make a livelihood, but in which he may realize the aims of his life and render to the world the service which he owes it. This is vocational education. In this type of education election is limited to the choice of the vocation. There is no room for the election of studies, except in so far as a specialization within the calling or profession is possible. After the student has chosen his calling, it is for the school to prescribe the curriculum. This applies not only to trade schools, but to all types of vocational schools, including the professional schools of the university.

3. Each person must have such training as his native capacity enables him to receive, which shall fit him specifically to discharge the duties of citizenship. In a broad sense, all legitimate education fits for citizenship, but there are certain studies which specifically and directly aim to do this. What are these studies?

They are not—for the secondary school at least—the study of the national and state constitutions which form the whole course in so-called “civics” in most high schools. Such a study is useless for secondary schools, and properly belongs to the college, where it should form only a part of the larger subject of political science and government.

Briefly stated, most of our political questions today have an economic basis and cannot be understood without at least an elementary knowledge of economics. An elementary course in economics should therefore be a required course in every secondary school and in every college. Many of our political problems have an immediate sociological basis; hence an elementary course in sociology should be required of all pupils in every secondary school and college.

A few generations ago it was a dogma of writers on economics that the laws of economics, like the laws of physics and of chemistry, have nothing to do with the principles of ethics. Today we recognize a most intimate relation between the two. Furthermore, no one can comprehend the meaning of economics and of social conditions who is blind to their ethical significance. Hence a course in ethics should be a required course in all secondary schools and colleges. Such a course should, however, not be based on metaphysics nor theology, but should be a practical course, based on sociology, and should deal with the actual ethical problems which arise in life. Morality is a social phenomenon or fact, and the force of ethical principles can be felt only when seen in the light of the concrete social facts of life. Hence the effectiveness of the parable in moral instruction. In city high schools and in all colleges a course in municipal problems should be required as a part of the specific training for citizenship.

This is but a very crude and brief statement of the courses which should be required as a training for efficient citizenship.

It is obvious that in this type of education—the ethical, or moral—there is no room whatever for either an election of calling or an election of studies.

No one can be allowed to elect, if native-born, whether he will be a citizen or not; and it is for the school to prescribe the studies which fit him to discharge the duties which citizenship makes incumbent upon him.

4. Everyone should be educated for leisure as well as for work. For the working classes, at least, the eight-hour law will soon be universal. Then there will be eight hours for work, eight hours or more for leisure, and the remainder of the twenty-four for sleep. The way in which a man spends his leisure hours, whether he finds his pleasures in activities which are elevating or in activities which are debasing, is of great importance to the community and of the greatest importance to the man himself. Public and private morality depend far more on how the hours of leisure are spent than on how the hours of work are spent. We must educate for leisure to prevent leisure from becoming mere idleness with all its proverbial consequences.

In this education for leisure must be included legitimate amusement and recreation, as well as the more intellectual pleasures of books and of art.

It is obvious that an education which is intended to fit a person to find elevating pleasures during his leisure hours cannot be forced upon him. There is no room for prescription here. After relatively mature years have been reached, as in the high school and the college, election must be absolutely free.

To summarize: there is no room for election in case of the studies fundamental for practical life nor for all further study; in vocational education there is room for the election of the vocation (under advice) but none for the election of studies, except in so far as specialization within the vocation is possible; in the education for citizenship there can be no election at all; in the education for leisure there must be absolutely free election.

It may be added, in conclusion, that the need for an elective system in this country has grown out of the fact that our secondary education has been too little differentiated, and out of the further fact that our colleges are continuing general and undifferentiated education farther by two years than any country in Continental Europe. The need for election has been especially felt during the last two years of college, and in some colleges election has been limited almost wholly to these years.

Secondary and higher education is in process of radical reconstruction. We have recently developed four types of high schools in place of one—namely, the literary, the technical, the commercial, and the agricultural, or rural, high school, each providing a distinct type of training. Children now elect, in the main, schools, and to some extent courses within schools, but rarely individual studies.

We are developing a junior high school which will ultimately take not only the two upper grades of the elementary schools but also the first two of the present high school. These schools will be of various types as to courses, but will have each a definite aim, and will therefore make election of schools, rather than election of studies, a necessity.

The strong city high schools will soon incorporate the first two years of college; and general education will end, as in all European countries, with what is now the sophomore year in our best colleges. The junior and senior years will be incorporated in the professional schools of the university, with possibly some telescoping, and the college of arts in its present form will disappear. The academic studies of the present junior and senior years, when incorporated in the professional schools, will naturally become, in the main, required studies.

In short, with the differentiation of our secondary and higher education, the need for election of studies will be reduced to a minimum, and the problems which the elective system was invented to solve, will be solved by this differentiation.

THE BACCALAUREATE DEGREE AS AN OBSTACLE TO EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

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In the days of chivalry the page at the age of seven began a seven-year term of service, and then was bounden to seven more years as squire before he was accepted into the fellowship of knights by the touch of a veteran. Likewise the normal period of apprenticeship in the manual crafts was seven years. It would take us afield to trace even a little way the origin of this use of the number seven. But those were days when not all human institutions were under the control of pure reason. Have those days yet ended?

It was in those days that the baccalaureate originated. Whether the baccalarius was first a cowherd, the tenant of a stock farm, or something entirely different, it is certain that in the *universitas*, or corporation—whether of smiths, tailors, or scholars—for some time before 1200 the term was practically a synonym for apprentice. Three stages in its history are pertinent to this inquiry: (1) the cause of its restricted use in the academic field; (2) its crystallization as a university degree; (3) its revival in America.

The baccalaureate under the faculty of arts in the University of Paris—which alone may be looked on as the ancestor of our own degree—was conferred in a student-initiation ceremony in which the university officially had no part. The important features of it were (1) that it depended upon

the time unit as the measure of scholastic standing, and (2) that it was preliminary to the study which was to follow. In respect to control the ceremony was more nearly akin to a cane rush or sophomore cremation than to commencement day. There was reason for measurement of proficiency by time, in that knowledge then was not acutely subdivided, and consisted chiefly in acquaintance with certain books. The baccalaureate ceremony was part and parcel of the great wave for fraternization and organization that swept over Europe in the eleventh and twelfth centuries.

Within a hundred years the originally voluntary and half-playful ceremony had become a necessary preliminary to the ecclesiastical license to teach. And by 1400 at Paris, as elsewhere on the continent of Europe, it became synonymous with matriculation. At Oxford, however, it took a different turn, which is reflected in the early history of Harvard University and of American colleges.

In the first statutes of Harvard the baccalaureate is referred to only as the "first degree." It was given at the end of four years of residence, to be followed immediately by three more years leading to the Master's, which was called the "second degree." Note the total of years. There is no evidence of any intention or thought that anyone would stop at this intermediate stage.

The development since then is obvious. As preparation has been more fully given before college-entrance, the baccalaureate has been pushed toward the end of the course; and the Master's degree has crumbled away until it now represents the work of one supplementary year and recently was given without resident study after the baccalaureate; and but few Bachelors proceed to it. The usurpation of the final place by the baccalaureate is justifiable provided the course which leads to it is modified to accord with the new position, so as to give it always a rational basis.

In this very brief sketch I have tried to give prominence to two thoughts: (1) that the time unit is the traditional standard of measurement for the Bachelor's degree, and (2) that in its origin and after transplantation to America it was a preliminary step to higher academic study. To these one other consideration should be added: that the Master's degree was always a vocational degree and *par excellence* for one profession—teaching; in lesser degree it was a prerequisite to the study of theology and law. To what extent are these characteristics in accord with present educational thought and conditions?

Permit me to assume that there are two conceptions of education, one as growth or general development, the other as specific preparation for specific ends; that the trend of modern educational thought is toward the latter, namely, that every element which enters into an educational course for an individual should work for a specific end in a specific way; that these ends may be vocational (concerned with the livelihood), avocational (pertaining to general human duties, such as citizenship, domestic life, social

betterment, etc.), or liberal (directed solely to personal enjoyment); that every course should be centered around the vocational, with the addition of such avocational and (possibly?) liberal material as is adapted to the temperament and capacity of the individual and can be included without unduly deferring vocational maturity.

There is now apparent a great contrast in present educational conditions. In comparison with the mediaeval university or with Harvard in the seventeenth century we have now an infinite differentiation of vocational ends to serve. It stands to reason that these vocations require various periods of time of preparation, from the elementary school plus zero years to seven, eight, or even more years after high school. The tradition of the baccalaureate has caused us to pad our college courses to fill time units.

Is there any reason why a person who requires less vocational preparation should have a greater amount of avocational and liberal, and vice versa, for the sake of making the totals equal? Should not the quantum of each of these, ideally, be adapted fully to the individual? Finally, is not any artificial stimulation to depart from the ideal the antipode of useful?

The first effort to get away from the time unit in this country was probably the elective system. But it was imperfect, because it still required a fixed number of unit courses. The next effort was first made, I think, in this university (Columbia), the conferring of the baccalaureate after one year of study in a professional school. This plan is manifestly applicable to a very limited number of vocations.

The question has become acute in the secondary field, and you see the secondary schools reaching down two years into the elementary and reaching up two years into college domain. Two-year and three-year commercial and other courses have been given for a long time. The secondary school is comparatively unhampered by graduation day—shall we say—thanks to the fact that the baccalaureate got away from its original position.

Shall the baccalaureate be discarded? The whole question is involved with the doctrine of general training. Any action based upon faith in specific training for specific ends will be confounded by its opponents unless vocational value and avocational value are both interpreted in the very broadest manner, with accurate regard—so far as may be—to the ultimate effects of each study. For example, I should not hesitate to say that for many persons—other than teachers—Latin is the most vocational of all studies. (Some of you may not agree with me in this. A just decision can be reached only as we are able to measure the effect of the study upon the individual. You will grant, at least, that it is conceivable that in a certain type of mind the study develops a certain kind of ability or certain habits which are indispensable to the highest success in a few professions.) Again, certainly no other study has in general greater avocational value than literature; yet for some its effect may be nil.

An alternative to summary execution of the degree is suggested by the plan of Columbia, and now of other universities. The degree might be given to those who have satisfied the college on the avocational side, after they have practised efficiently for a certain time the vocation or profession to which they have been trained in the Alma Mater. The unit of scholarship should be a course starting somewhere in the secondary field and continuing one, two, three, four, or more years beyond it, the length being determined (as stated above) by the amount of institutional training requisite for the specific vocation combined with the amount of avocational training that can be had simultaneously with it. Similar courses might end, as they do now, within the secondary period; and others, parallel with those final in the college, would, as now, meet merely a definite standard of preparation for higher university work.

We have been accustomed to think of our college courses as standing like piles ready for laying the flooring of a pier. We should think of them rather as the pipes of a great church organ—as many in number, perhaps as there are individual students at any one time.

POSSIBLE MODIFICATIONS IN OUR EDUCATIONAL WORK LIKELY TO COME AS A RESULT OF THE GREAT WAR

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(Outline)

In a world-war a world-wide adjustment is taking place. Even America must reckon with a new concept of the state, and with it expect a new type of public education.

The power of the schoolmaster stands clear in the record of German education. A few generations have seen the German schools, almost single-handed, develop loyalty to a cause and obedience to authority, cultivate the arts and sciences, develop industry, and direct trade—all in a way that is the envy and despair of the rest of the world.

The Prussian of the nineteenth century just had to be a soldier. The first duty of the German school has been to prepare boys fit in mind and body for military service. Military rule demands obedience; the German school fixes implicit obedience irrevocably in the character of the German boy. Everything comes from authority; the boy does not recite; he learns what is given him. Religious instruction begets respect for authority and obedience to superiors. Patriotism is taught in the language, the history, and the literature of the Fatherland.

For purposes alike of peace and war, productive industry is needed. German trade and commerce have grown as no other country's, owing to the skill and training of the workmen and to intelligent direction from above.

The German continuation schools have led the world in supplying skilled workmen, while higher education has cooperated in furthering a world-wide trade.

The German state takes full control over this system of education. It trains the teachers, inducts them into office, fixes their salaries, pensions them in old age; prescribes the curricula, defines methods of instruction, and by a system of examinations at once judges the output and controls the entrance to all professions and the public service—all to the successful “making of God-fearing, patriotic, self-supporting subjects of imperial Germany.”

Our business is to consider anew the rights of the American citizen and his duties toward the state in order that our professional experts may do their part in the realization of those ideals for which this nation stands. What we need in America is a system of educational administration that shall eliminate the politician; a professional spirit that shall put the public good ahead of personal gain; teaching and school-management that shall appreciate reasonable law and secure voluntary obedience to constituted authority; and finally, educational leadership that shall rise indeed to the heights of patriotic statesmanship.

THE SERVICE OF BUSINESS SCHOOLS AT THE CLOSE OF THE GREAT WAR

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We are all familiar with the old adage “In time of peace prepare for war.” The appropriateness and force of this saying have been deeply imprest upon the world recently by reason of the course of the war in Europe. The advantage held by nations known to be prepared stands in sharp contrast to the serious danger which threatened those who have been compelled to devote their energies during the last two years preparing for the great conflict in which they were already engaged.

Our own land, in which has existed, as among no other people, a sincere devotion to the cause of peace, is reluctantly compelled to accept as a truism the saying which calls for preparedness for war in time of peace. Regretfully, to be sure, but nevertheless unhesitatingly, we must prepare for war.

As a natural reaction from this candid acknowledgment we turn from preparedness for war to preparedness for peace. This is the burden of our theme. In the morning, after a dark and stormy night, the brightening of the sky in the east often foretokens the clear and cloudless day. Thus the glimmer of light, altho so faint and dim as yet, appearing in the east, gives promise of the peace so earnestly lookt for. Even such an uncertain sky calls upon us to prepare for the day. How often do we hear the

prophecy as to what will take place and will be done when the war is over and the dreadful night of horror has past! Of course, the pacifist will turn his thoughts and energies to preventing war in the future. The soldier will become a pacifist and think of home and his future career. Nations will adjust themselves to the new situation which the war has produced. But that nation which, like the militarist, prepares for the future will reap the advantage which is sure to come to those who are ready. It is in this respect that our own theme is most appropriate and its consideration most timely.

By reason of the great war in Europe, the center of power and influence in the business world will be found, at its close, in the United States. This is due, mainly, to the fact that this nation is the only great people not involved in the terrible conflict. To this country financiers of other lands have already looked for aid and must, of necessity, do so in the future. The dollar, rather than the pound, will become the standard of value, and American gold will take the place so long held by the gold of England.

Again, the cessation of manufacturing, or at least the interference therewith, in the countries at war must, of necessity, lead to the transfer of business of this character to the United States. Goods formerly produced exclusively in Europe will be manufactured in this country. Hence, the other nations will look to us for these goods, and we ourselves, being compelled to engage in this new and strange form of manufacturing during the war, may readily claim the control of such productions, and that finally with little competition. We should, therefore, be ready for this service, so that we may not only supply the demands of our own country, already deprived of essential materials by reason of the war, but may produce for the nations now at war in a manner and to an extent never known before. This trade, formerly maintained by the belligerent powers, should fall to the United States. The allurements of foreign trade will be extraordinary and will demand the best service of our American business men, who should seize the advantage placed in their hands thru the folly of the warring nations and the disasters of the conflict. The control of the world's trade is at hand and almost within our grasp. This is particularly true of South America; hence, we are confronted with the greatest opportunity that ever offered itself to an ambitious people, and our own neglect and lack of foresight will be at fault if this passes from our hands.

It is well for us to consider what our share in this great achievement must be. Is this the duty of the business man alone? Will the financier or the manufacturer alone be responsible if this opportunity is lost? We should rather say that every institution, every individual, should feel the responsibility at this time of crisis, even if this is a crisis in the world of trade and business. Educational institutions, particularly the collegiate schools of business which have now assumed an important part in the development of education in this country, should be a most powerful factor

in this venture. Time will allow us to consider only a few of the duties and services which these schools can render. In the first place, there never was a time when the well-educated, well-trained business man was so much needed as today, for education, if seriously employed, produces men of large vision. Small men cannot always see the opportunity afforded them, much less grasp it. Our schools of business must produce men of large vision. They must be well educated, using the term in the broadest sense. Their general education must give them foresight and judgment, and their technical training must enable them readily to grasp the new problems of finance and trade. In other words, we must educate men so that they may become professional business men. Only in this way can our country produce those who shall reach the marts of the world and obtain and control the trade so long held in other hands.

In days gone by we have given men a cultural training, then left them to obtain their knowledge of business alone thru practical business experience. Years have been wasted when time is so precious in the lives of young men. General cultural training is as indispensable as ever as the foundation, but it must be supplemented by the technical knowledge of business which may be obtained in our schools as professional training. The schools of business must also arrange for practical training in the laboratory of business, just as in the schools of science.

Schools of business must make an impression on the business world that they may accomplish what is so greatly needed in these respects. This can only be brought about by their coming in close contact with the business world and by earning the confidence which educational institutions have never hitherto held. This is not all. The business house should be of help in supplying practical experience and thus aid schools of business in furnishing fully trained men. Cooperation between educational institutions and the bank, the factory, and the store is the epoch-making feature of this new development and is of the greatest importance in our attaining the objects which the European war has made possible.

This reciprocity implies the careful training of young men for service in business houses and the consequent establishing of confidence on the part of the business world. These, in turn, may find in the work of the specialists associated with such institutions opportunity for the solution of problems in their own experience. Their own part will be one of suggestion and advice in general, but, in particular, the furthering of the practical training which must not be disregarded in the education of business men.

The professional schools of business have certain special duties to perform because of the possibilities which are at hand by reason of the great war. There are fields of study and research which should be brought to the attention of students, and emphasized with peculiar force. Our schools must produce men who have a knowledge of foreign exchange and foreign systems of banking. These students must be familiar with the geography

of trade, with the institutions—commercial, political, and social—of the people with whom trade may be desired, and, finally, with the languages of those with whom they expect to carry on the peaceful arts of business. A knowledge of commerce and commercial opportunities, a clear conception and understanding of the products of various lands, a grasp of the history and institutions of nations, a familiarity with foreign languages—all must be supplied by our schools of business in view of the possibilities of the future and after the close of the war. We, of course, need not emphasize in this connection the prosperity of the position and the importance of the history of our own land, its institutions, its trade, and, above all, its language.

There is one phase of this question which we might be tempted to overlook. I refer to the moral influence which schools of business should exert in the commercial world. When I employ this word "moral," I do not restrict it to the sense in which it is commonly used. It is presupposed that institutions of learning should inspire and establish a final moral sense in their students. The field of business certainly demands such an influence from these institutions of business training. Honor in business is yet an uncertain quantity, and a spirit of fairness in competition is not unduly prevalent. Hence, we should look for the encouragement of this spirit of fairness in our schools of business. We readily think of this as belonging to individuals, but that between nations is likewise of importance, and never so fully as in these days of recovery from the hatred and ills of war. We all know of the declared intention of the Entente Allies to form a league of trade which shall have for its purpose the exclusion of the central powers from trade reciprocity after the war. It is already generally accepted by those who are neutral that such a spirit will endanger the peace of the world in the years to come. Here is the work of our institutions of learning, especially those devoted to studying problems of trade, namely, to show the folly and wickedness of such a spirit.

We must, therefore, stress what some have called the international mind, which can bring one to understand the problems of other nations and realize their point of view, a characteristic which is vital, particularly in the development of trade and commerce. Here is plainly the duty of the higher schools of business in view of the great future which lies before our beloved land. We must remember that "peace hath its victory as well as war."

In summing up, let us emphasize the necessity for a form of education adapted to the possibilities which the war has placed before us so that future generations may be equipt for added responsibilities in both the world of finance and of trade. We are almost startled with the immense expansion of our foreign trade and are becoming rapidly aware of the relations which we hold as world-bankers. We must not neglect cultural training which gives breadth of view, and will enable us to consider properly the terms of human responsibility which the war is defining for the present

generations and the generations which are to come. The technical professional training must be of a character adapted to our new responsibilities in banking, finance, and trade. Our young men must know, as never before, the lands, the people, and the institutions. Finally, we must establish a moral sense in business which will render us capable of appreciating the point of view of our neighbor and the rights which belong to him. We must train our students to consider the trade welfare of others while we are eagerly thinking of our own. In this altruistic spirit we may train our students to build up trade with all the world. Surely, there is a great field for the new school of business in accomplishing the ends which I have indicated and which lead to the preparedness in economic policy for the resuming of international, commercial, and financial relations after the war.

*AN EXPERIMENT IN PRACTICAL COMMERCIAL EDUCATION
IN THE NATIONAL CITY BANK OF NEW YORK*

F. C. SCHWEDTMAN, DIRECTOR OF EFFICIENCY, NATIONAL CITY BANK
OF NEW YORK, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Success in international commerce demands the highest development of the individual, the least possible waste in business-organization, and the highest efficiency of the combined nation. It is a well-established fact that nations as well as individuals have accomplished most when bitter necessity compelled extraordinary effort. Most of the nations that under normal conditions have been our successful competitors in the world's markets are at present engaged in a struggle which will tax their future heavily. This struggle, however, will bring out also ability and ingenuity which will astonish us when conditions have again become normal.

There is a need for realizing on the part of our educators and business men that cooperation in the business education of the coming generation is by far the strongest, if not the only, factor that can balance the scale of future international trade in our favor. The foundation of a national educational system which is to endure must rest upon something more discernible and substantial than the somewhat elusive things—"ethics" and "precedents"—which many have talked about, but nobody has ever been able to define to everybody's satisfaction.

I realize that to provide students with means for earning a livelihood possibly should not be the strongest object, and certainly not the only object, of our schools and colleges. High ideals, good citizenship, and individual and collective happiness are higher motives for teacher and pupil. However, judging from my experience with hundreds of young people with every possible kind of training—from grammar schools to postgraduate college courses—99 out of 100 have studied, not so much for the love of knowledge, not so much for the sake of high ideals or ultimate happiness,

but primarily and principally for the purpose of greater or more rapid success in making a living. And after all, if higher and more general education can be the result of a desire to get on in the world, is it not a good thing for all concerned? We find, as an illustration, that the possibility of attending educational classes, conducted primarily for the purpose of fitting individuals for higher and better-paid places, brings to the National City Bank the very best applicants from all parts of the globe. If our experiment results in benefiting the pupils as well as the bank, and at the same time is a step toward bringing our country to a higher place in national and international banking, then, surely, it is highly beneficial and desirable all around.

This need is being met by educational classes in the large commercial and industrial institutions of the United States, and they are no longer experiments. Leaders in educational, commercial, and financial life have for some time agreed that theory and practice must be closely coordinated in training the successful men of the future. Such coordination spells sound patriotism as well as good business; it assures the success of the individual so trained, and it guarantees the pre-eminence of our country among the nations of the world.

Before I enter upon a description of our classes, let me explain a few underlying principles of our class-organizations. We believe that our success depends in a large measure upon our ability to develop the individuality of each member of a class: we endeavor to standardize the work of the individual, not the individual. The greater the opportunity for individual self-expression—always, of course, with proper regard for class unity—the greater will be the happiness and efficiency of the whole institution. Each class has its own committee; instead of depending primarily upon outside forces to make the class-organizations effective, we depend upon these selected committees for efficient class performance. The whole organization is thoroly democratic—there is no distinction, no preference, except that based upon class and bankwork well performed. Under such a system fellowship and teamwork are developed to a remarkable degree, and these in turn kindle and sustain a spirit in the whole organization which spells certain success.

The National City Bank employs approximately 1000 clerks at its home institution at 55 Wall Street. Approximately 700 attended the educational classes during the last school year with an attendance efficiency of 81 per cent. The needs of the institution dictate the number and kind of classes. That these needs are great is illustrated by the fact that this year we had 29 classes composed of 14 different subjects and taught by 19 instructors. The enrolment of classes varies from 10 to 120.

The first group of classes are those for our younger boys. We found that these boys, the best we could get, lackt enthusiasm and push. They had little conception of their place in the world, and failed to realize the

importance of individual effort in making good. We started an office-practice class, and each Monday morning one of our officers gave these boys an inspirational talk with good results. We saw that most of the boys, who were to be our future ledger clerks and bookkeepers, were poor penmen, so we taught them penmanship. They made poor figures, so we taught them how to make proper figures. Their grammar was poor—they express themselves badly—therefore we taught them grammar. Then we drilled them in the simple operations of adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing, showing them simple but effective methods, which they should have been taught at the public schools, to increase speed and insure accuracy.

In the next group of classes come English, stenography, and an elementary class in practical banking. A better knowledge of English, especially letter-writing, is quite necessary for our junior clerks and younger stenographers. A speed class in stenography keeps the older stenographers ever improving, and a beginners' class makes it possible for the bank to train stenographers who are already acquainted with bankwork and routine. Our first-year, or elementary, banking class performs the needful service of giving the young men a thoro grounding in the elementary principles and facts of banking.

And so I might go on thru the various groups of classes, illustrating the special need which has prompted the organization of each class and showing how each need has been met. The results can be measured, not in terms of college credits, but in terms of definite progress and advancement in business.

Until the establishment of branch banks in foreign countries, our educational work was confined to the training of the employes to increase their worth and to insure their progress to the home institution. But with the establishment of branch banks in various parts of the world came new responsibilities. The need for the special training of men for foreign service soon became apparent. A number of the bank's regular employes, who had won distinction because of exceptional work and ability, were first chosen. In addition to being rotated thru the various departments they were enrolled in classes in foreign exchange, practical banking, commercial geography, political economy, and in language classes—French, Spanish, Russian, or Portuguese.

It soon became evident, however, that the available places in the branch banks could not be filled by this method alone. We then turned to the universities. Twenty young graduates were chosen to come into the bank and enter upon a year's course of training to fit them for foreign work. During the day they worked in the various departments of the bank getting actual experience, and for an hour in the morning, at noon, and in the evening they attended classes.

In choosing these young college graduates full account was taken, next to personality, of the kind of courses they had selected at college. So far

as a college training could do so, they were as well equipt for foreign branch-bank service as any college men in the country. A year's work and study were absolutely necessary, however, to fit them for work abroad.

They studied international commerce and commercial geography, and formed an adequate conception of international trade and trade relations. Special emphasis was laid on the growth and development of American commerce and the opportunities for its expansion. They listened to talks on the customs, manners, and habits of foreign people, with a view of obtaining a better knowledge of their needs and preferences and a better understanding of their temperament and point of view. Under this broadening influence much of the native provincialism of Americans was dispelled. They learned about foreign exchange, tracing shipments from their origin to their destination, familiarizing themselves with the kind of documents used and the method of handling documents to protect both the bank and the customer. Special classes were instituted to give the students a speaking knowledge of the language of the country to which they were to be sent. To make this most effective, special textbooks based on the practical banking and commercial terms of each language were written by the language instructors of the bank.

I am aware that there is a decided difference of opinion as to the effectiveness of the present methods of teaching languages in most of our universities. The universities, of course, will have to work out that problem for themselves, but the evidence we have collected from our training classes demonstrated, to our satisfaction at least, the inefficiency of the general methods now used. Students with four and five years' training in French, or with two and three years' study of Spanish in college come to us unable to carry on a simple conversation in either language. With six months' training in our conversational methods, young men who had never before studied Spanish and Portuguese have gone to our branches equipt to start their work in the language of the country.

After one year's experimenting with the college men, we find it necessary in defense of our ledgers and for the general efficiency of the bank to put the students thru our elementary course of penmanship and banking arithmetic.

I mention these points and the larger fact that the students come to us wholly unequipt for the work that is expected of them in no spirit of criticism but for the purpose of calling attention to the need for a close scrutiny of our college courses with a view of determining how they may more properly fulfil the requirements of the present-day business world. In this much can be gained by a closer cooperation between the universities and the business interests of the country.

In selecting our first class of 20 young college men, we were in a way but following the example of several large manufacturing organizations in selecting young engineers for their force. The college man, in banking

on the scale we had planned, however, had not been tested out, and the plan was started with the skepticism of many of the older practical business men. It will take years before the last word can be said in connection with our experiments. We can report, nevertheless, even now that the taking-in of college graduates for training in banking is to a large extent a demonstrated success. It is true that most of these young men could hardly add a column of figures, that their writing was merely a scribble, and that their knowledge of banking was decidedly lacking. Their enthusiasm and keen young minds, however, overcame the obstacles imposed by lack of practical training, and their fine college-instilled spirit of sportsmanship and their splendid teamwork not only won for them our support and established the reputation of the college man, but brought into the bank an atmosphere that is of material aid in improving the spirit of the institution.

Encouraged by the experience with last year's class, we have selected 40 college men this year with the aid of 16 universities. With them we have inaugurated a plan which, if successful, may prove, in a measure, an answer, or at least point the way, to the solution of the problem of closer cooperation between the universities and business, and thus bring about a closer coordination of the theoretical and practical training of young Americans for success in commerce—both domestic and international.

May I quote you the purpose of the plan as we have conceived it:

In order to bring the universities of the United States into closer touch with the needs and demands of the large commercial institutions of our country for the purpose of helping the university student to come to an early decision as to his life-work, and, at the same time, of assuring him of an opening in a business for which he has been specially trained, and with the view of furnishing the National City Bank each year with specially trained men for its foreign and domestic service, the National City Bank of New York purposes the establishment of a business fellowship. This fellowship will enable certain students selected by the universities and colleges of the United States to spend one year in the employ of the National City Bank during their four years or more in college, and in consideration of the practical work obtained at the bank, and certain courses of study pursued while there, the universities will allow the students to graduate with their A.B., B.S., or some like or higher degree, along with their class.

The National City Bank wants the pickt young men of the country for its service; yet in putting this plan into execution it was not unmindful of the college student and also of a larger service that may be rendered to our educational system if the plan proves a success, as we all hope it will. I need not dwell upon the fact that most of our young men graduate from college with no definite purpose as to their future.

By accepting young sophomores under this plan, and by giving them three months' training during summer vacation, we help them to determine for themselves and inspire in their classmates the necessity for determining early in their college course what their life-work will be. Immediately upon graduation, when they will have had one year's banking training

along with their four years' of college work, they are promoted into permanent positions.

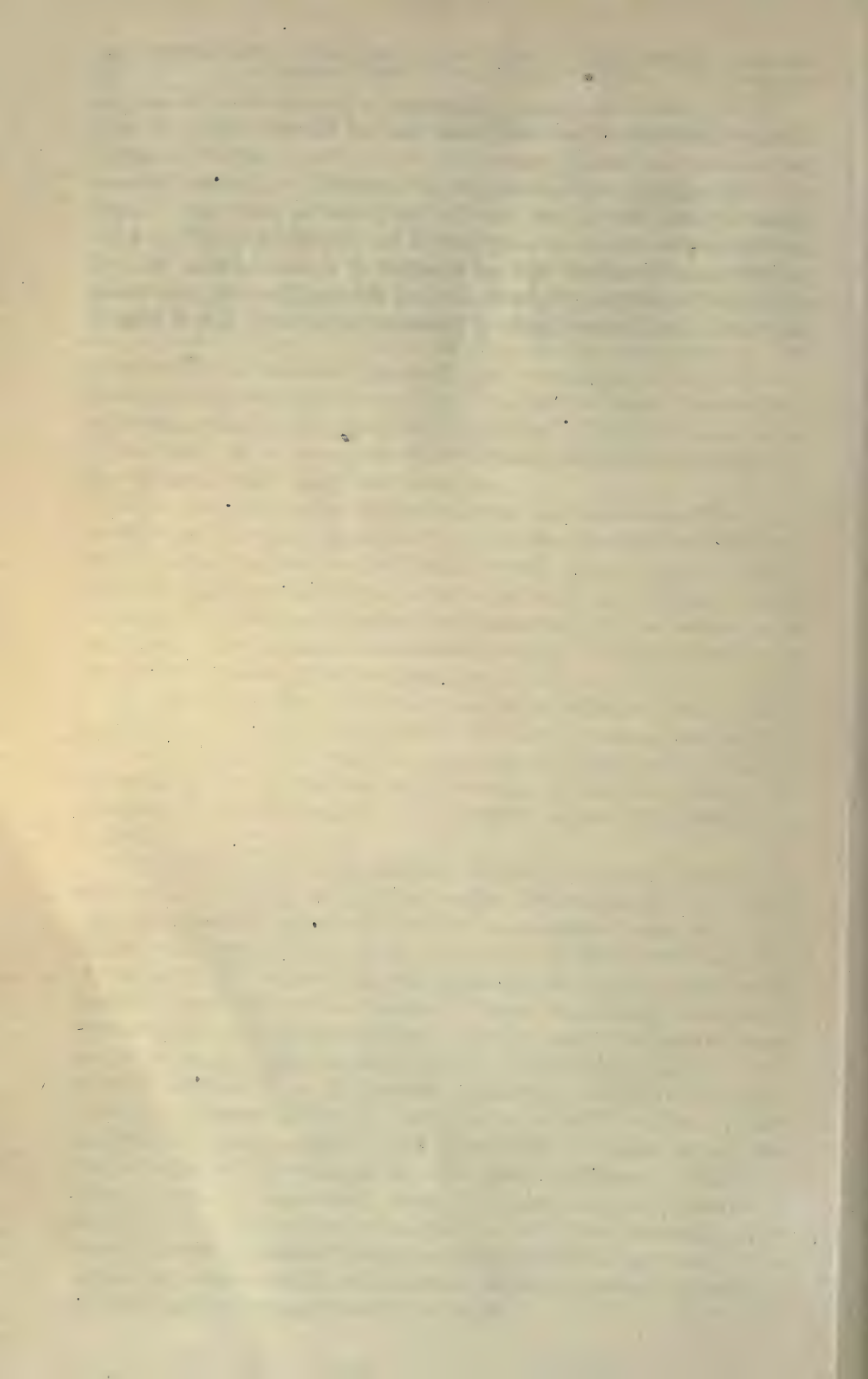
There are 567 universities and colleges in this country, graduating approximately 25,000 young men and women—not counting the professions. Think of what it would mean for these young people if in their sophomore year they could tie up with some bank, insurance company, mercantile house, firm, or corporation, that would assist them in determining their futures and help them in shaping their college course to best equip them for their life-work. Think what it would mean for the development of the industries and commerce of this country to have their ranks recruited with the best young minds of the country. The possibilities of the universal application of such a plan startle the imagination. There are 27,000 banks in this country alone—every one of which would be materially improved by the addition of some college men to its force.

There is a proper place in the industrial and commercial life of this country for every young graduate of our colleges—commerce and industry need them, and they need to find their life-work. Such a system working on a large scale would emphasize as never before the need and advantages of education for success in business, and demonstrate to the practical man the ability of our American universities to rise to the occasion and meet the country's need for young men who can succeed.

We hear a great deal about convincing the hard-headed matter-of-fact business man of the need of education. To the educators of this country I can say, as a business man with experience in training men in industry and banking, that the business man is already convinced; he is waiting for our educators to meet him half-way; he will do his part and go more than half-way.

Underlying the success of this plan for closer cooperation between the universities and business is: (1) the necessity for recognizing the fact that some things our universities are teaching can be taught equally well, if not better, in the practical laboratories of business; (2) the needed concession on the part of our universities of the principle that college credit can be granted for work done off the campus, if it meets with college requirements and comes up to university standards. On this point I am glad to report that in connection with the National City Bank's plan 4 colleges have taken favorable action on the question of granting credits for work done in the bank; 5 others believe that favorable action will be taken by their faculties, who have the matter under advisement; 5 colleges cannot give college credit, and several more have not been heard from. College and business, however, have many means for cooperating, not measured in college credit. Cooperation in selecting the best-fitted students, supervision of studies in business houses by college faculties, suggestions of new subjects for college work by business men, all these are required to give us the ideal business-training course of the future.

We have found the greatest willingness on the part of all the colleges we have dealt with to be of assistance, and, on the other hand, we have had requests from business concerns all over the United States for information with regard to the development of cooperative educational schemes similar to ours. Let us hope that the day is near at hand when colleges and business institutions in every part of the United States will lay aside prejudices and precedents and get together on a common-sense basis to supply the clear-thinking, right-minded, and well-equipped youths, from whom may be developed future captains of commerce, of industry, and of finance.



DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—O. M. PLUMMER, director, Board of Education North Portland, Ore.
Vice-President—GEORGE W. AUCH, president, Board of Education Detroit, Mich.
Secretary—FRANK M. BRUCE, manager, *American School Board Journal* Milwaukee, Wis.

FIRST SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting of the Department of School Administration was called to order in Aeolian Hall at 10:00 A.M., President O. M. Plummer presiding.

An address of welcome was given by William G. Willcox, president, Board of Education, New York City.

Addresses were then delivered by Joseph Lee, member, School Committee, Boston, Mass.; Cora Wilson Stewart, president, Kentucky Illiteracy Commission, Frankfort, Ky.; Edward C. Elliott, chancellor, University of Montana, Helena, Mont.; P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D.C.; Thomas W. Churchill, member, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

The following Committees were appointed by the chairman:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Joseph Lee, member, School Committee, Boston, Mass.
Ossian Lang, member, Board of Education, Mount Vernon, N.Y.
Thomas W. Churchill, member, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

COMMITTEE ON THE STANDARDIZATION OF SCHOOLHOUSE PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTION

Frank Irving Cooper, architect, Boston, Mass., *Chairman*.
S. A. Challman, state commissioner of school buildings, Minneapolis, Minn.
Louis M. Terman, supervisor of hygiene, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Leonard P. Ayres, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y.
C. E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.

At noon a luncheon was tendered by the Department to David B. Johnson, president, National Education Association, at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel, at which 367 members and guests were present.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The meeting was called to order by the president at 10:00 A.M. in the ballroom of the Waldorf.

The following papers were read:

"Functions and Methods of Boards of Education"—Beatrice Winsor, member, Board of Education, Newark, N.J.

"After the Architect"—C. B. J. Snyder, architect, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Functions of the State in Local Administration"—Thomas E. Finegan, deputy state commissioner of education, Albany, N.Y.

"The Business Man and the Public Service"—Jacob M. Loeb, president, Board of Education, Chicago, Ill.

"A Reply"—Ella Flagg Young, formerly superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

The following resolution was then introduced by B. F. Montague, chairman, School Board, Raleigh, N.C.:

1. *Resolved*, That this department request P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, to address a letter to the commissioners of education of each state of the Union, suggesting and urging that each county of the several states send a representative to our next meeting of this association.

2. *Resolved*, That we request said state commissioners to urge every board representing a city or town of 10,000 population to send a representative of the administrative department of the schools of that city or town.

3. *Resolved*, That said state commissioners of the said several states be requested to issue a circular letter to the commissioner of education of each county in the several states setting forth the advantages to be derived by sending delegates to this Association, and that said circular letter be issued to said county commissioners and to the school authorities of each city or town with a population of 10,000 in the month of May in the year 1917.

4. *Resolved*, That the secretary of this department of this Association be requested to forward a copy of these resolutions to P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, and that a copy be sent to the *American School Board Journal* and any other educational journals of like nature with the request that they give the same publicity, particularly in the month of May or June in the year 1917.

The report of the Nominating Committee was read and the following officers were elected:

President—O. M. Plummer, member, Board of Education, Portland, Ore.

Vice-President—Frank D. Wilsey, member, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

Secretary—William C. Bruce, editor, *School Board Journal*, Milwaukee, Wis.

FRANK M. BRUCE, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

WILLIAM G. WILLCOX, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It is my great privilege to say a word of greeting and welcome, as you are met this morning to discuss school administration. It is perhaps but natural that a business man who comes as a recent recruit into the educational ranks should view the problem of school administration from a business standpoint. Others will discuss it on the professional side far more ably than I could do, but I wish to speak briefly of some general principles of efficient administration which apply alike to all forms of organized effort.

The fundamental basis of any effective organization is such harmonious cooperation as utilizes the powers and faculties of all its members to the greatest advantage, and combines them in effective teamwork. Individual ability is important, but individuals, however able, accomplish but little as an organization if they work at cross-purposes. Different qualities, different methods, different points of view supplement and strengthen each other if they pull together, but neutralize each other if they pull in opposite directions.

This does not mean, however, that individuality must be submerged or lost, and that individual incentive has no place in the program. On the

contrary, no organization is effective if it is merely a machine; and there is no more important problem in any organization than the problem of securing, retaining, and utilizing individual initiative, enthusiasm, ambition, and pride of workmanship, while at the same time promoting harmonious cooperation. Careful selection of competent, trustworthy, and loyal individuals is important; intelligent appraisal of their capacity and careful assignment to the work for which they are best fitted is important, but as both will fail without effective teamwork, so also both will fail if these individuals are denied opportunity and incentive to grow and develop.

It is by no means rare to find at the head of a business organization a strong, forceful leader who has built up a large business by the sheer force of his own personality, but who has failed to develop an effective organization because he has been unable or unwilling to tolerate any opposition or independence among his subordinates. The stronger an executive the more danger there is of his dominating his whole organization with his own individual ideas. Strong, capable assistants and successors are often spoiled in the educational field, as they are in the business world, thru lack of responsibility, lack of appreciation, and lack of encouragement in individual initiative. To hit every head that rises above the common level, to snub every expression of diverse opinion, is not the way to develop strength and efficiency in any organization. Good administration does not suppress nor discourage subordinates. A good executive has no occasion to assert his own dignity or superiority. His task is to train strong and effective men and women under him. To give every individual as much responsibility as possible, to hold him accountable for results, to encourage and help him over difficulties, to praise and reward him for success, is as vital in school administration as it is in business administration.

On the other hand, there is danger also in the oft-repeated assertion that the administration of the schools should be left to professional experts without interference from laymen. If education were an exact science, if the work of the educational engineer were based upon established and recognized laws and principles such as guide civil or electrical engineers, then indeed might the educational expert reasonably ask for freedom from ignorant interference, but so long as experts differ radically among themselves, and no one can say with assurance and certainty what should be taught, nor how it should be taught, how long or how short should be the hours or the term, how heavy or how light should be the individual task—so long as these and a thousand other questions of school administration are debatable questions there will always be room for the views and advice of laymen. It is one thing, however, to influence the judgment of a superintendent or principal and quite another thing to force a superintendent or principal to act against his judgment. It is one thing to act thru the superintendent or principal and quite another thing to act over his head. No one can do his best work and no one can develop his own power if con-

stantly exposed to interference from above. Teachers, principals, directors, examiners, and superintendents in their own departments should receive loyal support from their superiors. Anything tending to humiliate them before their subordinates or to undermine and weaken their influence is bad administration. Principals must help teachers to hold the respect and confidence of their classes; superintendents must help principals to hold the respect and confidence of their teachers, and boards of education must be equally jealous of the position and influence of their superintendents if the best results are to be obtained in school administration.

Loyalty from subordinates is universally recognized as a vital part of any organization, but loyalty from superiors toward subordinates is no less vital. Mutual appreciation and mutual confidence are imperative for good teamwork, and they are no less imperative for the development of individual initiative and individual power.

THE EDUCATION OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES

JOSEPH LEE, MEMBER, SCHOOL COMMITTEE, BOSTON, MASS.

I will proceed in this talk on the true educational principle: from the known to the unknown, from the bromide to the bomb.

1. My first piece of wisdom is for school committees, and it is included in the well-known saying of Solomon: "If you keep a dog to bark, don't bark yourself." This saying contains the law and the prophets for all amateur administrators, whether in schools or elsewhere. It applies even to the dogs of war. But what is barking?

a) Don't appoint teachers. Don't promote teachers. That is the superintendent's job. Don't prescribe irrelevant qualifications for teachers. The qualification now most insisted on by school committees is geographical. Not what she knows nor what she can teach—nor whether she knows anything or can teach at all—but where she lives is the question most passionately asked. The teacher must be a resident of the city in which the voters reside, preferably in the part of the town, best of all, in the family of the chief or master voter. The requirement is, of course, all right in my own town, because living in Boston is itself an education. But what a deprivation to the rest of the country! School committees outside of Boston should drop this time-honored test. You think the voters will not let you. Then educate the voters to a new idea: that the schools are for teaching, not for poor relief.

b) Don't bark at the teacher after she is appointed, nor at the principal, nor at the superintendent. People who cannot get used to a stranger, and must bark whenever they see one, are not fitted for service on school committees. Butting into administrative affairs (the dog here fulfilling the office of the goat), whether for the purpose of discrediting an appointee

without the geographical qualification or, worse still, of "helping teacher," is a second way in which the school committee exceeds its province, and is only second in its ill effects.

2. And yet, tho it may surprise long-suffering superintendents, there is a place even for school committees. And there is something for them to do beyond the selection of a superintendent, namely, legislation. For legislation is not barking. It is what the amateur administrator is for. It is the scene-painting part of school administration, containing those features of it that are on so large a scale that even the public may see and understand. And the school committee represents the public, the great body of citizens who support the schools and on whose educational purposes the future of every school system ultimately depends. Here in the larger decisions about the extent and direction of public education the school committee is not only justified in thinking for itself, but as trustee for the public it is obliged to do so. For if it cannot understand what the schools are doing and cannot justify their operation to itself, what chance is there that the general public will understand and justify them? In these larger matters upon which the people have a conscious opinion, be it right or wrong, it is the school committee's business to take the advice of the experts, but not to swallow it whole. They must somehow Fletcherize it, get it assimilated in their systems, before they act upon it.

And I say to superintendents: Be not too impatient with your school committee. It is your safety-first, your shock-absorber. In this legislative sphere it is itself the dog, not now to bark, but to try things on. If you cannot get by with those whom you have seen and labored with, what chance have you with the great public whom you have not seen? Rail not, therefore, at your school committee and its stupidity. It represents the public, and in mental capacity as in other respects it must be a true sample. The slower it is to understand the more valuable are the tests applied to it and the greater your protection.

And then, be it said with deference, sometimes a school committee may know something. It is indeed interesting to notice how often in teaching, as indeed in every other human interest, progress has come from outside the profession. Taking the case of my own town of Boston; the contributions of outsiders to our present school system have included the kindergarten, cooking and sewing, sloyd, playgrounds and physical education, the licensing of minors, medical inspection and nurses in the schools, the social centers, the High School of Practical Arts, the Girls' Trade School, classes for stammerers, and (practically) the special classes for the mentally defective. And Horace Mann was himself a lawyer. Law had its Bentham, medicine its Pasteur, and school administration—may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.

Be not utterly scornful, therefore, of suggestions from amateurs, even from those upon the school committee itself. It is the ambition of most

professionals, and of practically all officials, to escape from every experience without learning anything. And it is wonderful with what skill they manage to come out unscathed, to keep their shields unspotted from profane knowledge, to emerge from every ordeal of suggestion with the same purity of knowledge or of ignorance with which they entered it. Do not take this attitude. Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings, even of school committees, wisdom may occasionally proceed.

There are, in truth, two ways in which superintendents may deal with their committees. They may put things over on them, or they may educate them. Each way has its advantages, but it is a drawback to the former that it does not improve with time; it gets thinner, in fact, is liable to wear out altogether.

Against the other method, that of educating your committee, the objection may justly be made that it is slow. But, on the other hand, it is solid and it is cumulative. School committees have shown, on occasion, almost human intelligence—I have seen it in other members and have felt it working in myself. And then education is after all your business, is it not? All that is necessary is that you should apperceive your job (I have been planning to get in that word ever since I began, and this is the first chance) a little more widely.

And then thru the school committee you educate the public, and thus build up what is, after all, the only solid basis for advance. It may be difficult at first to have faith in the public understanding. When you have seen the people apparently more indignant over the dismissal of an unfit teacher than they have ever become over wasting the time of forty or fifty children every year, when you see them apparently more interested in getting their friends a job than in having their children educated, you are inclined to wonder whether anybody really cares at all for education.

But, courage! What is most needed in a democracy is faith. People really do care if you can once get the thing before them. Make the school visible, develop your parents' associations, let them know your hopes and plans, have school and home visitors, give stereopticon lectures and show the measurable results obtained. I believe that in time we can get the idea accepted by the general public that the schools are for education. The notion is revolutionary, I know, but I think I see a dawning possibility in that direction. For one thing, I think the teachers will back the idea when they understand its implications. Schools for education and not for poor relief means, for them, appointment and promotion by merit. It means teaching treated as a profession, the teacher accepted as a true professional, not as the creature of pull or politics, or as an object of public charity. The teacher will help to educate the public.

And once the public takes it into its head that the schools really are for education, all other good things will follow.

FUNCTIONS AND METHODS OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION

BEATRICE WINSER, MEMBER, BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEWARK, N.Y.

If I had been asked to talk to educators, I should have been most reluctant to do so, because what I am about to say is so obvious and so much a part of the creed of the educator that only the fact that I am talking to fellow-laymen, members of boards of education, gives me courage to attempt to define our functions.

As a librarian I have for years been interested in our schools, and when I was appointed the first woman on the Newark Board of Education, as well as the first woman appointee to any municipal office, I took keen pleasure in the thought that I was to help shape the policies of our system.

From being a desultory reader of matters educational I became an omniverous one and devoured educational periodicals, city-school reports, surveys, and books. As I read I became more and more convinced that the opinions with which I began my studies were correct, and that a school system ought to be managed like a large business enterprise.

As I listened to the matters brought to our attention as members of committees on buildings, grounds and supplies, and instruction and educational supplies, I found that the attitude of the board members toward the superintendent and his associates—and I say this, not in a spirit of carping criticism, but simply to show you the effect of that attitude upon one accustomed to managing a business—was that of employers toward employes and not of directors toward experts.

I decided that this fault could in a measure be attributed to our rules, which perhaps served their purpose well when nine years ago the large elective board of thirty members was superseded by our appointive board of nine, but have long outlived their usefulness.

I began then to study still more seriously the functions and methods of boards of education. As a result of that study I prepared a set of rules, comprising 1653 words, which simply put the members of the board of education in the position of directors of a corporation with legislative functions and with the superintendent as their executive officer. The reason for not shortening the rules still more is that there are certain unfortunate provisions in the state law which prohibit it.

In the rules under which the board of education is still conducting its business there are 5445 words. They put the members of the board in the position where they administer as well as legislate. This is illustrated by the facts: (1) during 16 months there have been held 38 meetings of the whole board and 127 meetings of the two committees of seven members each, and 25 meetings of a committee of six members, a total of 199 (I regret to say that as a member of the board and a member of two committees I felt it my duty to attend 151 of these meetings); (2) nearly all the business brought before the committee has to do with details which

should have been settled by the board's experts under the direction of the superintendent.

The conclusions I reacht, of course, had very little value merely as conclusions of my own, because, after all, I am a layman only. But I submitted the important points in them to leading educational experts of the United States today, men like Paul H. Hanus, Nicholas Murray Butler, G. D. Strayer, Leonard P. Ayres, John Dewey, Frank W. Ballou, Charles H. Judd, George H. Melcher, and P. P. Claxton, and I have their letters of hearty approval.

Then I askt a few leading business concerns, like the General Electric Co., the Whitehead & Hoag Co., the American Oil and Supply Co., the Splittdorf Electric Co., the Lister Chemical Works, and R. C. Jenkinson & Co., whether they would approve of a general-manager plan of administering a \$3,000,000 business such as ours is, and I have also their unqualified approval of my plan, the essence of which is making one man responsible to the board of directors, the executive head of our whole system.

My ideas of the proper functions of a board of education are stated in 148 words, as follows: (1) members of a board of education are directors of a large corporation and should apply the principles of good corporation-management to educational affairs; (2) their executive officers should have authority and be held accountable for results; (3) a board should supply funds, supervise expenditures, and determine the general policy and the extension of the system; (4) its duty is to see that the schools are properly managed, and not to manage them itself; (5) it is not appointed to erect buildings, but to see that they are built; (6) it is not appointed to supervise teachers, but to see that they are supervised; in short, it is appointed, not to do the work itself, but to get it done. As running a school system is an expert business, directed to one end, the education of children, it should be managed in all its aspects by an expert manager, and that manager should be an educator.

NEEDED CHANGES IN THE PRESENT METHOD OF CONDUCTING THE BUSINESS OF A BOARD OF EDUCATION AND REASONS THEREFOR

1. Eliminate standing committees. A city looks to the board of nine members to manage its schools. With standing committees the board breaks itself up into several smaller boards, loses some of that unity of understanding on the part of the whole body which is so essential, scatters its energies, and wastes its time.

2. Systematize its business and give to its executive staff full responsibility for executive detail, and devote itself only to oversight and direction of all that is done.

3. Make the superintendent the executive officer, give him full powers and responsibilities, and hold him strictly accountable for the successful conduct of all departments of the system.

4. Appoint the superintendent for a three years' term.
5. With the superintendent's aid define the functions of every member of the educational service.

The board should say to the superintendent:

Everything to be done here is for one end, the education of the child. Everything you recommend we shall ask you to justify in one way only—by showing that it is necessary to the running of a good school system. You are the expert whom we have put in charge of it, and we shall see that you do your work, and you are to keep us fully informed and at all times convinced that the work is being done as we wish it done—in as complete and effective a manner as funds permit.

If you recommend new things, you must convince us that they are necessary. You will be held strictly accountable for every expenditure. We shall watch the results which you get with the utmost care.

6. The superintendent shall plan a policy of development and submit the same in great detail; the same to include a report on the school system as it is, with recommendations as to what it should be. The board should study the report with great care and decide either for or against the policy laid down. This procedure should be repeated at frequent intervals.

7. The superintendent, as an expert in education, should convince the board, by frequent reports thereon, that the schools are continually progressing in two respects particularly—in the efficiency of teachers and in the character of the training given to the children. The superintendent's business is to secure this progress; the board's duty is to see that he secures it and to give him ample powers with which to produce it.

8. If the board makes its executive officers take full responsibility for the proper workings of the school system, one regular meeting a month of the board will be ample to transact all its business.

9. Adjourned and special meetings may be called when needed.

10. Special committees can be appointed to investigate and report in writing to the board on matters that require very special attention.

In conclusion, let me say that I have discovered by observation and reading that boards of education are fearful of losing prestige, power, and a certain dignity if it is not noted thru the public press that they manage details and give orders to their educational experts, whom they unfortunately look upon as mere subordinates.

This fear of losing publicity and prestige is a prime cause of the constant interference by boards in matters of which they are quite ignorant, and concerning which they can do nothing that is helpful, but much that is harmful.

AFTER THE ARCHITECT

C. B. J. SNYDER, ARCHITECT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

By this alliterative title I do not refer to those occasions after the erection of a new school building where the dissatisfied schoolmasters get after the architect with a sharp stick or mayhap a club. I prefer, rather,

to have your thoughts concerned for a few moments with what happens to the building after the architect turns it over, completed.

The school building is put to various and, perhaps, changing uses. It must be equipt for science classes, housekeeping, dramatics, physical culture, and many forms of industrial training—each with its own particular type of equipment. Every provision is bound round with restrictions, not only from the schoolmaster's point of view, but also as to financial limitations, rules and regulations of the state and municipality, and others which, with the necessity of making the buildings structurally sound and architecturally beautiful—or at least pleasing—altogether affords abundant opportunity for intellectual exercise.

The Old World has long since accepted, as beyond argument, the principle that public buildings must not only serve the protective uses whose needs they supply, but must also adorn the city. There is no class of building to which this quality more fittingly belongs than the schoolhouse. Its occupants are in a plastic state. Whatever lessons of beauty the community is to teach by its parks and buildings, its monuments and its paintings, they are presumably productive of greater results if directed toward the child before its tastes have been blunted by the too-prevalent ugliness of our average American city.

The requirement that the schoolhouse be a lesson in beauty, or at least in good taste, is particularly strong in that it is a material possession of that department of the city which is concerned with the preservation and extension of culture and refinement. More and more in America has the architect been permitted, and even encouraged, to perform this function; to design and construct buildings that are municipal lessons in good proportion, harmonious coloring, and pleasing influence to the eye and mind and spirit of the beholder. Further, the people have come to recognize that this provision applies with particular emphasis to the school building, as not only is the respect of the citizen for his municipality enhanced thereby, but the very purpose of the structure—the education of the children themselves—is greatly furthered.

There are numerous and well-proved instances where there has been a remarkable increase in the efficiency of all the teaching—literary, mathematical, scientific, and all other branches of the work of a school—where the organization as a whole has been transferred from an old, out-of-date structure to one designed and equipt in accordance with latter-day ideas. It reacts very strongly upon the personnel of both the teaching force and the pupils. We all know that there is a certain pleasure in doing even routine work in agreeable and convenient surroundings. This has now become a recognized factor in the manufacturing world, where returns on the investment are far more carefully scrutinized and more easily measured in dollars and cents than is possible in public educational matters. For with the maintenance of pleasing, even if not beautiful, physical surroundings

there is a stimulation of the mental processes, a reduction in fatigue, and hence an improvement in the efficiency among the operatives that results in a very great increase in capacity or output.

The architect does delight in the fact that thru the medium of stone and brick and other rough materials he may perhaps design a building that will be pleasing to the eye and prove adequate and convenient for its occupants. But in the mind of the man giving the best that is in him in the design of a modern school there is also the hope that he is making easier, pleasanter, and more effective the tremendously important work of education which is to be done in the buildings that come from his hand. The architect, however, like the shipbuilder, launches his product and leaves it in other hands; and we have come to believe that unless the fundamental truths I have referred to are grasped and lived up to by those into whose care the buildings come the whole doctrine of beauty and utility is lost.

The schoolmaster is in this respect a most important member of the community, and should lead in the spirit of appreciation, and hence preservation and improvement of not only the building and equipment, but its external setting. To those who have given thought and study to the spirit of protection thrown about the public buildings of Europe there is the ever-present hope that the civic spirit which prompts this, and of which we see certain evidences here and there in our own country, shall quicken and expand so that it soon shall become a part of the everyday education of the child.

There is nothing new, I am sorry to say, in the fact that in very many instances those who were responsible for a beautiful school building with adequate setting of shrubs and flowers, and who have relied upon the civic pride of a neighborhood to care for grass, hedges, and flowering shrubs, have had their faith in human nature shattered and almost lost upon returning at some later date to find the building defaced, the flowers stripped, the shrubs destroyed, and the grass worn down to the ugliness of a dog with the mange. We have laid out open grounds with generous, unobstructed space and have otherwise, as opportunity offered, provided for the development of civic pride, only to find it necessary to inclose the premises with a high iron fence, as if it were a jail instead of a public school.

In Italy, in France, in Germany, and elsewhere you will see open projects which it would be folly to attempt now in New York City. The school child of those countries does not think of destroying the shrubbery nor of defacing the building, knowing, as he does, that should he do so punishment swift and sure would inevitably fall upon him.

The preservation of school grounds and buildings is essentially the responsibility of the schoolmaster. He comes after the architect. The advantages of order, symmetry, and beauty are chiefly assets for his business. We have school buildings which receive from their intelligent masters a care that not only makes them attractive and pleasant, but is

easily translated into dollars and cents, since it materially reduces the cost of maintenance. It pays. It is a splendid provision of mind to see that the purpose for which a building was made pleasant and attractive is given an opportunity to function. Teachers, pupils, and the custodian learn from an intelligent and alert principal the pride and enjoyment that spring from the use of a beautiful building. Neatness and order in such use engender like qualities in the minds of all associated therewith. Carelessness and lack of interest on the part of the principal in this particular matter are reflected in the minds and acts of the pupils. It thus becomes a damage to a community. But a principal or schoolmaster who realizes why a school building was constructed and equipt with an eye to beauty and convenience, who appreciates that its mission cannot succeed unless he becomes its missionary, who maintains a well-ordered, well-cleaned, well-preserved school building—such a one is, as he should be, an agent of civilization and refinement with whom it is a pleasure to work.

FUNCTIONS OF THE STATE IN LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, DEPUTY STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
ALBANY, N.Y.

What I regard as one of the great fundamental principles of school administration in this country is that public education is a function of the state and not a function of a municipality nor of any local division of the state. Every school system of every state in the country has been founded upon that principle, and whenever it has been challenged in any state of the Union, and the courts of the state have had the opportunity to pass upon the question, they have weighed the matter and held that public education is a function of the state and not a function of a locality.

No one can point to a single decision of a court of final jurisdiction in any state in this Union which has held to the contrary.

Now, what is meant by "education being a function of the state"? Do we mean that the state is to put itself in place of the locality and is to dominate the administration of public education in a city or any other section of the state? That is not it at all. It means that the controlling power in public education shall always be reserved to the legislative power of the state, and the locality may exercise such powers as are delegated to it by the legislature.

Let me give you an illustration of what I mean by public education being the function of the state and not of the locality. A few years ago in a city in one of the states of this country there was what is known as a "bipartisan board of education." Now, that sounds good—bipartisan—equal representation in public education of the two great parties. Why think about representation of parties on a board of education? Why

should parties as such be given representation upon a board of education? We have no business to take into consideration the question of parties when we are determining what the personnel of a board of education shall be. We are to take into consideration just one thing, and that one thing is, What is for the best interest of the children of the state? Now, they did have on the board of education in that city representation from both political parties. There were four men on the board, good men—two Democrats and two Republicans—and they sat down to select the teachers. There were only ninety teachers in that city. These four men intended to do just what was the absolutely right thing for the people of their city, and so the first teacher chosen was taken from the Democratic faith, and the next teacher chosen was taken from the Republican faith, and so they proceeded. In this way each of the two great parties had equal representation in the teaching force. There were forty-five teachers taken from the Democratic families and forty-five from the Republican families, and the board of education believed it was discharging its faithful obligation to the people of the city because it was a bipartisan board of education. That worked very well for two years, but the city grew somewhat, and it soon became necessary to appoint ninety-one teachers. The board convened to make their annual appointments, and they proceeded tentatively to assign one teacher to the Democrats and one to the Republicans until they had ninety appointed. The board then proceeded to appoint the ninety-first teacher and the Democratic representatives said: "Now, we carried the election last fall, we elected the mayor, and we think we should have this additional teacher." And the Republican representatives on the board said, "That is very true, but we have carried the election four times out of five; therefore we are entitled to this additional teacher." The board could not agree upon the appointment of that one teacher, and so it decided not to appoint any teachers, and no teachers were appointed. The first of September came, and the schools were not opened; the middle of September came, and the schools were still closed, and on the first day of October the compulsory-attendance law became operative. There was a state law which directed that every child in the state, of school age, should be under instruction on the first of October. Under such law it was the duty of the municipality to provide for the instruction of the children from the first of October until the end of June, and for failure to do this penalties were imposed. This board could not agree, and the head of the state school system had given notice to the board of education that if the schools were not opened on the first of October, he would appoint teachers and see that the schools were opened and properly administered. On the first of October the commissioner of education of that state appointed a temporary superintendent of schools, ninety teachers, attendance officers, and janitors, and the schools were opened. The board of education challenged the legality of the power thus exercised by the commissioner of education and applied to the Supreme

Court for a writ of prohibition to restrain the commissioner of education from performing such function. The court held that the commissioner was not only within his constitutional rights, but was obeying a mandate of the constitution adopted by the people, which required the maintenance of a system of free common schools wherein all the children of the state should be educated, and that it was a question of interest to all the citizens of the state as to whether or not there should be 5000 children in any city of the state deprived of the privilege of attending school. The state was bound to protect every child in its right to an education.

The law of the state makes it the duty of every locality to supply the personal staff necessary for the operation of its school system, and when any community fails to meet such obligation, the state possesses the power to take such action, unusual as it may be, to open and operate the schools.

There are questions coming before the public continually in all sections of the country which involve this principle. In many of the states educational measures have been before legislative bodies which, if enacted into law, would contravene this principle. The assaults which have been made upon school systems, by forces in no way responsible for the management of schools, for the promotion of selfish interests at the expense of the schools make it necessary that educational administrators, who know the evils which will result from the abandonment of this time-honored fundamental American principle of school administration, shall insist upon legislation in every state which shall preserve the independence of officers charged with the administration of public education.

A few years ago I was asked to speak before the educational committee of a legislature where this question was under consideration. In that instance the state had prepared a bill to reorganize the school system of its cities. A bill applying to one city was also introduced. This bill had been prepared by the corporation counsel under the direction of the mayor, and I want to tell you some of its essential features, and see whether or not you would be willing to substitute the principles on which it was based for the great fundamental principle on which the school systems of the several states in the Union have been founded. The first important feature of that bill was to abolish the board of education and to provide that the mayor of the city should be *ex officio* the board of education. The bill further provided that the mayor should be given the power to make annual contracts with teachers; that the mayor should have the right, at his pleasure, to discontinue contracts; that the mayor should have the right to purchase all kinds of supplies used in the school system; that the mayor, as the *ex officio* board of education, should be given the authority to let all contracts for repairs of school buildings and for the construction of new buildings. The mayor who had this bill prepared went just a little farther than any man I have ever known in attempting to devise a scheme for the

administration of a public-school system, and provided that he—the mayor—should further have the power to examine and license teachers.

Now, I submit to you, is there any person in this room who believes that there should be written upon the statutes of any state a law which provides, in effect, that city officers shall have the absolute control and jurisdiction of the administration of the public-school system, and that the principles involved in the proposed legislation should be substituted for the principle that public education, being a state and not a municipal function, shall be administered by the school officers who are independent of municipal authorities?

The several states have universally reserved the power to determine the general policy of public education, but at the same time have recognized the principle that local school authorities should be given the power to administer such policy within the limitations imposed by the state through legislative enactment.

THE BUSINESS MAN AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE

JACOB M. LOEB, PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION, CHICAGO, ILL.

Generally speaking, we Americans know two types in the public life of our municipalities. One is composed of men of legal training, the other of men of no particular training. Both make a business of politics and find a profit in its pursuit. Politics is always the main and often the sole business of their lives. Briefless lawyers or misfits from various vocations fill the large places in the public service. An aptitude for forensic declamation characterizes one type, the ability to control votes, the other. "Neither," to quote James Bryce in *The American Commonwealth*, "has any comprehension of political questions or zeal for political principles; politics means to them merely a scramble for places or jobs." These political conditions arise largely out of social and economic ones. There is, as yet, no large leisure class with time to give service to the community, no intellectual group with minds bent on political science, no independent wealth with inclination toward public affairs. Those who have leisure are engrossed in the pursuit of the light and vapid pleasures of life. Those who have education are devoted to less vital, or perhaps more profitable, studies. Those who have wealth are striving for still larger accumulations. In the main there is no public spirit, and the public service is left to the ill-equipped and the unfit.

With a better social attitude, with a more universal higher education, with a greater economic security, there should be promise of considerable and important changes. To speak of one of these is the purpose of this paper. I refer to the advent of the business man to public service. I come to you as a business man, and—in all modesty I say it—as a successful one. The business man need make no apology because of the fact that he is

in business, nor because of the fact that he is successful. Neither is he to be condemned either for his business or for his success, provided only his business has been properly conducted and his success honestly attained. He should not be excluded from, but should be welcomed into, the public service; for the very capacity which has made for the development and success of his business will make for the good and betterment of the public service. Business-management and business methods are needed, sadly needed, in the public service. No one is better qualified to apply them to the public service than the independent and successful man of affairs.

We must differentiate between the business man in the public service and the politician who has a business. One is a new, comparatively rare, and a desirable type; the other is an old, familiar, and undesirable type. One brings business ability and experience to the solution of the problems of the public's business; the other uses his public trust and official position for the advantage of his private business. One enters the public life because he has ideals; the other because he lacks them. One works for the benefit of the municipality; the other for personal profit. One strives for the good of the service; the other for the good of the servant.

The business man who enters the public service has no easy road to travel. The conduct of our municipal business has, in the main, been such as would involve a private business in bankruptcy. Its management has been loose, its methods slipshod, and its trend shiftless. It has been characterized by favoritism, spoils, and corruption. Political futures and party fortunes, not sound fundamentals, have been its determining factors. Contracts have been let and positions assigned with a view to currying favor or influencing votes regardless of economies or efficiency. The business man who deliberates and seeks the truth, who demands the elimination of waste and decries extravagance, who wants to put the municipal business on a business basis, meets with opposition. He is urged to do what is expedient rather than what is sound. If he refuses, he is threatened with political annihilation.

The business man who enters public life must be prepared to make sacrifices, not only of time which might be valuable to his own business, but more. He will be abused, his motives will be impugned. An established order resents interference. It resists change. The professional politician has so long been in undisturbed and comfortable control of municipal affairs that he cannot comprehend the participation of honest, capable, and independent business men. He has drunk so long at the public trough that he cannot understand why anyone should come to the trough except to drink. He has stabled so long in the public stall that he chafes at sharing it with a newcomer. That the trough is not his alone, or that the stall may need renovating, is to him inconceivable. So the business man who contests for a place beside him and who, forsooth, differs from him has his purposes questioned, is vilified and vituperated. All of this must not

deter him from continuing in the public service. It is part of the sacrifice which he must make in the community interest. It is part of the necessity which compels him to remain. It is part of the goad which drives him to persist. It is part of the proof positive and convincing that he is needed in the public service.

You will pardon me if I speak, nay, you will expect me to speak, of the business man in the branch of the public service in which most of us here are engaged, namely, public education. There is no place which is more worthy of his time, his thought, and his energy. There is no place for which he is better fitted, none where he is more needed. The business of the public schools is big and various. There is a large investment of the public moneys. There are large holdings of property, real and personal. There are tremendous incomes and expenditures. The product of that business is second in importance to no other. The child who is to be the future citizen of our municipalities and our nation is here in the making. That the investment may be safeguarded, that the property may be managed in a business-like manner, that expenditures may be wisely adjusted to incomes, that the interests of the school child may be conserved, that they may not be subordinated to those of designing partisans—for this the business man is fitted by experience and training. It is true that he is not qualified to arrange the curriculum nor to select school teachers. That these functions lie far from his proper field is beyond question. But it is also true, and should be beyond question, that they are neither the function of any persons nor power other than those of the trained educators—the general superintendent of schools and his staff. It is for no faction nor class to say what the child shall be taught nor who shall teach him.

I have no quarrel with trades-unions, properly conducted and in their proper place, but a trades-union in the public school is intolerable. Teaching is not a trade. It is a profession and one of the noblest professions. In principle and in practice trades-unionism is inconsistent with, and unnecessary to, a professional career. In the schools it makes for a divided allegiance; it breeds suspicion and discontent; it destroys harmony and creates strife; it interferes with discipline and halts efficiency.

The young teacher comes into the service full of enthusiasm for her work. Her thoughts are engrossed with the children. But no sooner is she engaged than the union sets to work poisoning her mind. She is told that she cannot stand alone, that her enthusiasm and her capacity will not win her recognition, that she must look to the union, as if she were in a trade, either for promotion or salary increase. "The slogan of the union," she is told, "is not children first, but teachers first." She is made to view herself as a victim. "Her employer, the board of education," she is led to believe, "is trying to crush her and to keep her down." Class prejudice is encouraged and class hate engendered. Her ideals are shattered. She had hoped to devote herself to a noble and sacred calling. She finds herself

in a sordid, salary-grabbing and self-seeking occupation. She is cajoled, then threatened, should she still not affiliate herself with the teachers' union. If she submits, she pays her fees as peace insurance and keeps silent to avoid trouble. If she resists, she feels the subtle and intriguing lash of the persecutor. In either event, she is terrorized, and the school children suffer. The inner circle, the few in sympathy with, and in control of, the union—openly dissatisfied, contemptuous, and rebellious toward those in authority—send forward children who in turn are likely to be dissatisfied, contemptuous, and rebellious toward authority, and to have no regard and no respect for law and order.

I am not theorizing nor drawing on my imagination. I am stating facts as I have actually found them. Not fitness, but allegiance to a class, not efficiency, but membership in a trades-union, in my experience, have been the tests by which a teacher's right to position or promotion were determined. Beside the subterranean influences at work in our public-school system; beside the high-handed methods employed—sometimes secretly, sometimes openly and barefaced, but always thoroly organized—the influences, the fraud and trickery which characterize the lowest type of ward politics; the violence and graft of the labor movement, which even its most ardent admirers will not defend, pale into insignificance—pale because those influences are at work and those methods employed to the lasting detriment of the most delicate, the most plastic, the most sacred charges which God has given us—the mind and soul of the school child. They are made the plaything, the shuttlecock, of a small, ambitious, and designing coterie, blinded to everything but self by a lust for power and dominance.

No other learned profession presents such conditions. No other is unionized. Bar associations, medical societies, and engineers, architects, and ministers of the gospel in groups are maintained for the free interchange of new and valuable ideas. They are intended for the good, not the degradation, of the professions. Men devoted to higher education and scientific pursuits have their associations. But none of these meets and exists to discuss fees, pay, and so-called working conditions. By all means let us have a teachers' organization. But let the leadership go to the best teachers, not to the most astute politicians. Let the organization discuss problems of education, not the problems of self. "No servant can serve two masters, for either he will hate the one and love the other, or he will hold to the one and despise the other. You cannot serve God and mammon." So spoke the greatest Teacher of them all, the greatest Teacher the world has ever known.

No father with children in attendance at the public schools, no citizen who loves his country's institutions, no man with red blood in his veins can sit idly by and let conditions as they are go unchallenged. No true business man who, in his private business, selects workers with a view to their ability,

who advances them for merit and rewards them for loyalty, can do other than register his protest when he finds a different and a demoralizing set of standards fixing the selection, the advancement, and the reward of servants in that branch of the public service in whose administration he has been chosen to participate. If he has had success in his private business and his success is lasting, it is because he has brought energy, hard work, efficiency, and high ideals to it. Competition has been constant and persistent. To succeed he has had to offer his consumer a better product or his clientèle a more attractive service than was offered by his competitor. To accomplish this, skilled workers, capable assistants, and conscientious lieutenants were required. Pull and "outside" interference have prevented neither the elimination of the unfit nor the recognition of the competent man or woman in his employ. He cannot understand why the same principles and the same course of conduct which he has successfully applied to his private business cannot and should not, with equal success, be applied to the business of the public schools. So he undertakes to apply them. Of course, here again his task will be a difficult one. He will be reviled by the press. Let him remember that the press is not always independent. It has news to sell. Not infrequently it gives its readers what it thinks they want instead of what they ought to have. He will be discouraged by his political sponsors. Let him remember that success of party, not the best public service, may be their predominant aim. He will be abused by the "sob-sisters." Let him remember that they are moved more often by maudlin sentimentalism than by a knowledge of the facts. He will feel the pressure of public opinion. Let him remember that too often "public opinion is a controlled opinion," and that the controllers are not always disinterested nor honest. He will be betrayed even by an associate who may be a fellow-business man with political aspirations, standing in mortal dread of that bugaboo, that myth, "the labor vote." Let him but strive the harder. His will be the unpopular position. Let him defend it fearlessly. His is the task of helping to introduce sound business-management into a vital department of the public service. His is the task of helping to reclaim the profession of teaching and to free it from the baneful influences which threaten to prostitute it to base purposes. It will take of his time. It will be worthy of his best thinking. It will require all of his courage. He may be courting political oblivion; but withal he is a business man and he prefers good business to bad politics.

A REPLY

ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, FORMERLY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
CHICAGO, ILL.

I thought this morning that I should speak on the subject of "The Relation of the Superintendent to the Teachers," but some statements in the last paper oblige me to move somewhat from that subject and get the truth before you. The feeling of authority which possesses the human soul when it gets into a position of recognized influence is something that no one can fully estimate.

Have you read Bury's *History of the Freedom of Thought*, published within the last two or three years? If you haven't, I wish that all of you, every man and woman in this room, would buy a copy of that book and learn something about what the human race has suffered and done in order to attain a fairly respectable right to freedom of thought and its expression.

No one realizes more fully than I the difficulties in carrying out that plan which has been referred to by the president and was very finely outlined in the first paper—having the members of the board attend to all the administrative business affairs, and the expert—the superintendent—attend to the educational affairs. And in the last part of that first paper was the gathering up of the main difficulty—that the men and women who are on the board of education, almost without exception, are there with someone behind them. If they are successful business men, the commercial organizations are behind them, and the successful women have the women's clubs behind them, and so they must maintain the standards set by the men or the clubs or the organizations which have put them there as the mouthpiece. Labor unions, teachers in federations, teachers whose federations are affiliated with labor unions, seem to be the main points in the mind of the business man who has just addressed you.

The teachers of this country have the great work of preparing the children for efficient membership in this democracy when they become voting citizens. The teacher has to prepare the pupils, not, as in common parlance, to become as those who are taken to the polls and referred to as "voting cattle," but to become men and women who know the duties and the rights of an American citizen and are ready to meet them and fulfill them. That is the work of the teacher.

I have a theory—I know it will not be supported here—that first and foremost, no person should ever be on a public board of education who does not send his own children, or did not send his own children while they were of school age, to the public schools. And why should that restriction be made? Because sympathy with the work of the school should be given, and can be given, only by one who believes in the public-school ideals laid down in the state constitutions in this country with their system of public

schools freed from sectarianism, freed from everything except that which makes citizens of this American country, and not by one who takes his money and his children, and puts them into a pay school because they will get into better society, or by one who for religious purposes draws away from the 46 constitutions of the 48 states that laid down the law that there is to be no sectarianism nor any religious instruction in the public school, and who, because of that, must turn to the sectarian school and send his children there—these people ought not to be on the board of education. They cannot have sympathy with the aim that animates the public school.

When I began teaching in the city of Chicago, the teaching force was so small that the superintendent, who had his institutes once a month, had in one schoolroom the teachers of the high school, the principal of the high school—there was then only one—the principal of the elementary schools, and all the grade teachers. There we met and discuss, on the same level, the subjects which were presented to us, or which were raised by persons present. But today it is simply impossible for the teachers in a great city or for even the principals, in a city like New York, to meet and discuss freely the questions—a few do the talking, and they talk to the galleries. With this growth of the public-school system in cities like New York and Chicago, where a large proportion of the membership of the public school is made up of the foreign element and of Americans who have not yet learned to be successful business men—and it is true, not only in these two cities, but wherever there has developed a good-sized school system—there has been a tendency toward factory-evolution and factory-management, and the teachers, like children who stand at machines, are told just what to do. The teachers, instead of being the great moving force, educating and developing the powers of the human mind in such a way that they shall contribute to the power and the efficiency of this democracy, tend to become mere workers at the treadmill, but they are doing all thru this country that which shows that it is difficult to crush the human mind and the love of freedom in the hearts and lives of people who are qualified to teach school. As a result they are organizing federations to get together and discuss those questions which are vital in the life of the children and in the life of the teachers—you cannot separate the life of the children and the life of the teacher if you know what you are about.

In Chicago—I might as well say Chicago outright; you know that what has been said referred to Chicago—as a district superintendent I saw the beginnings of the Chicago Teachers' Federation, and I felt very uneasy; I feared those teachers were becoming too grasping—else why were they organizing the federation, independent of the superintendent and the board of education? I was not large enough in the beginning to see, I had not the insight to see, that these women were realizing that they had not the freedom, the power, which people should have who are to train the

minds of the children. They came into the committee (I used to attend the meetings of the Committee on School-Management when I was a district superintendent), and askt that the board consider increasing their salaries. I can see that committee now, as they sat there and listened calmly, with immovable, expressionless faces. When all had spoken, the chairman askt whether there were any more to speak. There were no more; hence they were dismiss; and then the smile that went around that table! They had had their say. I don't know whether you take that situation in fully or not. The result was—nothing! And again they came, and the same courteous reception and the same dismissal and the same nothing! And after a while they said, "This is silly."

When they were affiliated with the Labor Union I was sorry. I thought they had made a great mistake, and I said publicly that I thought it was a mistake, and on general principles I would be willing to make that statement today. But what affected my general principles and brought me down to something special? It was this. They found that in order to get anything done they must have voting power behind them. And they found that the people, the men, in their own station and rank in life, the college-bred men, were not ready to do anything for them; therefore they were compelled to go in with those who had felt the oppression and the grind of the power of riches. That is why they went into the Federation of Labor.

With regard to their browbeating young teachers: if a person desires to make friends with one in authority, and that person has a noble mind and dare speak what is in it, and speak it properly, he can go to those in authority and lay his condition or wishes before them; but if a person has a mean mind, he will go and tell the one in authority the petty thing against somebody which is concocted to please the person in authority, and that, I think, is the main source of this talk that was given here more dramatically than I can repeat it. Small-minded persons have gone to those who are opposed to the Federation of Teachers and have described those things as they have been described here.

My friends, which shall we accept? The words of a body of teachers who have studied the way to lead children to the higher lights and the broader spheres and the dignity and nobility of citizenship in this country, or shall we accept the tales told by those who curry favor? That is what I need to know, and I speak in all sincerity, just as I assume that the speaker before me believed what he said. But I know more about it. I know what I am talking about, and I know that these talks of intimidation and browbeating are the results of a currying of favor with those members of the board who are known to have such affiliations as to believe that teachers must come to realize that they are the great army of the employed, and it is their business to be careful and walk circumspectly before their employers.

I am very sorry—I had no idea that I should hear the teachers of Chicago attackt as they have been, and if the reader of that paper had workt in those schools, or if he had gone thru those schools, or if he had patronized those schools, he could not so attack these teachers.

I desire to make one more point. In every body of people there will always develop two parties. It is for the good of the nation that we have the radical and the conservative. It is for the good of any organization that there be two parties, but not necessarily factions. But what are you going to do if bitterness is developpt? And what develops bitterness? That is the question. There is evidence and report of great bitterness between some members of the board and the teachers. That bitterness originated in the class antagonism, developpt by the teachers in bringing wealthy tax-dodgers under the law. It has no basis in the classroom. I believe—and I have visited the schools of almost every large and middle-sized city and town in this country—I believe that nowhere does there exist a clearer vision of the aim of the public schools, and nowhere is there more life that indicates the conduct of the work in harmony with that vision than in the city of Chicago.

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—J. L. HOLTSCLAW, director, High School of CommerceDetroit, Mich.
Vice-President—L. GILBERT DAKE, Soldan High SchoolSt. Louis, Mo.
Secretary—CLYDE BLANCHARD, instructor in business economy, extension
division, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The department met in Room 804, Washington Irving High School, at 9:30 A.M., with President Holtsclaw in the chair.

The secretary of the department being absent, the chair appointed H. G. Healey, New York, N.Y., secretary *pro tem*.

The following program was given:

"Fundamental Aims in the Teaching of Bookkeeping"—W. E. Bartholomew, specialist in commercial education, state department of Education, Albany, N.Y.

"Penmanship in Business High Schools"—Horace G. Healey, editor, *Business Journal*, New York, N.Y.

"Typewriting in the Public Schools"—Frederick R. Beygrau, instructor in typewriting, High School of Commerce, New York, N.Y.

"The Organization of a Business-Practice and Office-Routine Course and How to Make It a Success in Business High Schools"—W. J. McCarty, director, business-practice department, Packard Commercial School, New York, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The department met in Room 804, Washington Irving High School, at 9:30 A.M., with President Holtsclaw in the chair.

The following program was presented:

"Economics in the Commercial High School"—Cheesman A. Herrick, president, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

"The Relation of the Library to Business Education"—Louise B. Krause, ex-president, Chicago Library Club, and librarian, H. M. Byllesby & Co., Chicago, Ill.

"How Teachers Can Increase the Efficiency of Accounting and Bookkeeping Courses"—Robert Montgomery, ex-president of the American Association of Public Accountants and assistant professor of accounting, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"The Teaching of Business English and Advertising in Business High Schools"—George B. Hotchkiss, professor of business English and head of the advertising and market division, New York University School of Commerce, New York, N.Y.

The report of the Committee on Research, Standardization, and Correlation was in the form of three papers, as follows:

"Commercial Geography"—J. Paul Goode, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

"Business English"—James Fleming Hosc, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"Shorthand and Typewriting"—Ada R. Collins, Colorado Springs, Colo.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—Cheesman A. Herrick, president, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

Vice-President—Horace G. Healey, Evander Childs High School, New York, N.Y.

Secretary—George H. Van Tuyl, High School of Commerce, New York, N.Y.

HORACE G. HEALEY, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

*FUNDAMENTAL AIMS IN THE TEACHING OF
BOOKKEEPING*

W. E. BARTHOLOMEW, SPECIALIST IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, STATE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ALBANY, N.Y.

Bookkeeping is the pioneer among commercial subjects. The earliest business schools taught bookkeeping primarily, altho penmanship and commercial arithmetic were given a measure of attention in their relation to the main subject. The high schools taught bookkeeping long before commercial courses with their complete list of commercial subjects were thought of. At one time it was a required subject for one of the academic diplomas issued by the University of the State of New York, the idea being that a knowledge of bookkeeping was desirable in a general high-school education. The teaching of bookkeeping thus marked the beginning of commercial education. With the development of commercial work in the high schools and the consequent increase in the number of commercial subjects, bookkeeping has retained an important place in the curriculum of commercial studies. Today a high-school commercial course is considered scarcely worthy of the name unless it prescribes two or three years' study of this subject. Aside from the "momentum of an early start," the general conviction that bookkeeping has direct value in the preparation for business life tends to make it still the central subject in the commercial group of secondary-school studies.

There are two points of view from which one may judge the value of bookkeeping training—the vocational and the educational, the former looking toward values directly practical, the latter looking more toward informational, disciplinary, and cultural values in the subject. The vocational viewpoint presupposes that the subject-matter has a close relation to the work of the business office, and that the school training will assist the boy or girl in taking up readily the duties of a clerical position. It is evident at once that the extent to which the teaching becomes practical must be determined by the success with which the work of the school is adapted to the needs of the business office. The character of the work of the business office has changed greatly during the last twenty or thirty years, so that what was formerly vocational instruction in bookkeeping would not now be so considered. During that time we have observed the remarkable development of "big business" and the gradual elimination of the small establishment. The simple methods of keeping accounts, requiring not much more than the use of the daybook, journal, and ledger, have been supplanted by elaborate systems of accounts and statistical bookkeeping involving all the modern labor-saving devices. The work of the modern business office,

like that of the factory, which it may control, is highly specialized. This condition is quite in contrast with that in the small business office in which one person frequently is charged, not only with making the bookkeeping records, but also with performing the variety of details incident to the transactions that occur in the course of a day's business. While the bookkeeper in charge of the small office needs to have a fairly comprehensive knowledge of bookkeeping principles and practice and of business procedure, the clerk in the larger office has very little occasion to apply even the elementary principles of bookkeeping.

As you know, bookkeeping instruction, as generally carried on, centers about the so-called "bookkeeping set," a series of connected and related business transactions designed to typify business routine from the making of the investment to the closing of the books and the preparation of statements. Business practice—that is, the preparation and the handling of business papers—forms usually a large part of the work of the set. Now, if our pupils were still going chiefly into the smaller business offices, there might be some reason for emphasizing the routine of business transactions. Since, however, the majority of boys and girls who take clerical positions find themselves confronted with the specialized work of the modern office, the value of the routine form of bookkeeping instruction becomes very slight indeed. It is desirable, therefore, to make a change from this old-time method of presentation to the topical method by which the various phases of the subject may be treated intensively in order to develop skill in doing the work of the single and specialized task. Furthermore, the topical method will permit the application of sound teaching principles not possible by the other method.

In the intensive treatment made possible by this method there is an opportunity for giving a training suited to the requirements of the modern clerical positions. A few illustrations will serve to make my meaning clear. Take, for example, the subject of billing or invoicing. After the pupil has learned the correct method of writing an invoice and has become familiar with the various types of invoices, exercises typifying the work of the invoice clerk should be introduced. With a given price list, a stack of orders, and a pad of billheads he should be instructed to prepare the invoices, list them on a sales sheet, which may contain columns for different departments of a business, and make a recapitulation of the totals. Similar exercises may be prepared for the writing of notes and the subsequent recording in the billbook. The work of the cashier may be illustrated by giving the pupil a page of the cashbook with instructions to enter the cash receipts from the record slips or the original cash papers, and the cash payments from the stubs of a checkbook, the page to be properly balanced as at the close of the day. The distribution of charges from vouchers to a voucher register may also be made an excellent exercise. Exercises of this character afford drill in "working under pressure," something that is

demanding of all office workers. In every bit of this work accuracy and facility in execution must be emphasized and insisted upon.

I have not said anything about the adaptation of subject-matter to the requirements of the clerical positions. The great variety of methods for doing the same kind of work makes it inadvisable to model too closely after the practice of any particular office. The vocational purpose will be realized better by duplicating as closely as possible some of the working conditions in which the pupil will ultimately find himself than by attempting to embody the exact duties of any specialized clerical positions that happen to come to the attention of the teacher.

But there is something more to be accomplished in the teaching of bookkeeping. Properly taught, the subject possesses important educational value and may thus become a factor in the general training, not only of commercial pupils, but of all high-school pupils. A knowledge of the general principles of accounts and of business procedure will enable the clerk in the specialized position to understand better how his particular unit of work forms an integral part of the whole accounting system. With an intelligent appreciation of the application of bookkeeping principles in the system in use in his office, he will be better qualified for the advancement that every office clerk has reason to expect. The bookkeeping or business practice set with its distracting business routine and its superabundance of business practice has hindered the sort of teaching that gives the subject its real educational value.

While most people are willing to admit that bookkeeping, properly taught, furnishes a field for the development of mental qualities, there are few outside the commercial teaching profession who have any appreciation of the disciplinary value of the subject. This is partly explained by the fact that the written record or statement is so much in evidence in bookkeeping work. They do not appreciate that this is, or should be, merely the formal expression of results obtained by the very best application of the trained powers of the mind. Of course, if the instruction stops with giving directions for the mechanical work involved in the preparation of the written record, it results in little or no mental discipline.

In a recent report on commercial work in the city of Cleveland is given the following list of mental qualities most desired in business:

- Ability to associate ideas and to group facts
- Habit of seeing part in relation to whole
- Ability to note resemblances
- Ability to make deductions
- Sense of system; classification and subordination
- Judgment
- Conscious habits of attention, observation, memory
- Ability to assimilate ideas and facts
- Accuracy

As the writer says, bookkeeping furnishes the practice field for all the reasoning qualities and an abundant chance for drill in the habit of accuracy.

If time permitted, it could be shown wherein these qualities are trained to a greater or less degree in one or another phase of the subject. Aside from the routine work of making entries, posting, etc., the problems involved in the preparation of an income and profit-and-loss statement, in opening and closing entries, in partnership settlements, and the like furnish an excellent opportunity for developing the ability to associate ideas and to group facts, the habit of seeing part in the relation to the whole, the sense of system, judgment, and accuracy. The study of such topics as depreciation and reserves affords excellent training in reason and judgment. The ability to make deductions is exercised in the analytical study of the accounting facts that pupils should be required to make all thru the course.

We should not overlook the fact, however, that disciplinary training results from the quality of the teaching rather than from the subject-matter itself. It is not necessary that the teacher have in mind a conscious aim in this direction. He must regard a thoroughgoing treatment of the subject as the important consideration, and, in accomplishing his desired purpose, he will obtain, as a by-product of his teaching, the trained minds of the pupils. Just as the by-product in an industry may possess greater value than the primary product, so the mental qualities the pupil acquires may ultimately be of greater value to him than the knowledge he has gained of the subject.

Finally, the subject of bookkeeping can be given cultural value, if we take Dr. John Dewey's definition of culture as the vital union of information and discipline, designating the socialization of the individual in his whole outlook upon life and his mode of dealing with it. Many of the economic forces operating in the different phases of activity are defined in a language expressed in accounting terms. Bookkeeping, therefore, in its proper presentation, not only should contribute a broader understanding of the activities of commercial life, but should enable the possessor of a knowledge of its principles to appreciate more fully the significance of the phenomena of business in their relation to the rest of his affairs.

PENMANSHIP IN BUSINESS HIGH SCHOOLS

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It is an open question in the minds of many educators whether penmanship is, or is not, a high-school subject. For many years I maintained the position that, if properly taught and if sufficient time were given to the subject in the grammar grades, there would be no need for specific instruction in penmanship in the high school. That was before I had had high-school experience. After several years of active work as chairman of the department of writing in one of the largest high schools in America, and after having had many opportunities to inspect, not only the work, but the

methods employed in teaching the subject in a large number of other high schools, I am willing to go on record as saying that the subject should not only be taught and carefully supervised thruout the high-school course, but it should be continued even into the college course, if the student has not acquired sufficient skill in movement, sufficient degree in quality of line, and sufficient accuracy in application of form. In other words, I do not believe there is a period in the course of the pupil's education where we may arbitrarily say that supervision of the subject of penmanship may be automatically discontinued.

To give sufficient time in the elementary grades for the thoro mastery of this subject and the perfect crystallization of correct habits in posture, position, and execution, would make it necessary to neglect other and equally important subjects in the course of study. Another obstacle lying in the path leading to the point where adequate preparation and training in the subject of penmanship has reached the stage where it no longer need receive the attention of the teacher, is the fact that pupils leaving the elementary grades at the age of thirteen or fourteen years have not sufficiently matured to warrant our belief that muscle and nerve coordination, strength of character and definiteness of execution, will still retain their present degree of efficiency. Pupils from this age on undergo great changes physiologically and psychologically. If this period be not carefully supervised, there is great danger of relaxation and reversion, to say nothing of the unwelcome entrance into the intellectual and physical natures of those characteristics which are sure to become impediments.

The subject, I believe, should be treated somewhat differently in the high schools. Individual-instruction, as against class-instruction, should predominate. At the beginning of the course a careful examination should be made of the writing of each student, and at once a process of elimination of serious faults, both in form and execution, should be entered upon, and that which is correct should be substituted. Particular attention should be given to assisting the pupil in adapting his style of writing, not only to immediate school needs, but to the needs of the business world in general. To this end considerable drill should be devoted to writing in circumscribed spaces similar to those found in the blanks of business papers, journals, ledgers, etc. Short loops, small capitals, and compact grouping should characterize this part of the work.

There will be little, if any, need to devote time to elementary movement drills as such. Whatever practice work is done in this line should be upon either word or sentence drills.

By reason of the more extensive experience and matured judgment on the part of the pupil, a closer mathematical analysis may be made of letter and word forms. Pupils in the elementary grades are inclined to rely upon the imitative faculties alone in mastering these forms. We should now appeal to the constructive faculties—those faculties which enable one to

measure and compare. I would require pupils to block out in proper proportion, not only the letters themselves, but the proper spacing which should be found between various letters. The chief cause of the failure on the part of students to maintain correct letter and word forms after they leave school is that they make these forms a matter of memory and not of reason. If they know, for instance, that the capital *M* is only three-fourths as wide as it is high, they will not, in their practical work, make it two or three times as wide.

During this period the matter of correct posture will be the object of the greatest care. The adolescent age is almost synonymous with the "slouchy" age. Pupils who have never appeared tired or lazy or careless before will frequently show many evidences of these traits of character during this age. This is a good period also to train the pupil in the exercise of proper choice and discrimination in the matter of materials and equipment.

On the whole, the teacher of writing in the high school will find that each pupil presents individual problems requiring the exercise of patience, judgment, and common-sense. While some pupils will possibly need to have instruction and supervision thruout the first part of their high-school course at least, others may enter the school who have well-formed habits and who should be excused from the writing class in order to devote their time to their other studies. I would place a premium upon conscientious effort and application by excusing pupils from the writing class just as soon as they have shown by their work and interest that they are qualified to continue without the teacher's help. On the other hand, I should reassign to the writing class those students, in whatever grade the work may be, who show the least signs of slipping back either in their writing or in their posture.

TYPEWRITING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Carlyle says: "Man is a tool-using animal. He can use tools, devise tools; with these the granite mountains melt into dust before him; he kneads the glowing iron as if it were soft paste; seas are his highways, winds and fires his unwearying steeds. Nowhere do you find him without tools—without tools he is nothing; with tools he is all." Typewriting is one of the preliminary steps in business life—the young man or the young woman at the right hand of the employer has an excellent opportunity to learn the business. Typewriting widens the reach and the powers. The typewriter is an aid to the poor speller, the poor penman, and the sluggish thinker. It is therefore of little wonder that many of our leading educators advocate the use of the typewriter in the early stages of a child's education,

and it is indeed the right course. From my experience in the High School of Commerce, which has one of the largest typewriting departments in the world, I have long since come to the conclusion that typewriting should be taught in the first year of the high-school course; in other words, "the earlier the better." Anyone who has the will power may learn to operate a typewriter scientifically. Interest, attention, and will are three most important psychological factors. It is presumed one has the interest when one desires to learn typewriting. Then all other things must be sacrificed to attention. Every mistake in typewriting is due to an error of the mind and not of the fingers. However, the mind is not wrong when it simply wanders with some other line of thought and the necessary concentration is lost. The only remedy for errors in typewriting, then, is the development of this concentration, which is one of the most important faculties the typist can possess. A great opportunity is given for this development in memorizing the keyboard in a darkened room by means of a stereopticon, as will be explained later.

The development of a degree of concentration which enables one to keep the mind on one thing alone is essential. This is not easy to do. Few have the power naturally; it must be developed, but it is worth cultivating. The mental side of typewriting rarely receives much attention from the beginner. The reason for this is that it is looked upon as being purely mechanical. This is far from true. The more attention you give to the mental side of the question at the beginning the deeper and more lasting will be the impression of the location of the keys. Time is wasted if one practices while the thoughts are flitting from one subject to another far from the one which should have undivided attention. Real progress can be made only when the attention is concentrated upon the subject and the will is used in pushing the work steadily along. Success in typewriting means the breaking of a bad habit, already formed, rather than a creation of a new one. Break the student of the habit of looking at the keys, and one of the hardest tasks in typewriting will have been accomplished. Shields or blank keys are not altogether satisfactory, because there is always a tendency to look at the keyboard.

There are some excellent textbooks on the market which teach the student how to operate a machine by touch, but I have found that it requires something more than a textbook to compel a student to break the inborn habit of "not thinking when it is not absolutely necessary," and to force him to write by the sense of touch.

It is true that shields and blank keys have been successfully used in teaching touch typewriting, but not in very large classes. No matter how vigilant the teacher may be, there will always be a temptation to look at the keys when the attention of the instructor is momentarily distracted.

I hold that the proper way to teach touch typewriting is by visual instruction. In my classroom I use a stereopticon, by means of which the

lessons in the textbooks are reproduced on slides and thrown on a screen in a darkened room. This method is continued until the student has mastered the keyboard, or until the student is able to associate a particular finger with a corresponding key. I have yet to find a student who has not, by these means, mastered the art of writing by touch better and in less time than by the other method. The students, being in the dark, are compelled to concentrate, and being unable to watch the keyboard are forced to locate the keys by the sense of touch. Another claim that I make for this unique method of instruction is that the teacher is enabled to cover more ground in less time. To illustrate: any teacher of typewriting will agree with me that it is practically impossible to explain to a whole class the mechanical construction of a typewriter, or the way to put on a new ribbon, because it is not feasible to demonstrate these things to more than five or six at a time. By the new method a photograph of the particular part of the typewriter is thrown on the screen in full view of everybody in the room, and in this way the correct method of holding the fingers and wrists may also be presented.

Typewriting, however completely mastered, would not be fulfilling its highest function were it not properly correlated with its sister art, shorthand. Just as soon as a student has acquired sufficient skill in typewriting to enable him to write by touch at a low speed, he should be required to transcribe his shorthand notes. No student should ever be graduated from the shorthand and typewriting departments who cannot write at least forty words a minute net, with the rating based upon the international rules. If an ideal condition is to exist in the shorthand and typewriting department, then the importance of perfect correlation must be emphasized. It must be borne in mind that the student is paid for the finished product of his labors, which in this instance is the typewriting. Unfortunately this fact is lost sight of by the average pupil, who seems to lay more stress on the proverbial one hundred words a minute in shorthand than he does on the more important matter of the finished product.

The War and the consequent changed conditions in commerce throughout the world have had their influences on shorthand and typewriting. The demand for stenographers with a knowledge of Spanish and French is greater than the supply, and the opportunities for well-trained American stenographers who are able to take Spanish dictation are unbounded. The extension of American trade in South America is primarily responsible for this condition.

Within the last few months two organizations for the promotion of artistic typewriting in the United States have come into existence. Every progressive shorthand and typewriting teacher will welcome this innovation, as it will fill a long-felt want. Their purpose is to help teachers to keep up the enthusiasm of their students so that they may be inspired to strive for the highest degree of accuracy and speed of which they are capable.

Now we are in the day of the expert typist; tomorrow I expect it to be a common art. As the scribes of the Bible times gained their living and their title from their ability to write, so in our times many thousands of people are gaining their living from their ability to write shorthand and use the typewriter.

THE ORGANIZATION OF A BUSINESS-PRACTICE AND OFFICE-ROUTINE COURSE AND HOW TO MAKE IT A SUCCESS IN BUSINESS HIGH SCHOOLS

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There are three prerequisites to the establishment and successful conduct of a business-practice and office-routine course in a business high school of a large city. They are the director, the student, and freedom of action. I wish to offer a few remarks on the first two—the director and the student. It is not within the province of this paper to dwell upon the third—the freedom of action—except to express the opinion that it is of paramount importance that such freedom be vested in the one who will direct this course of study and practice.

The director should be a man of many capabilities. His preparation for this work should consist of a broad, general education, which should be supplemented by a down-to-the-minute technical training. The technical training should embrace theory, as found in textbooks, and accurate knowledge of conditions prevailing in the business world; and there is no better way to obtain the latter than by engaging in a general practice as a public accountant. The director must be strong in the work of organization and management, be familiar with the principles of efficiency, and be able to make practical application of them in his own work. One of the duties of the director will be to prepare the narrative for the guidance of the student while he is a member of the department.

Now, as to the student, the English training should be the equivalent at least of a grammar-school course. Previous training in bookkeeping should result in ability to write up, in the simpler forms of posting mediums, such transactions as purchases, sales, receipts, and disbursements. He should be able to post the transactions to a ledger, and to test the accuracy of his work by the use of a trial balance. But the ability to prepare income, profit-and-loss statements, balance sheets, schedules and abstracts, and, finally, close the ledger or ledgers by journal entry is not required. It is better that no instruction be given, as to the latter operations, prior to the entrance to business practice than that the method employed and illustrated in the standard texts on bookkeeping be attempted. I wish to make the observation at this time that it is not the object of a business-practice and office-routine course to teach bookkeeping. But bookkeeping,

accounting, and business are so closely allied that a practical knowledge of bookkeeping and accounting should result from properly directed study of the organization, conduct, and liquidation of a representative business.

The director prepares a "narrative" which outlines the business operations of the student. For example, at certain places the narrative will say, "Buy dry goods, groceries, grain, fruit, provisions, produce," etc. The terms are given, such as "on account, ten days"; "on note, five days"; "on account, subject to sight or time draft." Similar instruction is given as to the matter of sales. The parties to the transaction and other details are left to the student. Later, instruction will be given as to the disposition of the note or account. Information for the initial pay-roll is given and other necessary suggestions are offered touching the distribution of the expense of the labor. Effort is made to impress upon the mind of the student the expense incident to the launching of a business enterprise, as well as the cost of keeping it in a vigorous condition as a going concern. There is a minimum and maximum to the extent of purchase or sale. A large variety of commodities may be represented by printed cards as effectively as notes, checks, and drafts of real value can be represented. Manufacturers', wholesalers', and retailers' prices can be maintained. These prices change at least weekly. No two sets of records will be similar. There is no key for use in locating errors nor for testing the work. The department at once becomes a bustling, busy, business-like community. Every student commencing business practice is a sole owner. He finds himself in a new situation—the owner of a business, in possession of goods which are fluctuating in value; he has capital to protect; he has banking connections; he is surrounded by fellow-students who are eager to receive his signature to an order for goods or are insisting on the payment of an account due, perhaps past due; or they may wish to call his attention to an error in a bill which they have received from him; or they may be calling for his note, as per the terms of a certain transaction. It may be that a note which he gave to a creditor was discounted at the bank and is due at this time. The indorser is prevailing upon the maker to pay it and avoid protest charges. Thus many new situations will arise daily which will develop in the student power of action, and in a general way will result in the accumulation of practical knowledge and mental culture.

The records of the sole proprietor's business are made in a simple set of double-entry books. Following the directions given in the narrative, proper exhibits are prepared, such as income, profit-and-loss statement, balance sheet, schedules of creditors' balances and customers' balances, and a schedule of the stock of goods on hand at the time of the accounting. At this time accruals, prepaids, the provision for the depreciation of property, and the provision for doubtful accounts comes up for consideration. This is work for an intelligent proprietor, not a bookkeeper, and his deliberations and conclusions should be in accord with certain principles of

accounting. The student experiences no difficulty here, for he is working under proper direction. The books are closed by journal entry. The sole proprietor is ready to meet with other proprietors who have completed this feature of the course for the purpose of creating a partnership relation.

The partnership firm results, in this instance, from a number of sole proprietors combining their cash, property, and labor for the purpose of conducting business under a firm name. There should be a sufficient number of partners that one or more members of the firm may be present at all periods of the school day.

The use of a personal-efficiency card was established at the beginning of the course. This card will play a more important part when the student becomes a member of a firm. It reflects the degree of interest which he manifests in the welfare of his firm. There will be an assignment of the various kinds of work to be carried out by the different members of the firm, such as, student A, purchasing and recording of the bills; student B, the soliciting of orders and writing up the going-inventory ledger; student C, collections; student D, the treasurer, receipts, disbursements, and cash-book records; student E, general bookkeeper; student F, business-manager; student G, president. The assignments are rotary, thus giving each member an equal chance to become familiar with the different lines of work and responsibility.

There will be ample time during the period of this kind of ownership for assigned readings on the following subjects: personal salesmanship, selling methods, retailing, purchasing problems, credit and collection methods, keeping up with rising costs, office-management, business-administration.

The bookkeeping will receive the attention the subject demands. The system employed will be strictly modern and as brief as is consistent with good accounting practice. The inspection of these books, at the proper time, will be made by a committee selected by the director from the advanced students. Upon completion of the audit, a written report will be filed. Here is most excellent practice for the cultivation of dormant powers which the earlier part of the course failed to awaken.

The expansion of the business necessitates additional expenses. The selling, administrative, and capital expenses are kept in close harmony with the business at this stage. The subjects of good-will, drawing accounts, loans by partners, interest on investment and on withdrawals, the division of the net profits or the sharing of the net loss, come in for special consideration. The accounting at the close of this period is in keeping with the best practice of our times. Everyone should be able to read balance sheets correctly. The ability to do so cannot be obtained by the reading of books alone. A rather intimate knowledge of each element which enters into the entire business structure is necessary.

The student's next step in the study of business-organization and finance will be under that form of ownership known as a corporation. It

will be remembered that a number of sole proprietors joined in the formation of a partnership. In this instance a number of partnerships are consolidated. The members of the firms become the stockholders of record. Sole proprietors are also subscribers, if they wish to invest some of their capital in this way. In the determination of the amount of stock each firm is entitled to, it will be necessary that the assets and liabilities undergo a process known as elimination. The new company will be granted the privilege of issuing two classes of stock, viz., preferred and common. The common will have no par value printed on the certificates. Each firm will receive a certain number of shares of preferred and common in settlement for the firm's net worth. Each partner will come in then for his share of the stock. It will readily be seen that some very interesting problems arise here; yes, fascinating ones. But they are all true to the business world of today; and the information gleaned from the transactions of this division of the work will be invaluable to the student in after life. Among the books selected for the corporation will be a voucher-payable register. There will be quite a number of controlling accounts set up in the general ledger. Scientific classification of accounts, if I may refer to it in that way, will obtain in the ledger of the company. The narrative so directs the transactions of the company that each student directly connected with the business will be made familiar with such accounts as capital stock, impairment of capital, stock-donation account, mortgage payable, reserve for sinking fund for mortgage payable, sinking fund for mortgage payable, and a number of others which cannot be mentioned owing to the limited time allotted to this paper.

The same plan for carrying out the narrative in the corporation as was used in the partnership will be continued. Here we have more officials, more clerks, a larger pay-roll, increased expenses. But the sound judgment, business ability, and ease of carrying out intricate business-transactions, which will be in evidence now, will be a great source of gratification, not only to the student, but to everyone connected with the conduct of this department of work. Eventually the company will go thru liquidation. All obligations will be met as the assets are converted into cash. The distribution of dividends and the taking-up of the stock marks the final step of this division.

The students who complete the work under the sole proprietorship, partnership, and corporations will be advanced to the office-routine feature of the course.

The offices will consist of banks, trust companies, a stock broker, a real-estate and insurance agency, wholesale, commission, and some form of transportation companies. A post-office will be likely to be found of advantage. However, this branch of service may be conducted in connection with some other office. In the real-estate office will be found a notary public for the acknowledgment of signatures, the protesting of

paper, and in the event of "holding court," the notary will make a good magistrate.

The systems of books and records for the offices, while not the most difficult part of the work, are, however, of no little importance. There is an excellent field here for the development of practical systems of accounting. Labor-saving devices together with books designed for proofs by sections will assist in overcoming the usual annoyance resulting from students working but part time.

There will be directions for conducting each office, and free use of the bulletin board for announcements. But there is no need for a narrative to create business. Students engaged in business practice deal directly with the offices. For example, the banks receive deposits, discount notes, receive notes and drafts for collection, issue certificates of deposit, certify checks and honor checks by payment when presented properly, provided, of course, that the drawer has sufficient funds to his credit to meet them. The wholesale companies will receive orders for the various lines of merchandise. The orders are filled by the delivery or shipment of cards which designate the kind and quantity of the commodity sold. Bills may be made out in duplicate. The copy may be filed as a ledger card. At the close of the week or period assigned an abstract is taken of the "unpaid" file. Another abstract is taken from the unpaid sales, as reflected in the sales journal. The footings of the abstracts will agree with the balance of the accounts-receivable account in the general ledger, this being the controlling account for the customers' balances.

In the library maintained in the department will be found many good books for supplementary reading in connection with the work of the office-routine course. From the office force will be drafted, from time to time, committees whose duty will be the inspection of the offices and the books of the students of the business-practice department. Every opportunity of leading a student to take the initiative will be recognized. It is this phase of the work which results in the greatest development.

A brief course of assigned readings from the more technical presentations of advanced business and accounting subjects preparatory to the final examinations has proved to be invaluable to the majority of students.

I do not wish to leave the impression that the director, single-handed, can develop this course of study and practice to the extent indicated. He needs two instructors to assist—one in business practice and the other in the office-routine feature of the course.

The foregoing will be recognized by teachers who are familiar with business practice and office routine as a very brief review of the work. However, it is submitted in the hope that it may lend encouragement to those who may be contemplating the establishment of a course of study along the lines indicated. The fact that the work and the merit flowing therefrom are so little understood by educators generally is a reason why

those of us who teach it and believe in it should permit no opportunity to pass unimproved to assist in giving it publicity, so that eventually business practice and office routine may be assigned a prominent place in the curriculum of our public business schools.

ECONOMICS IN THE COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL

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Political economy was long regarded as the "dismal science." An acquaintance of mine once likened it to a man in a room looking out into a dark night for a black man who isn't there. Practical men and those in other fields of specialization have alike lookt askance at political economy. But for the earlier discredited and threadbare subject of political economy there has, in late years, come into use a new term, "economics," which carries with it a different connotation, and which commands a new interest. The term political economy originated from an effort on the part of governments to get the largest revenue for states with the least inconvenience to their peoples. And it was long used to mean "the housekeeping of the nation." As thus conceived, political economy was of keen interest to publicists, but made little appeal to others.

In the early period of its development political economy took form as a body of doctrinaire theory, far removed from the everyday interest of the man of the world. Much of the early work in political economy was not wholly bad nor useless, altho in itself it had little value, and at best it was an incomplete work. The newer and more correct notion of this branch of social science is conveyed by economics, which has come to mean a wide range of descriptive, historical, and theoretical study on the phenomena of our present industrial and commercial order. Economics, in a broad sense, is the science of wealth, dealing with its production, distribution, exchange, and consumption. The study may well be defined as a "science of business," and men who do business in any sphere are consciously or unconsciously employing economics, just as one who navigates a ship uses astronomy, an engineer uses physics, or a manufacturer uses chemistry. Men in all callings will be more efficient as a result of a training in the sciences which are fundamental in their callings; and as all men have to deal with business affairs, they will be better equipt by a study of economics. The commercial high school should be particularly interested in this study.

Economics, as thus conceived, is not narrowly the science of getting money, but broadly the science of welfare, and it is of supreme interest to the individual, the family, the state, and the world at large. Fundamentally economics is the science which shows how individuals and associations of individuals can provide their necessary food, clothing, and shelter, and whatever else is deemed a proper part of their life.

It will readily be seen that economics is an art and a science. Every person must practice it as an art, and the suggestion is here made that similarly all should study it as a science. Men can scarcely escape some form of economic study; in all walks and callings they must guide their activities by calculations of supply and demand; they must deal with investments and securities and reckon on incomes and expenditures. People should be more largely interested in what has been well termed "the backward art of spending money." It should be obvious, tho it seems to be little understood, that skill, wisdom, and discernment in the consumption of wealth are quite as important to the individual as is his added income thru increast producing power.

As a science economics offers an educational instrument of first importance. The study is largely informational, and it gives information which appeals to those of varying ages and diverse attainments. But more than this, the study is a universalizing or generalizing one, which will give valuable lessons in dealing with details and reducing these to a system. From this last aspect of the subject it becomes of large significance to our systems of education. Economic phenomena have so multiplied and claim so large a place in present thought that the ability to handle these phenomena and to reduce them to an orderly system is a highly desirable, if not a necessary, element in present education. Economics properly conceived is a statement of the principles which are fundamental to present life. There is a grave present necessity for coordinating and applying the great body of social knowledge. Economics as a science seeks to accomplish this.

In determining the worth of economics we should first consider its value to the individual. In brief, this subject teaches men to care for themselves and those directly dependent on them. It teaches the lesson to the individual of living for the better time to come. The habits which pupils form during their school lives are likely to have a large influence in their later experiences. The possibility and the wisdom of small savings, the knowledge of savings banks and building and loan associations, should be a part of the preparation for complete living. Those trained to understand the meaning of savings will understand that a limited amount set aside each year not only gives immediate pleasure, but affords a guaranty for future safety.

But this provision for the future goes farther than the savings to protect oneself. It teaches that duty which everyone owes to posterity, to preserve and perpetuate the material blessings with which he has been endowed, so that each generation may rise to a higher plane of living than would be possible if each generation attempted to live to itself alone.

Economics should teach, furthermore, that the range of occupations commonly termed "business" are of real service to society, and from its study the business man can be made to feel the responsibility for a larger circle than his immediate family. This branch of knowledge will show

that those who are in legitimate forms of business are helping to feed, clothe, and shelter their fellows, and thus business will be given its true place in the list of occupations.

The study of economics will make clear, as pointed out by Bishop Newman, that it is no more a sin to make money, if men aid their fellows in so doing, than it is to seek honor by similarly attempting to aid their fellows. Such a point of view will give a new notion of success, and it will be found that success is not limited to a few chosen occupations, and that, in the best sense of the word, large numbers can succeed. Thus, and only thus, can men who are in the commercial and industrial callings be given a professional attitude toward their work.

Economics will, in the next place, furnish a largeness of view by which men can recognize the rights of others and see the interdependence of all the factors in the modern industrial system. Class distinctions are the most baneful influence of the present age. Landlords against tenants, employers against employed, capital class against debtors, and other antagonisms threaten the safety of society. Ignorance and self-interest have led to a partial and prejudiced view on these questions, and too largely the condition of our economic system is that of a primitive society in which every man's hand is against his fellow and his fellow's hand is against him. Economics teaches, unmistakably, that labor and capital are not enemies, but friends, and a proper understanding of its lessons will lead the capitalist to ask, not how little, but how much he can pay his laborers; and similarly will lead the laborers to ask, not how little, but how much they can do for their employer. One-half of the ills of our social system would be cured if men could be led to view their fancied differences from the point of view of those whom they are opposing.

But there is a larger view with which the schools should be vitally concerned, and that is the preparation for what may be denominated an economic citizenship. Modern society is going thru a sort of economic revolution not unlike the intellectual revolution of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries known as the Renaissance, and the religious Reformation of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It is not sufficient that leaders only be intelligent on the troublesome questions of public policy. Ours is a government of public opinion, and in the minds of the people, in the last analysis, is found the true stability of governmental institutions. John Morley well says that to bid a man to do his duty, and then to forbid him to study economic questions, utilitarianism, and kindred subjects which are the means of determining what his duty is, is but "bald and naked counsel." Andrew D. White long since made the observation that man is an economic animal as well as a political animal; and that he is born into an industrial system just as surely as he is born into a political state. In an enumeration of the ideals for a course of study President Butler once put as fundamental the statement, "The dominant note of our society is

economic." In a larger sense political questions, state's rights, individual liberty, constitutional privilege, etc., have been settled, and the alignment of parties is now on economic questions, such as government ownership of public utilities and the regulation of insurance. Momentous consequences are bound up with our economic citizenship.

"Moneymania" and "dollarhood" are terms more apt than one could wish in description of our present social standards. The United States should be something vastly better than the "land of the almighty dollar." Life in this country should not be permitted to degenerate into a mad race for wealth; and the standard of success should never be the amount of money which one can accumulate. Of our own country we can say, as Goldsmith said of his "Sweet Auburn":

Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.

We are in greatest danger from the failure to regard the gravity of present problems. In health one is likely to disregard the laws of health, and in the bountiful prosperity and seeming security of our economic system we are in danger of disregarding the basal principles for the well-being of society. This is all the more seductive in America because our prosperity has largely come from rich endowments in natural resources and the fortunate conditions under which we have lived.

The conservatism of the schools is well noted by President Butler, who says, "It is a constant fight to get any proper teaching from an economic point of view"—a statement which he held true of both schools and colleges. Those who are deemed mature enough to handle the intricacies of foreign languages or to study the abstruse principles of higher mathematics are thought by educators too immature for any economic study. Economics is held to be speculative, impractical, etc. It often seems that schoolmasters seek to isolate from the present world those whom they train, and to "orient" them instead to an earlier age.

It is probable that economics can be considered with profit as an incidental subject in grammar schools and in the earlier high-school years. It may also be introduced as a part of the general exercises of the school and in popular form as lectures. The subject, however, is altogether too important to be left wholly to any haphazard treatment. In the third or fourth high-school year students are sufficiently mature and so grounded in history and acquainted with the world that they may safely be asked to undertake this subject.

A few years ago President James suggested a syllabus of economics and social science for use in both elementary and secondary schools. Such a syllabus would serve as a guide to teachers, indicating topics to be studied, and their order, treatment, and relations to other subjects; also methods of study and the like. A syllabus which cannot fail to be of great service has

been worked out by the faculty of political economy of the University of Chicago. Many manuals of the sort here indicated are already available for English, mathematics, geography, science, etc., covering both subject-matter and methods of instruction.

There are three divisions of economics, or three methods of treatment: First, there should be an inductive, concrete, descriptive treatment based on the observation of the student and on an accumulation of familiar industrial and commercial facts. In this aspect of the subject the study should conform to the principle, not words, but things. It is this method of approach which will give economics a point of contact with the world outside of school. The most natural introduction to economics is a study of the place and meaning of industrial and commercial employments in modern social life. Secondly, there should come a study of the more general laws and principles which make up the body of doctrine ordinarily passing as theoretical economics. This should naturally follow the introductory study suggested above, and may well be based on a textbook. This method is necessary in order to give unity and cohesion to the introductory studies. Thirdly, there should be forms of applied economics along such lines of study as transportation, insurance, money, banking, and regulation of business.

The first of the three methods suggested above may very well take the form of the study of the local community, its manufacturers, and commercial operations. It can well be introduced in the early high-school years, and serve at once to give valuable information on the community which the school serves and the material which afterward may be used in the more formal course in economics. The study of more general aspects of the subject may well come in the third year, while the fourth year may be reserved for applied economics along the lines indicated. Whatever the course in school, whether long or short, or whatever the type of school, it appears desirable that the three elements mentioned above should be involved in the study of economics, so that those being trained in the schools may have the information and point of view which will enable them to understand and serve their own community.

THE RELATION OF THE LIBRARY TO BUSINESS EDUCATION

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The recognition of the important relation of libraries to education in general has been one of the marked features of modern library-development, and the subject has long since past the stage of question or discussion; for the library is recognized as a permanent and vital factor in secondary, as well as in college, education. Not only have our educators put the emphasis upon the use of many books in place of a single textbook in the

study of a subject, but they have gone even further and have incorporated into the curricula of elementary and high schools, normal schools, and college courses giving instructions, not only in the use of books and libraries in general, but also in the most effective use of them in the study of a particular subject.

The relation of the library to the studies which are commonly called the "humanities" is therefore permanently established; but the relation of the library to courses of instruction for business education has not yet been definitely formulated. Courses of instruction for business education are comparatively new in educational institutions, and there still exists in the minds of some a sense of incongruity in associating the two words, "business" and "education."

Thoughtful investigation of existing conditions, however, reveals some definite facts in regard to the relation of business and education. Business is no longer conducted on a rule-of-thumb basis, but according to organized and systematized methods, and there is a science of business just as truly as there is a science of law or of medicine.

Altho the conception of the vital relation of books and libraries to education in general has taken root in our educational systems, the principle has not been applied systematically to business education, and it is this subject in particular which we are to discuss in this paper. Business literature differs from the literature of other sciences in that it is a widely scattered literature, varied in form, related to many subjects, and drawn from so many different sources that no public library is able to bring it together on its shelves with the exactness with which the literature of other subjects can be assembled. The literature which pertains to business activities must be sought in many different directions, and it is therefore all the more important that one know where to find it.

The recognition of this fact has led to the establishment within large business organizations of business libraries, in order to meet the intimate and specific needs of the particular business with a special collection of material adapted to its needs, in addition to the help which may often be obtained from the technical, civic, and business departments which have been organized in many of our large public libraries to help business men.

Small business firms, which are in the majority and which cannot afford to employ a librarian, have often just as vital, tho not as many, needs for information as large business organizations have, and the burden, therefore, of knowing what printed information exists and how to get it falls upon the various workers in the organization, particularly upon the young men and women who are filling secretarial or stenographic positions. Intimate acquaintance with business conditions reveals the fact that the stenographer in a business firm without an organized library is expected to know, or find out by some hook or crook, what his chief wants to know in matters of general information.

I wish to give in this paper an opinion, based on experience as a business librarian, of the kind of training in the knowledge of books and the use of libraries which should be given to young people studying for business positions, and which would give them some general equipment for knowing how to find desired information.

In order to present this subject in as practical a manner as possible, I wish to give first of all some genuine illustrations of questions which are constantly arising in a number of business houses with which I am acquainted. Most of these questions have been asked first of the secretaries or stenographers, who in turn have appealed to the librarians of the business organizations for assistance, where they have been fortunate enough to have one. You will note that the nature of these questions is such that any student trained in the use of reference books should be able to find the answer to them without the special aid of a business librarian:

Where is the periodical *Power* published, and by whom?

What is the address of Mills College? (The business man, a college graduate, who wanted to know was found endeavoring to locate it in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*.)

What is the educational record of a prominent professional man who is under consideration by a company to be engaged on a special investigation?

A letter is received from the head of a department of the government, but the signature is blurred. Can the correct name be ascertained?

A telegram is received containing a hotel address which is not plain. Can the names of hotels in a certain city be found?

What is the latest official population of a given city?

What are the latest crop statistics of the state of Oklahoma?

How to use Lieber's code in wording a cablegram.

Where to purchase in Chicago the back number of a periodical which is published in New York City.

How can a copy of a certain government publication be obtained? Is it necessary to write to a senator or representative for it?

Has the United States government issued any publications dealing with a given subject?

What are the industries of a given city?

There often arises need for information which the inquirer thinks might be found at the public library, but in nine cases out of ten I have found he does not know how to use the public library nor to whom on its staff to go for help. A frequent question is, "How can I find out if the public library has anything that will answer what I want to know?" The reference department and its workers are unknown, and the card catalog and printed finding-lists are unexplored labyrinths.

This practical experience in working with business people has led me to the conclusion that all students taking business courses should be educated to know what the public libraries of their cities (both circulating and reference) can do for them. They should know how to get lending privileges; how to use card catalogs, finding-lists, and open shelves; how to use the special reference collections and the help of the reference librarians.

They should also be informed as to what special material the public library has to offer in technical and civic rooms or business men's branches. In addition to knowing how to use the established library facilities of the community, the student should also know the names of the reference books that are helpful as aids in answering business questions, and how to use them. This would include a knowledge of encyclopedias, dictionaries, handbooks of statistical information, indexes to periodical literature, *The Hotel Red Book*; Rand McNally's *Commercial Atlas*; Lippincott's *Gazetteer*; *Who's Who in America*, and similar reference books. Training should be given in a knowledge of government publications which are valuable for business use, and students should know also how to use the Office of Superintendent of Documents and the monthly catalog of government publications.

Students should be made familiar with the best periodicals and handbooks bearing upon the work of large and important industries; for example, in the public-utility corporation which I serve as librarian the stenographers and clerks are often able to locate information they need in their work and about which they dislike to ask the busy man "higher up" by the use of the *Electrical World*, *Electric Railway Journal*, McGraw's *Central Station and Electric Railway Directories*, Poor's *Manual of Public Utilities and Manual of Industrials*; Thomas' *Register of American Manufacturers*, and similar books to which the library of the company has introduced them.

The ability to find information is not a matter of intuition, but of training, and it will not suffice merely to tell students of existing resources. The knowledge of these resources should be drilled into them by thoro instruction and lesson assignments which will demand the mastery of the contents of the reference books studied. I saw not long ago a very plain and practical application of this statement in an engineering periodical edited for men whose business it is to work with boilers and engines, and who, we might think, would not need to know much about books, which is as follows: "Books and papers are just as much engineers' tools as wrenches, hammers, or cold-chisels; and it takes practice to successfully manipulate them."

Another contribution which library science can make profitably to business education is the application of some of its methods of work to the subject of office filing. The term "filing" in business may be briefly defined as the arranging and indexing of all correspondence, also printed and manuscript data pertaining to the transactions of a firm, not only for permanent preservation, but especially for quick consultation as the need arises.

There is no department of modern business which presents so crying a need for intelligent and trained workers as the one which, in business phraseology, is called "the files." Sometimes the filing difficulties of a business organization are the result of inadequate systems of filing which have been installed, but 90 per cent of the difficulties are due to the fact that those in charge of this work are not sufficiently well educated to

understand the content of the papers they are handling, and also have had no preliminary training in the principles of filing. All the filing schemes which are being used in business organizations today are adaptations of the principles of classifying and cataloging as taught by modern library science, and it is entirely practicable to take this small portion of library science and make it the basis of well-defined instruction for the vocation of filing.

At my earnest request this spring the president of the Department Library of the National Education Association, Miss Irene Warren, took a class of file clerks who are employed in the file departments of some business houses in Chicago, and who have plenty of practical everyday problems, and gave them a course of twelve lessons on the science of filing, using as a basis certain well-defined principles of library science. The results were most gratifying, and made very patent the fact that such a course could be given with profit in our schools of vocational training.

May I be permitted to say, in closing, that after seven years of service in the business world I believe there are no two subjects related to business education which need more earnest attention than the ones outlined, namely: a working knowledge of books and printed material which give business information, and a knowledge of filing methods combined with personal efficiency in putting them into practical operation. May I also be permitted to go on record as stating that my acquaintance with many classes of business workers and the demands made upon them make it clear, in my judgment, that business education must be built upon the solid foundation of a thoro general education, and, in fact, I do not believe that vocational training should be divorst from it, if the rank and file of employes are to be adequately equipt for successful business careers.

THE TEACHING OF BUSINESS ENGLISH AND ADVERTISING IN BUSINESS HIGH SCHOOLS

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"Why Business English?" is a question I often hear, and I presume you do also. I might answer it as the March hare answered Alice: "Why not?" Or I might dismiss the matter with the statement that business men demand that high-school graduates shall have a better preparation for writing business letters and other business messages than the ordinary course in English composition gives them. However, I prefer to treat the question seriously, for it deserves serious consideration. On the answer to the question "Why" depends the answer to the question "How." This latter question, I assume, is the more important one for you, because I am

sure that you need no argument to convince you of the necessity of having business English taught. And so I ask seriously, "Why English at all?" In view of our recently reawakened Americanism, it really seems a pity that our forefathers, when they brought forth on this continent a new nation 140 years ago, did not also bring forth a new national language. As a matter of fact, we have a national language at the present time, tho it is not called "American," as it well might be. It is called "business English" in honor of the business men who discovered it and first used it—altho it is no longer confined to business uses. Business English first appeared in business as a matter of practical necessity. When you write a letter to induce somebody to buy your goods, or pay a bill, or modify a claim, you must write in the reader's language and adapt your message to him. Your power to evoke a favorable response depends, not upon what you give, but upon what he receives. Your object is not merely expression but impression. We who teach boys and girls who are going into business must teach them to write that kind of practical, result-getting English. A mastery of the King's English will not serve the purpose if it cannot move the hearts and hands of the reader. The only test of good business English is results capable of translation into terms of dollars and cents.

The ideal and the test of business English is service. For the motto, "The king can do no wrong," it has substituted the slogan, "The customer is always right." The writer of business English does not seek to impose his will upon another. He tries to transmit his point of view and win acceptance for it. He conceives of a message as a two-ended thing, in which the receiving end is more important than the sending. Now, I do not maintain that all business men have this ideal, nor that all English used by them measures up to this standard. But they are working toward it, more perhaps than writers in other fields. They have, at least, discovered that the task of writing is not completed when words have been put on paper, but only when the letter has been received, understood, and responded to.

This business-English ideal (or American ideal) is gaining steadily. Our newspapers and magazines are tinged with it, for they voice public opinion, and their circulation is the foundation of their revenue. Our advertisements are charged with it, for they are the hands and arms that get and hold our business prosperity. Even the Standard Oil Company of New York and the National City Bank have the spirit of service to the public who reads.

And yet I look forward to the time when business English will not be taught, or, rather, when it will be so generally taught that the name will be unnecessary. At present the King's English is being taught in a great majority of schools, even in some that call it business English. The great majority of students are still learning to write compositions instead of learning to convey messages—which is about the only use they will ever have for the English language.

Even in the classical high school the students should have instruction in writing business letters, not only because of its practical usefulness, but also because they get a better conception of the real value of English in this way than they do in the writing of the usual compositions. Purposeless writing is the most futile thing I know. Art for art's sake is a delusion. Even so eminent a professor of English literature as William Lyon Phelps has expressed the opinion that the ordinary theme-writing is not only a waste of time usually, but often injurious.

But you will begin to think I have forgotten that I am talking to a group interested in the business high school. I have stressed these general considerations because I believe no words of mine are needed to prove the case of business English for the business high schools, and I also believe that what I have said will indicate some of my views as to the manner in which it should be taught. In my opinion, it should be taught with a broader vision than is often the case. It should be taught with more emphasis laid upon principles than upon methods. There is danger that in the business high school the teaching may too often consist of a study of grammatical rules transferred bodily from the ordinary English composition and a set of detached formulas useful in business. Such a practice may supply pupils with some useful technique, but it can hardly give them real ability to use the flexible tool of the English language for all their needs.

Students in our business high schools should not be taught, nor even allowed to believe, that the writing of business letters is apart and distinct from other kinds of writing. They should not try to absorb a set of formulas for constructing different types of letters. What is more vital is that thru the writing of these purposeful forms of literature they should gain a mastery of the eternal principles that are true and useful in all kinds of writing. They should see grammar, and rhetoric, and mechanical make-up, and every other part of English technique in relation to the object they are setting out to achieve—that of inducing a favorable response.

To this end I recommend that their technical exercises be very close to the material of business messages and drawn from this material whenever possible. I recommend that purpose be shown always. It is astonishing to see how the dry subject of grammar assumes new life and interest for the pupil when he sees it bearing upon the object of his letter.

I recommend that pupils read and analyze current specimens of good writing in whatever form it appears, newspaper editorials and stories, magazine articles, advertisements, booklets, business letters. They may be given practice in the writing of any of these. The only requirement is that it have a purpose in impressing some reader somewhere. It is just as bad to ask students to write a sales letter as to ask them to write a composition on a "Summer's Day." They should be given full information about the conditions, and a clear picture of the business situation involved, in any

letter or other message they are called upon to write. Much depends upon the ingenuity of the teacher, but in practically every community plenty of material is available for real, live business problems. Incidentally, I have always found it wiser to refer to the letter-writing exercises as problems requiring solution than to represent them as merely exercises in writing.

So far as advertising is concerned, I am not convinced that it can be, or ought to be, taught as a separate high-school subject. The writing of advertisements, however, may well appear in advanced classes in business English as a useful field of practice. In connection with this work the study of advertisements and talks about advertising are helpful. To attempt more than this seems inadvisable. Advertising men I have talked with would be satisfied if high-school graduates who came to them for employment were only able to write a good letter and to convey their ideas in other business messages in a clear, forceful way.

If classes in business English are kept busy writing purposeful messages; if they are made to realize that the fundamental ideal of their writing is service; if our teachers who supervise their work keep in actual contact with business, then the graduates will have what is today the touchstone of a good education, a mastery of English. It won't be the King's English in which a split infinitive is a vice and an observance of all the rules and regulations the whole of virtue. It will be the kind of English that wins because it serves the reader and is adapted to him—business English.

HOW TEACHERS CAN INCREASE THE EFFICIENCY OF ACCOUNTING AND BOOKKEEPING COURSES

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In discussing the problem of teaching bookkeeping and accounting most effectively, we must assume that the students who take the courses are old enough and intelligent enough to understand the value and the prospective uses to be made possible by such study. If a child is too young to comprehend the significance of a financial statement, I am about persuaded that the child is too young to take up bookkeeping, even the most elementary beginning exercises.

Bookkeeping courses should be preceded by thoro grounding in many subjects, or the student will not grasp the significance of the practice transactions with which he must work. I would start bookkeeping classes as late as possible and make them as intensive as possible. Mathematics and English are most essential. Economics and commercial geography are important. Fiction now contains many interesting references to business methods. Some stories, such as those found in the *Saturday Evening Post*, deal directly with finance, bookkeeping experiences, the value of thrift, etc. If the bookkeeping student is not interested in this sort of literature, I doubt whether the determination to succeed is present, and if not, the course can hardly be of much benefit.

You may explain that a man owns three or four different classes of property or assets, that he owes certain sums, that the aggregate of the assets being larger, he has a certain net worth or capital; but if your explanation does not appeal to your students as logical, then I would be afraid to attempt to teach them bookkeeping.

For after all why should we teach bookkeeping unless we have an intensely practical purpose in so doing? Good bookkeeping is the foundation for many financial successes. It is a major department, not a minor one, in a modern establishment. Bad bookkeeping has been directly responsible for a vast number of business failures. Bad bookkeeping predominates in business concerns in large cities as well as in small towns. I need only refer to the recent frequent statements of the vice-chairman of the Federal Trade Commission to corroborate my assertion. He ascertained this fact from a nation-wide investigation. Public accountants have known it for many years.

From frequent talks with teachers I am led to believe that they do not have enough first-hand information as to how their students who get passing marks succeed in applying what they have learned. I regard this of more importance to teachers than the preliminary experiences which some writers advocate.

The best substitute for such experience, I think, is a laboratory or a place where teachers may see, have explained to them, and, if possible, analyze and reconstruct the work of others. Such a medium for imparting bookkeeping and accounting knowledge offers to teachers who lack practical experience a very good equivalent. Several years ago we started such a laboratory at Columbia University, and the results so far have justified the experiment.

These laboratories will, in the course of time, afford facilities for both teachers and students. Obviously the arrangement of courses which include laboratory work for students will differ materially from the assistance which teachers will derive from their use.

Of course, the chief difficulty lies in the lack of good material. I am convinced, however, that the idea is good and is worth developing. The years which may elapse, therefore, before any considerable number of laboratories may be installed may as well be spent in a gradual building-up of suitable records as in drifting along the old way.

How much of the poor bookkeeping which is so prevalent is due to poor or inadequate textbooks? Too much space is given to the explanation of account books and forms which are nearly obsolete. If underlying principles were always involved, perhaps the time so occupied might be justified; but there is little excuse for spending a lot of time in teaching methods no trace of which appears in a modern office. Teachers of commercial subjects must make up their minds that textbooks have decided limitations. No textbook, however complete, will ever be a sufficient basis for a teacher. Teachers must depend more upon research work.

I am convinced that the supplemental routine demanded by most of the textbooks requires too much time, and that a considerable part of the time spent in writing up sets of books based on imaginary transactions carried on by, and among, imaginary people fails to impress the average student, and consequently fails to equip him for a position as bookkeeper.

I think teachers are so engrossed with what they are teaching that they overlook the possibilities of checking up the results of their teaching. I am aware of the casual inquiry as to how an old student is getting along, and the usual reply, but I see no reason why a teacher should not investigate, say, fifty cases where students have secured satisfactory marks in a bookkeeping course, and who are keeping books, and spend several hours in each office examining the work and making critical comparisons with the school courses. Whether good or bad bookkeeping is found, it should prove illuminating for comparative purposes.

If a teacher is able to visualize the objects to be attained, I do not see why it cannot take the place of much repetition. Why have students write up hundreds of imaginary transactions if they can be shown how transactions should be properly recorded and dealt with thru illustrations and explanations based on real things? After I consent to teach book-

keeping, I was not content until I could show the students some sets of books which had been written up and used in connection with actual enterprises. I believe books of this sort are available in all localities. The most available records are those where a concern has gone out of active business, by bankruptcy as related to insolvent concerns, and dissolution (for one of many reasons) as related to solvent concerns.

If difficulty be experienst in securing such sets of books, I would have the students write up a few model sets, spending, if necessary, several years on the work, and retaining the completed records for illustrative purposes. The school courses would certainly be modified if a full set of books were written up along textbook methods, and comparison made with the system in use in an up-to-date office.

It would be found that most of the entries copied in the books are never made at all under present practice, the original memoranda of transactions, in connection with mechanical devices, being used without subsequent duplication.

If I could, I would teach bookkeeping by talking to the students about it rather than by requiring them to spend most of their time copying and posting and taking trial balances. I repeat that poor bookkeeping predominates. Now, as good bookkeeping is so tremendously valuable to a business, and bookkeepers who have medium ability only receive substantial salaries and are in great demand, I would like to take the time to tell students the difference between routine bookkeeping and good bookkeeping. I would explain financial statements and tell them how much more important it is that each item of asset and each item of liability mean something, and be accurately named, and readily identified with the things themselves, than it is that two sides of the statement should be in balance. Any public accountant will be able to relate countless experiences where books are in balance and where the usual bookkeeping rules are followed, but where ledger accounts are not self-explanatory, where they remain unadjusted, and where the true financial position of the concern is completely obscured.

Accounts, if rightly stated, should be interesting reading. It is, however, hard to become interested in anything unless the reading is made easy.

The public accountant takes facts and figures and arranges or rearranges them, and frequently it is the means whereby the proprietor of a business learns for the first time important news relative to past transactions.

So far as I have been able to discover, courses in bookkeeping are just one thing after another. The student is so exhausted by the time he finishes one practice set that, if it receives a passing mark, he hopes he will never see it again. Would it not be feasible and desirable to have him spend some time on a set after it is completed, working out the story involved, and applying common-sense standards to see if it will stand up under a comparison with everyday business methods? If not, the material must be defective.

I would ask the students to prepare a balance sheet and income and expense statement based on something with which they are familiar. In college, students may be asked to make a statement of their own affairs. This has been tried out successfully. With younger students it would not be practicable, but in nearly every case some example should be procurable. It would definitely stimulate thrift if the scheme could be applied to family finances.

If nothing else is feasible, the accounts of a town or city are available. Have the students attempt to schedule the assets and liabilities, the income and expenses, of their municipality.

I have found very creditable accounts where all bookkeeping rules have been violated. What of it, provided the ones who depended upon the accounts for a true and complete record of their business understood them and found them to be dependable? I am just as keen for correct terminology and standard practice as anyone else, but I am unwilling to be a party to an insistence on methods which do not work well in practice. Bookkeeping must be intensely practical in its uses or it is of no value. Accounts are said to be the history of business transactions, but it is the class of history that needs to be kept strictly up to date and be presented promptly and accurately, or it will be of value only to lawyers and accountants, who tell the creditors just how the failure occurred.

I suppose I must say something on the differentiation between bookkeeping and accounting. So far I have not paid the slightest attention to a careful use of the two words. Personally, I do not know where bookkeeping ends and accounting begins. I have read explanations without being satisfied. I know so-called "good bookkeepers" who are, in my opinion, accountants; and I know so-called "accountants" who are not good bookkeepers. If a man keeping books has enough knowledge of accounts to do more than keep them accurately; if he can so state the accounts that the proprietors will have presented to them intelligent analyses and comparisons, and if, as is possible, most of this work can be done by a skilful arrangement of accounts in the books themselves, and an equally skilful arrangement of subsidiary records coordinated with the regular books of accounts, and prepared simultaneously, I do not see why this is not accounting, altho it is usually called bookkeeping.

In my opinion all bookkeeping is a part of accounting. A student taking up the rudiments of bookkeeping will, if the subject is being presented properly, also acquire the first elements of accounting. I can easily distinguish bookkeeping which has not a particle of what I call accounting in it. Such bookkeeping, I hope, will no longer be taught in the schools. I see no reason why we should not commence to teach accounting as soon as a student is old enough to understand assets and liabilities, profits and losses. In our accounting courses we should include bookkeeping, but only the kind which has been demonstrated to stand the wear and tear of modern business.

COMMITTEE REPORTS

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY AS AN ELEMENT IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

J. PAUL GOODE, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

Commercial geography has already demonstrated its high value as a fundamental course in a liberal education for business. But the field of geography is so vast, and its subject-matter so prolific and ramifying so intimately into the realms of contributory and related sciences, that it is an exceedingly difficult task to delimit it from the field of general science. And when the general subject has been delimited, it is quite as difficult a matter to formulate a logical sequence in the presentation of the subject-matter, and to distribute emphasis so as to bring out topics of most value, and to train the reasoning power of the student by a compelling search for the relations between cause and effect. There is no subject in the curriculum that offers a better opportunity than geography for training the logical faculty or for widening the horizon of the student in matters of everyday interest in the world about him.

Our ideas in commercial geography were borrowed bodily from an English text by Chisholm. His volume consisted of 800 pages or over, in which he discusst all the important commodities of modern commerce, and followed this discussion by a study of all the leading commercial countries. Our American texts, planned for high schools, not for colleges, have attempted to cover the same field in 400 much smaller pages. The result has been to reduce the work of the student to so rapid a scanning of many things as to give him small chance to get fundamentals firmly planted, or to do any particular thinking about causal relations.

Hence, it is a worthy quest to attempt to establish standards in subject-matter and methods of presentation; and it is with a hope of helping on in this quest that this paper is written and the following suggestions offered. The best approach I have found to the great study of industry and commerce is by way of a general swing around the horizon of the chief commodities of commerce. This study calls for a recognition of the entire list of geographic influences acting, as they may anywhere in the world, in the production and movement of a given commodity. This establishes a wide view of world-relations, and gives a good preparation for the study of a country or a region as a unit. A study of the commodities of commerce, then, is recommended as a minimum unit of study, to occupy half a year in the high school. This may be followed by a half-year devoted to a study of a few of the leading commercial countries. Briefly, the scope of a year's work may be presented as follows:

SYNOPSIS OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

FIRST HALF-YEAR

I. BRIEF INTRODUCTION:

The geographic influences underlying industry and commerce.

Position on the earth as determining climate.

Land relief: barriers of mountain or dissected land; passes and valley routes thru highland barriers; plains and their influence.

Mineral resources: character, areal distribution, accessibility.

Plant and animal life, wild and cultivated, as a basis of commerce.

Human life and development, especially as bearing on industry and commerce: stage of industrial development, education and training, population density, wealth, and government participation in industry and commerce.

II. THE CHIEF COMMODITIES OF COMMERCE:

1. Products of the farm, orchard, and range.

The cereals, sugar, fruits, vegetables, beverages, drugs, animal products.

2. Products of hunting and fishing:

Furs and fish.

3. Products of the forest:

Lumber, rubber and other gums, cork, dyes, drugs, etc.

4. Products of mines, quarries, and wells:
The mineral fuels, iron and other common metals, the precious metals and stones, cement, clay products, etc.
5. Power as a commodity.

SECOND HALF-YEAR

III. THE GEOGRAPHIC INFLUENCES IN COMMERCE:

- Advantage of position with reference to trade.
- The development of land routes of trade.
- Winds and currents and the great ocean routes.
- The organization of ocean commerce.
- The development of market foci.

IV. LEADING COMMERCIAL COUNTRIES AND THEIR COMMERCE:

- Selected important countries, studied as to commercial development and possibilities.
- The growth of world-trade and the part played by leading lands.
- The countries might be chosen in the following order: United States of America, Brazil; the United Kingdom, British India; Germany, Russia; France, the Argentine, etc., contrasting a highly developed country with a new or undeveloped land, a temperate climate land with a tropical land, and so on.

As an illustration of the method of study, showing the thought-provoking possibilities of the subject, let us indicate the subtopics in the study of wheat: (1) Origin and plant characters of wheat; climate and soil required; types and qualities of wheat; relations between plant characters and the climatic conditions in place of origin. (2) World's wheat-producing areas, the reasons for their location and rank. (3) Influence of climate, soil, surface, labor conditions, the use of machinery, transportation facilities, skill of the farmer. (4) Problems of milling, marketing, establishment of world-market center, and the method of making the price. (5) Wheat in international commerce and politics. (6) The problem of the wheat-supply of the future.

Or suppose we take a mineral commodity, say, iron: (1) The qualities of iron which make it valuable; the significance of iron in the civilization of the race. (2) The chief iron-producing regions of the world. (3) Methods of winning the ore in France, Spain, Sweden, and the Lake Superior region. (4) The transportation of the ore; the rôle of coke and limestone. (5) Rank of producing regions. (6) The world's present steel centers, and reasons for their location and rank. (7) The revolution wrought in industry and commerce by the introduction of cheap steel. (8) Changing rank of nations in iron- and steel-production. (9) Significance of government participation in the industry.

It will be observed that the commodities are studied from an economic as well as a geographic point of view, and geographic and economic influences underlying industry and commerce are sought in every stage of the study. This makes of the subject a fascinating field for both teacher and student, and it has the superlative advantage of continual growth, of eternal youth. Tho its principles may be firmly rooted in the nature of things, its data are in continual flux with the everyday changes of the weather, of market conditions, and of international political relations. For these reasons it is not an easy subject to prepare in, nor to teach. But the reward of such a study is found in the exhilaration of a constantly widening horizon, and of migration out of a provincial frame of mind. There is a continual incentive to follow developments in the special government reports, the studies published in periodicals, and the shifting observations of the daily press.

This subject, properly presented, is really not a year's work in high school; it is an inoculation of good health which will last thru life. No other study offered in school or college is better adapted to an extensive acquaintance with the current history of the industrial world, and this in itself is a large element in a liberal education.

BUSINESS ENGLISH: A SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES

JAMES F. HOSIC, CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

The term "business English" is establishing itself, but there is, as yet, no agreement as to what it means. Two meanings are obvious: (1) technical training, commercial correspondence, advertising, and the like; and (2) general training in English, planned with reference to the needs of all students who intend to enter commercial life irrespective of whether they will keep books, take dictation, or sell. The situation is complicated at present by the regrouping of the grades so as to place the seventh and eighth with the ninth in what is called the "junior high school," and within these grades to organize the classes according to dominant interests, as academic or professional, commercial, and industrial or technical. For clearness it seems necessary to confine the term "business English" to courses regarded as direct preparation for vocation.

Even in such courses emphasis upon forms and details necessary in business must not be permitted to hinder the development of general intelligence and adaptability. Next to certain rudimentary matters of correctness, employers prize thoughtfulness and gumption.

Oral composition should receive as much attention in business English as in other English classes. Even the stenographer requires the feeling for language which practice in careful speaking gives. Certainly all will find a good voice and pronunciation an enormous asset. Sales talks, reports upon commercial activities, debates, conversation on business ethics, and similar exercises are easily arranged and full of zest.

Written composition should consist largely, but by no means wholly, of letter-writing. Content should receive as much attention as form. The assignments should be of the nature of problems calling for the exercise of tact and judgment. To drill mechanically merely adds to the number of "bone-heads" in the world. Life and reality may be secured by group correspondence so conducted that a given pupil is appealed to by several rivals and must make a choice.

Besides letters, the pupils should write reports, advertisements, and newspaper stories. These exercises will provide excellent opportunity for enforcing the elementary principles of correctness and effectiveness.

The details to be emphasized in grammar, punctuation, and spelling must be determined by actual investigation. Charters and Ayres have made a beginning in doing this. The details finally selected should be perfectly mastered.

Much of the reading of pupils in business English should be contemporary and related to business. Biographies and accounts of achievement will provide much that will be directly inspirational.

It should be remembered, however, that human nature is, after all, the great factor in business as elsewhere. Literary study which really helps pupils to understand themselves and others, and which develops their personalities is invaluable. Many English classics can serve these purposes, even in the case of pupils with narrow outlook. Whether they actually do so or not depends upon the teacher. There is good salesmanship in *Julius Caesar*, but assuredly the college-entrance grind will never reveal it.

The general reading of business pupils should be stimulated and guided with special care for two reasons: (1) for its value in keeping one well informed; (2) because in the case of those in whom the habit of reading is rightly formed, it may become the great means of self-education and of true enjoyment.

THE CONTENT AND PRESENTATION OF SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING

ADA R. COLLINS, COLORADO SPRINGS, COLO.

Commercial education was originally conceived to be merely clerical training, like that carried on in business colleges, and that notion, largely unchanged, still persists in the minds of many. It came into the public schools of the country at an unfortunate

time, at a time when it was pedagogically unfashionable for schools to have a vocational purpose. All subjects were idealized in order to make them yield what were considered "cultural values." But, thanks to the changing conditions, the commercial high school and the commercial department of the public schools need to be no longer on the defensive. Commercial education has become a part of the school curriculum, not by design, but rather because of the impossibility of disregarding the demand for it. It involves vastly more than familiarity with commercial subjects. These are, of course, fundamental and important, but it is a tremendous mistake to ignore the fact that the business world of today demands a much wider range of training than is provided in the old-fashioned business-school curriculum. The aim should be to give the student the best possible preparation for a career of business usefulness.

A very large percentage of the "clerical and secretarial positions" to which the student is attracted are entered by means of a knowledge of shorthand and typewriting. Stenography is the open door thru which young people may enter business life. What, then, is adequate training for this work? In no field are the duties more variable than in that of the stenographer. The stenographer may address envelopes all day, or he may be called upon to dictate original letters to others. He may do one thing exactly as he is told from the beginning of the week to the end, or he may organize, control, and initiate. The immediate task, then, may demand only a limited experience and training, or it may call for the broadest possible culture, the finest personality, and the utmost executive ability.

This fact is plainly emphasized by interviews with employers in connection with what they expect the employe in the office to offer in the way of qualifications. For convenience, I have grouped those qualifications under four chief heads: character, personality, general education, and technique.

Character.—The character of the stenographer is indicated by his response to the demands put upon him. Whether the work is small or great, he must be absolutely trustworthy. The work of the office is a private matter, not, under any conditions, to be communicated to others; hence, he must be trained to have a fine sense of honor, to be worthy of confidence.

Personality.—By personality we mean all the gracious gifts which individuals have won from their environment. It is the initial test to which the student applying for a position is put. Some students inherently lack personality, and, for this reason, should be directed to some other occupation. Others have latent possibilities in the matter of personality. Lack of information, failure of the home to supply proper inspiration, general unfortunate environment may retard promising students in attaining success. The teachers should secure personal information about the student's home, his father's occupation, and then in every way possible give him the knowledge that will help him to realize what is required of him.

General Education.—It is evident from the variety of the positions awaiting the stenographer that general education is indispensable. It gives a background which makes possible an intelligent grasp of the details of the particular occupation. This education does not necessarily mean facts and figures dug from books in the classroom, but rather the ability to apply these facts and theories to the practical affairs of life. The stenographer who expects to advance must always be a student of English, for the sake of clearness of expression and style, as well as understanding. If he has a good general education, he will take up his new work with enthusiasm, rejoicing in every new thing to be learned, eager to achieve new tasks. It is the capacity of the trained mind that counts quite as much as the knowledge which it is supposed to bring.

Technique.—This I have put fourth in the list of essentials because it is the qualification which determines the rapidity of the advancement of the student possessing the other necessary characteristics. It is with this essential that the average teacher of shorthand and typewriting is perhaps most concerned.

In launching a student in a course in shorthand, the average teacher finds it profitable to give a short course in phonetics, having the student memorize the names of the diacritical marks and familiarize himself with the different vowel sounds. Especially is this true in the position systems. After this has been accomplished and the consonant and vowel alphabet has been learned, I have found it helpful to have the students not only write words in their correct positions, but pronounce words with great rapidity and give the positions in which they should be written. In doing board work in shorthand, I have found that various grades of students may be helped by having each student write as many times as possible the word pronounced, while the slowest student is writing it but once. This calls for very careful supervision to see that the outlines are correctly made.

Typewriting is so closely allied with shorthand that it must necessarily fall under the same careful supervision. The teacher should insist upon the student using pure touch system. A great many theories have been advanced for the accomplishment of this purpose, but most teachers have found that different students call for different methods. After the practice lessons in the manual have been completed, the student may begin upon the practical application of his practice work. Almost every school affords ample opportunity for plenty of practical work.

Let the classes in shorthand and typewriting make the outlines for the various departments of the school. In the typewriting room stencils may be cut for review and examination questions. Work for the other members of the faculty, the copying of these for students not taking typewriting, notices sent out by the principal—all this work may be profitably done by the students, always, however, under the close supervision of the teacher.

Where part-time employment is possible, it is found to be very helpful. In actual business the student realizes his failures and is impressed with the need of certain qualifications in a way that it is impossible to make him understand in the schoolroom. In the business office he is kept in touch with the constantly changing conditions caused by the introduction of new office appliances. The practice of having prominent business men of the community, especially large employers of office help, speak to the classes about the requirements of office help will be found of valuable assistance. Courses in office practice, demonstrating right and wrong office methods, will be found practicable and helpful.

Commercial education must greatly expand its scope in order to embrace the larger opportunities of business; and teachers must invite the cooperation of business men if this expansion is to be accomplished.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

- President*—ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, director of elementary practice teaching, public schools, . . . Pittsburgh, Pa.
Vice-President—BERTHA M. MCCONKEY, assistant superintendent of schools, Springfield, Mass.
Secretary—MARIE TURNER HARVEY, teacher, Porter Rural School, Adair County, Kirksville, Mo.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The department was called to order by President Ada Van Stone Harris at 9:30 A.M., in Concert Hall of Madison Square Garden.

In the absence of the secretary, the chair appointed the vice-president of the department, Bertha M. McConkey, to serve as secretary.

The following program was presented:

Topic: A Study of the Question of the Transfer of the Upper Two Grades of the Elementary School to the High School, Based On—

"The Peculiar Psychological Conditions and Social Needs of the Seventh and Eighth Grades"—David Snedden, professor of educational sociology, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"The Organization of the Upper Elementary Grades Contrasted with the Organization of the Lower Elementary Grades and the High School"—John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

"The Necessity of Changes in the Curriculum of the Upper Elementary Grades, both in Subject-Matter and in Content"—Mary D. Bradford, superintendent of schools, Kenosha, Wis.

"The Intensive Study of Large Topics"—Charles A. McMurry, professor of elementary education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

"Proper Vocational Guidance in the Upper Elementary Grades"—William M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Place of the Corporation and the Continuation Schools"—Clifford B. Connelley, dean, School of Applied Industries, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The chair appointed the following to serve as a committee to nominate officers for 1917:

Susan M. Dorsey, assistant superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

Olive M. Jones, principal, Public School No. 27, New York, N.Y.

Robert W. Wright, president, East Carolina Teachers Training School, Greenville, N.C.

C. J. Scott, superintendent of schools, Wilmington, Del.

A. Ruth Pyrtle, principal, McKinley School, Lincoln, Neb.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A. M., in Concert Hall of Madison Square Garden, the president in the chair.

The following program was carried out.

Topic: Is There a Need for More Reality in the Elementary School Curriculum?

"In Industrial Arts and Crafts—Getting Manual Skill and Making Things"—John M. Mills, superintendent of schools, Ogden, Utah.

"In Arithmetic—Socializing Arithmetic"—Georgia Alexander, supervising principal of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

"In Geography—the Social and Industrial Point of View"—John Willis Slaughter, recent lecturer on sociology, University of London, England; Philadelphia, Pa.

"In Elementary Science—Relating Studies of Force and Life to Human Needs"—Charles L. Edward, director of nature-study, Los Angeles, Cal. This paper was read by Susan M. Dorsey, assistant superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

"In English Composition and Grammar—Based upon Correct Speech, Correcting Common Errors of Children"—H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.

"Will Standard Tests Economize Time, Lead to a Broadening of the Subject-Matter, and Make for Efficiency of both Teacher and Pupil?"—Lida Lee Tall, supervisor of grammar grades, Baltimore County Schools, Towson, Md.

The following officers, as recommended by the Committee on Nominations, were elected:

President—Georgia Alexander, supervising principal of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

Vice-President—Grace de Graff, principal, Kenton School, Portland, Ore.

Secretary—Lida Lee Tall, supervisor of grammar grades, Baltimore County Schools, Towson, Md.

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

A joint meeting with the Department of Kindergarten Education was called to order by the president at 9:30 A.M., in Concert Hall of Madison Square Garden.

The following program was presented:

Topic: The Relation of the Kindergarten and Primary Grades

"The Educational Values Which the Child Carries Over from the Kindergarten into the Primary Grades"—Mary D. Hill, supervisor of kindergartens, Louisville, Ky.

"Should the Kindergartens and the Primary Teachers Teach an Equal Number of Hours and Receive the Same Pay?"—Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.

"Practical Means of Unifying the Work of the Kindergarten and the Primary Grades":

1. "The Elementary Point of View"—Junius L. Meriam, professor of school supervision, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

2. "The Kindergarten Point of View"—Luella A. Palmer, assistant director of kindergartens, New York, N.Y.

3. "Discussion"—Thomas M. Balliet, dean, School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York, N.Y.

BERTHA M. MCCONKEY, *Secretary pro tem.*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE PECULIAR PSYCHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS AND SOCIAL NEEDS OF THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

DAVID SNEDDEN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

I. The topic assigned me falls a bit short of the subject I shall treat, in two respects: (1) I shall deal with all children from twelve to fourteen or fifteen years of age, instead of with the seventh and eighth grades only; and (2) I shall assume that there is no proposal to transfer pupils of these ages to the high school as we know it, but rather to organize for them a special type of school, at least in urban communities, to be known as the intermediate school or junior high school. I shall, as my topic suggests,

discuss the pros and cons of the proposed change, from the standpoint of the psychological conditions and social needs of the children involved.

II. But first, let us get our bearings. Proposals for the junior-high-school type of school-organization are chiefly, as yet, proposals for administrative readjustments. I hear very little regarding probable pedagogical changes in courses of instruction and methods of teaching, as now desired or expected, in the upper grades. In large measure the new type of organization is sought simply as a means—in the minds of many persons an indispensable means—of attaining the educational goals which, long ago, we set ourselves for children in upper grades, and in some cases for all children over twelve years of age.

1. The existing type of organization as found in almost any urban community in the United States is usually as follows:

a) The elementary school consists of eight or nine grades, the children in which, ranging from five to about fifteen years, are all housed in one school building.

b) From one-fifth to one-third of the pupils of twelve years of age and upward are found retarded in grades below the seventh, competing with younger and, as a rule, brighter children.

c) The grade teachers teach all subjects in grades below the seventh, and in the seventh and eighth all but manual training for boys and household arts for girls; at times music and drawing are taught departmentally; and in perhaps 3 to 5 per cent only of all schools fairly comprehensive systems of departmental teaching in general are found.

d) The upper-grade teachers are women, with increasingly rare exceptions; these women have not had special training for upper-grade work, but are, as a rule, the abler of the teachers who obtained their first experience in country schools or lower grades (upper-grade positions frequently carry better salaries, and are therefore sought by women who expect to remain permanently in the teaching profession).

e) The course of study is uniform for all pupils alike, except for the differentiation of manual training for boys and household arts for girls. Its primary elements are: English language, English literature, geography, American history, and arithmetic; while hygiene, science, drawing, music, manual arts, civics, etc., are secondary or incidental elements; foreign language and vocational guidance are rare elements.

f) Standards of graduation are determined almost wholly by the prevailing standards for admission to high school; hence, as a rule, less than 50 per cent of all pupils required to attend school obtain the elementary diploma.

2. The school-organization which I have in mind as being more effective, namely, the junior high school, should have the following features:

a) All children from five to twelve (except children under twelve who have finished the sixth grade) should be taught in schools located near their

homes (schools which need not exceed four or five rooms in size), by women teachers only.

b) These lower elementary schools should never be very large—ten or twelve rooms would be a desirable maximum—and the principal should be simply a head teacher; but for each fifty to seventy teachers in these schools in any community there should be a woman supervisor of instruction.

c) All children between twelve and fifteen years of age (including children under twelve ready for the seventh grade, and excluding children under fifteen ready for the regular or senior high school) should be sent to the central junior high school or intermediate school. It should be assumed that a walk of one and one-half or even two miles is not excessive for this purpose.

d) The course of study in the central school should offer the pupils a large range of elective or optional studies in addition to certain essentials in English language, English literature, American history, community civics, and geography, which latter should be prescribed for all (for retarded pupils special classes in these subjects should be formed).

e) Promotion should, as far as practicable, be by subject, so that, for example, retarded pupils in the fourth grade in arithmetic may, if qualified, enter seventh-grade geography; and a boy backward in history may nevertheless take eighth-grade industrial arts (manual training) if qualified.

f) Teaching in the junior high school is expected to be departmentally organized by subjects or, preferably, along lines of the Gary plan, by groups of related subjects; and it is expected that this organization will produce a demand for specially qualified teachers.

g) If the state is willing to pay the price, a certain proportion of men teachers should be assigned to departmental positions, not primarily because they are necessarily better teachers than women, but because it is desirable to introduce, in boys' classes, at any rate, the influence of masculine personality.

III. Those of us who favor such reorganization of education as will give us the six-three-three plan or the six-two-four plan, with the junior and senior high schools either as two- and-four-year or three- and-three-year schools, respectively, and, in any event, as large central schools, do so because we believe that, on the whole, the psychological conditions of children as well as their social needs justify such reorganization, even if it cost the community slightly more financially. What are those conditions, and what are those needs?

1. The conditions are summed up in the two words "increasing variability." Uniform programs of education, uniform teaching methods, and non-specialized teachers presuppose groups of people of substantially uniform characteristics. But all recent inquiries tend to bring into relief facts as to the increasing unlikeness of children beyond twelve years of age. We recognize them as differing moderately as regards height, weight, and

bodily strength; materially as regards abilities in such studies as literature, vernacular language, and history; and vary greatly, indeed, as regards abilities and interests in music, plastic and graphic art, abstract mathematics, alien language, and manual constructive work.

Let us now make two general propositions with regard to which there will be no serious debate.

a) If, possessed of endless resources and hampered by no restrictions of any kind, we were making educational programs for our children, we would doubtless, in the light of what we now know regarding the unlikeness of individuals among them, make the programs for no two of them exactly alike in all respects. We would pay tribute to obvious differences as regards the gifts bestowed by the gods of heredity and of early environment; and we would not ignore the probable opportunities and limitations decreed by fortune in the child's future life. We would strengthen some of his already strong powers; and where he is weak, we might justly forego to strive for the powers for the foundation of which nature did so little.

b) On the other hand, except in rare cases of genius or defect, it is not practicable to educate children on the basis of strictly individual qualifications. In education, as in war, industry, transportation, worship, housing and entertainment, economy and general efficiency require that we deal with people in squads, platoons, and divisions. We must have companies and regiments for fighting; congregations for worship; gangs, crews, and departments in industry; audiences and parties for entertainment; passenger groups and classes for transportation; and grades and classes in schools. To talk of individual instruction, except as that is practicable within group organization, is to talk nonsense, except where the few children of wealth and rank are concerned. In the organization of groups for school education, therefore, we cannot, tho we would, provide special programs for each individual, as men and women did for Helen Keller. We must provide for a certain amount of regimentation, classification, grouping. But these groupings must not be fixt in rigid groups.

2. Besides the psychological "conditions" of the individuals composing our school classes, what are their social "needs" that justify the proposed reorganizations of upper-grade work? The keynote to these needs will be found in the words "progressively increasing differentiation." Modern civilized life is like modern industry or modern army-organization. Functions are being increasingly differentiated, and activities and interests specialized according to all kinds of capacities and opportunities.

But it should be clear at the outset that as regards fitting individuals for group life, the school has two different functions that are at times in conflict. The groups into which children must fit are of various kinds. There are large groups and small groups, such as the nation, the religious denomination, the political party, the potential army of defense, the readers of good books, the economic organization; and, opposed to these, the local

community, the particular church or sect, the political gang, the squad or mass, the partisans of a particular book or writer, the embattled employes of a particular industrial establishment. There are vocational, as against cultural, groups—farmers, machinists, bankers, teachers, waitresses, homemakers and defenders, as against patrons of art, readers of classic literature, subscribers to specified magazines, visitors to the “movies,” illiterates, etc. Various other groupings may be distinguished, such as family groups, racial groups, socialability groups, economic cooperative groups, worshiping groups, etc.

Now, it is one of the functions of education to predispose and fit its pupils for assimilation with the larger, as against the smaller, group in the interests of a wholesome social order, harmony, and economy of effort. We therefore seek that all American children shall speak a common tongue, write a mutually understandable prose, have a common knowledge of certain standard literature, comprehend and appreciate alike the important facts of our geography, history, and civic life.

But it is another function of education to see that our young people are fitted efficiently to discharge their responsibilities in the small groups of which they will inevitably be a part. Membership in, and sympathy with, the large groups of civilized society are essential to the harmony of the social order; but active and properly coordinated participation in the activities of smaller groups is essential to efficient personal growth, individual efficiency, and ultimate social usefulness.

Hence, the desirability of partial group-differentiation of pupils, even as early as twelve years of age. Their needs include fitting for those special group activities in which they can most profitably serve themselves and society. As to some of these children it is certain that their opportunities for school education will close forever at or near fourteen years of age. We may not always know the particular individuals of whom this is true, altho a shrewd social diagnostician, knowing the facts as to the home conditions, school standing in studies, intellectual interests, general moral behavior, and physical conditions of one hundred children at twelve years of age, could, I think, guess rightly as to 90 per cent of them. But even if we do not know the future as regards particular individuals, we do know it in large measure of collected groups in the statistical sense. We know of probable numerical ratios and percentages; hence, any refusal on our part to provide opportunities into which individuals will fit as well as may be on the initiative of themselves or their parents, with perhaps our advice, is wasteful, inefficient, and essentially undemocratic.

There is a certain small percentage of our pupils who, by virtue of their probable future opportunities for usefulness and self-gratification, ought to have early opportunity to study a foreign language—German, French, Portuguese, Russian, or Japanese. Here again, with pupils at the age of twelve, we may not be able to select just the persons who should be advised

to do this; but, if the opportunities are provided, and if parents are fully advised as to the conditions, requirements, and probable fruits of this work, and if admission to it is restricted to those who have shown superior ability in the vernacular, choices will be right perhaps 50 or 70 per cent of the time.

It is assumed here, of course, that no vocational training as such will be given in the junior high school. That will come later and will naturally require a large degree of specialization—in a city the establishment of perhaps hundreds of different and unlike specific vocational schools to prepare for the hundreds of separate commercial, industrial, and domestic occupations into which modern life is divided.

But in the junior high school large opportunities should be given for practical-arts training, which, while not vocational in its outcome, may help toward vocation-finding, and if properly directed, will certainly give insight into the ideals and social significance of occupational life.

To be of real service, however, practical-arts education (industrial arts, agricultural arts, household arts, nautical arts, and commercial arts are all included under this head) must be diversified according to the fundamental interests of children; and the spirit in which each type of work is to be approached should be that of the amateur. Courses should be very flexible. A pupil entering printing for the first time, for example, should have the option of several simple introductory projects; after he has given reasonable attention to any one he should, if he wishes, be permitted to take up projects in a totally unrelated field—gardening, for example. Hence the need of the flexible course of study which only the junior-high-school type of organization can provide.

Let us repeat: The proposed junior-high-school type of school organization is an administrative means—a necessary means—to certain essential forms of improvement of the education of young people from twelve to fifteen years of age.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE UPPER ELEMENTARY GRADES CONTRASTED WITH THE ORGANIZATION OF THE LOWER ELEMENTARY GRADES AND THE HIGH SCHOOL

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I have been requested to discuss briefly the relation of the various stages of elementary and secondary education, and to disclose, if possible, the presence or absence of a logic of continuity in an analysis of our general régime of instruction.

The gradation which has come to us as a heritage, modified and improved as it has been in successive stages of advancement, still bears the earmarks of tradition and some scars of cleavage over which lines of rational connec-

tion must still be constructed. If we may appropriate for the moment a phrase from the vocabulary of practical mechanics, the aggregation is that of "assembled parts." It is indeed true that the movement of the years has been along the line of a more vital relation and organic connection, but we have not yet advanced to the place where the cross-sectional or transverse perspective, from which we have so long viewed the various steps or gradations of the curriculum, has been displaced by the longitudinal view. The basis of gradation, moreover, has been for the most part that of the power or grasp of the student rather than the adaptation of the materials of the school course to the diverse interests peculiar to each epoch of child life.

Results of scientific investigations in the field of education and the embodiment of the child, with all his variations in type, as factors in the processes of curriculum-making, have revealed to us, often unhappily, that there have been pronounced cases of abnormality in courses of study as well as in children. The problem of adapting materials and methods to meet the needs of the variable type in childhood and youth has opened to us one of the most interesting and promising fields of educational research. It is significant of the tenacity of purpose of those who have sought the truth in this scheme of readjustment that it has extended itself to the work of disintegrating and reassembling the groups of the grades in the curriculum, which have become hoary with age, and which, hitherto entrenched in tradition, have defied the onset of the educational reformers. As a result, out of this reclassification there have been presented for our consideration such educational experiments as the junior high school, the six-and-six plan, and the six-three-and-three plan of organizing the elementary- and secondary-school curriculum. In all these schemes of readjustment, however, it is noteworthy that tacitly or by common consent the earlier stages of the elementary course remain unchanged. Doubtless this work of the earlier school years will, in the very nature of the case, always remain distinct and constant in relation to the later activities of the school life of the child. In considering the problem of structural planning, therefore, this period may well be denominated as an educational constant. Its relation to the succeeding years of school experience is distinctly preparatory. Without being explicit, may I say that there is current a false concept of the province of education during these years which should be sacred to the vital interests of early childhood, and it has resulted in blasting the hopes of thousands of our youth, and has strewn the paths of school experience with inexcusable failures and disappointed ambitions.

To introduce a phrase which brings the problem of school-management into closer analogy with the business world, we need more of the genius of capitalization, the recognition of values and potentialities in each stage of the educational process. During the first six years of school life the child's imagination is found to be active, the senses keen, the imitative powers at high tide, the will flexible, the mind receptive, and the memory

retentive. It is a storage-battery period in the life of the youth. It is the age when the capacity to receive a wealth of varied experiences and impressions is at its maximum. At the risk of being thought trite, I desire to accentuate the fact that this period, covering the first half-dozen years of the child's school life, is prime for the mastery of symbols and the full command of those agencies thru which the creative products of higher mental activities are in the future to find acceptable expression.

In mastery of subject-matter and modes of expression, tho not essentially in method of approach, we must never allow ourselves to forget the standards of the earlier schools. We should not be afraid of the appellation "old-fashioned." When we trace to causal origin the failures of many of our children in the upper elementary grades, we often discover that sequential relations were ignored and rational preparedness was left to the law of chance. Many a so-called laggard has failed miserably in the classroom and has been driven from school, only to succeed brilliantly later in the countingroom or shop. The fault has lain partly in the failure to recognize the fact that certain individualities cannot be reached by the orthodox school media and the historically prescribed methods of teaching very useful and indispensable subjects, but also in the failure to ground the child thoroly in those fundamental arts of the school which are basic to further intellectual progress. The former difficulty does not lie with the child, neither with the subject-matter taught, but rather in the fact that there has been failure to recognize that certain types of children, when they reach the preadolescent years, develop unique personalities which require differential methods of teaching and a wider variety of subject-matter in the course of study, if they are to attain to that degree of intellectual growth of which they are capable.

In the upper grades of the elementary schools, especially the seventh and eighth years, therefore, differentiation is required, if every child is to be put into the possession of his lawful heritage. It should not be necessary for the youth who possesses instincts, interests, and abilities which do not conform to the historical type for whom the regulation courses of study have been outlined in the past, to be driven from school and be compelled to enter the work-a-day world undirected by the sympathetic and intelligent hands of those to whom has been intrusted the guidance of our youth. Not least among the values and purposes to be served by a differentiated course in the upper grammar grades, therefore, is the opportunity it offers to the lost and bewildered boy or girl to find himself or herself, which, if attained, is the sesame that throws wide open the portals of hope and discloses the path to success.

It is easy, unless one exercises care, to confuse differentiation in the upper grades and in the high schools with opportunities for industrial training and for the exercise of one's prerogatives to prepare for a co-operative place in the social fabric, which is the right of every child. While

industrial schools for those who are not academically minded, whose capacities lie primarily in avenues where they may deal with the concrete rather than the symbolic, constitute a feature of differentiation, yet they do not define its intent nor its scope. Modern pedagogical investigations have made it quite clear that children must perform work suited to their capacities if they would progress and be put into possession of abiding interests that will carry them thru life; and at the same time they must work with those who have comparable abilities, ideals, and aims if a consciousness of the measure of their value to society is to be engendered and they are to be made to feel that there is a useful and dignified function in life which they may subserve. It is clearly recognized that the high schools have been measurably performing such a function, particularly with their recent acquisition of a rich accumulation of activities—a variety of opportunity for delving deeply into this or that field of science, literature, history, language, or art. But the high schools fail to reach more than a fraction of that motley crowd that surges thru our elementary schools, a few, to be sure, reaching the high school, but more dropping out as failures before they have reached the seventh and eighth grades, feeling the stigma of having failed, and complacently resigned to their fates with a fatal pessimism at an age when they should be filled with optimism and a zest for meeting life's problems.

For those who have completed the work of the eight grades, too, there are trade schools to meet the needs of any whose capacities are limited in range within relatively narrow limits. While I should not want anyone to think that I wish to speak disparagingly of the work of the trade schools, yet, unfortunately, the number of children to whom their doors are closed is all too large, since they are unable to get over the hurdles of the upper-grade studies in order to enter them. Besides, there lurks in the trade schools a subtle menace to the basis of our democratic institutions, since they tend to a fixity of life and motive, and are likely to act as a deterrent to individuality, initiative, and the ambition to reach higher levels of accomplishment and service. Particularly is this true if specialization is begun too early, and those delicate tendrils that have been thrown out in every direction to bring the young life into the widest possible varieties of experience are broken by the narrowness and the restriction that industrial courses impose upon those who pursue them too early in life. It is the broader type of differentiation that I would urge as best suited for that vast number of the youth who find it impossible to adapt themselves to the academic fixity of the historical upper-grade grammar school.

Investigators have come more and more to learn that mental differentiation occurs in children much earlier than was formerly thought possible, and that considerably before the years of adolescence there are to be noted those changes that are so premonitory of the kind of man or woman the child is to become, what his interests are to be, and in what particular

directions there is to be entertained any hope of success for him in after-years. Failure heretofore to recognize soon enough the early change in the mental complexes of our youth and their need of a wider opportunity for choice in studies is assigned by educational experts as one of the most potent causes of school failures and the elimination of children from school as soon as the age of compulsory attendance has been past. From what we now know it appears that our conception of an eight-year course of study in our elementary school as an "educational constant" for every normal child is in error. It is contrary to nature and therefore unscientific. The age of twelve rather than the age of fourteen probably more nearly marks the point where a change in method and a wider variety of content is demanded. At this age the average child is still in the elementary school. In the elementary schools especially, which are the testing and training laboratories for a world of action, it should be the heritage of every child to receive a due proportion of the essentials and the culture, measured to his development and his interests, differentiated to suit his abilities and his capacities, so that he may grow into the fullest possible usefulness, and be able to render the widest measure of social service.

*THE NECESSITY OF CHANGES IN THE CURRICULUM OF THE
UPPER ELEMENTARY GRADES, BOTH IN SUBJECT-
MATTER AND IN CONTENT*

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The children of the rapidly growing industrial city of 30,000 people in the Middle West where I work are indebted to economic reasons for the reorganization of their public-school system. The situation is typical. Overcrowded conditions in the elementary schools and high school made some sort of readjustment necessary. The completion of a large new grade-school building permitted changes by which it is possible to vacate another grade building, centrally located, which can accommodate the seventh and eighth grades from five schools, thus starting the new organization. Our overcrowded high school will also receive the benefit of this change by being freed from the necessity of taking care of these pupils when ready for the ninth year.

The following facts concerning our school system are typical, and seem to demonstrate the need of the changes under discussion.

The pupils graduating from the eighth grade of the Kenosha schools in February last had lost 29 per cent of their number on the road from the sixth grade. Carefully kept histories of classes entering the high school show that, while some encouraging effects have resulted from an improved curriculum, still, in each of the last six years, we have lost about one-third of our pupils between the eighth and the ninth grades; that is, only from

65 to 68 per cent of those completing the eighth grade continued in school; from 10 to 22 per cent of those entering high school dropt out before the end of the first year; and recent classes have lost from 40 to 49 per cent of their original numbers at the beginning of the tenth grade. We thus see that in the city mentioned, during the critical period between the close of the sixth and the beginning of the tenth school year, as great a loss as 85 per cent of the pupils has occurred. Familiar statistics found in the federal and other reports show these conditions, with variations for better or worse, to be general.

These facts furnish the fundamental reason for thinking some sort of change necessary. It seems to me that the refusal of boys and girls by thousands to accept our old plan, and the evidence in this of the negative judgment upon this plan of the common social mind, are reasons enough for the change; but when the psychology of adolescence reveals to us the probable cause of the trouble, there is surely nothing to do but to seek a remedy. The one proposed is to make six years suffice for elementary training, and then to offer a change for the next precarious three years with courses of study and teaching processes better adapted to the "desires, aptitudes, interests, capabilities, and future possibilities" of every boy and girl who continues beyond the elementary grades.

A common fundamental belief seems to be shaping these courses of study, namely, that the school should return to society at any stage of their progress those prepared as far as possible at that stage to become intelligent, able-bodied, progressive citizens, citizens "not only good but good for something." Earning a living forms part of the ideal, and follows as a matter-of-course if the larger training is successful.

We find in these courses, therefore, certain fundamental subjects for every pupil, whether he contemplates entering the high school or not. These make up the constants of the curriculum, and their inclusion in the course is evidence of the growing realization of the connection between democracy and education. They may be considered the common denominator of thought and sympathy, by which the people of a democracy may be added together. We also find variable elements. What these are depends upon circumstances, the size of the school and its facilities, and the demands of the community; but in general they point forward to some specific vocation or to further schooling.

The first constant which all course-makers are agreed upon is English, which includes reading, writing, spelling, composition, grammar, and literature. Self-realization is impossible without ability to express; but practice for the attainment of clear, forceful, correct expression must be motivated by the idea that such expression is used for the purpose and in the way that life demands. The pupil says something to somebody, because of his interest in having that somebody understand and feel what he—the pupil—understands and feels. This makes composition an essen-

tial phase of all other work, and makes grammar the "critical instrument" for use in the attainment of correct expression, a means, and not an end. Ability to influence thru clear, forceful, correct English is important; but it is no more important than ability to appreciate the literature that has become a common possession of the race. All should be led into a love of books and good reading habits. This age of children is just the time for arousing appreciation of great characters and stirring situations. This is real "bread" for the unfolding moral life, and we must see to it that these children are not handed the unpalatable and often indigestible substitute of prescribed college-entrance requirements, of the traditional sort, served up with a dry sauce of definition and exhaustive analysis. Music and dramatization for all should be added to this strand, which aims at appreciation.

Another constant, a close second to the one already named, is a general social-science course, the core of which may be American history and citizenship. George E. Vincent calls these the "New Humanities," and says that in the education of the future "effort will be made to develop in every mind some sense of the vast, ongoing collective life men call the nation, a panorama of the past with its great figures, its story and song, its struggles and victories, its mistakes and failures."

A third constant gaining favor in this new organization is the general science course, including physical and biological phenomena. This should be "extensive and popular, rather than intensive and narrowly scholarly," thus harmonizing completely with the natural impulse of those entering the period of adolescence, which demands change, variety, and human interest rather than completeness and logical arrangement. By thus passing before the pupil the salient features of several important departments of knowledge, he is able to discover inherent likings and aptitudes, and thus gain assistance in making choices that may fundamentally and completely modify his future individual development. If the pupil cannot go beyond the ninth grade, he has been afforded a glimpse of what the world of knowledge contains; and, if he can continue, he has had a good introduction to the more intensive work which the advanced course expects of him. This general-science course should include that hygiene which is necessary for the conservation of physical and moral life. In some localities it may also take on the form of elementary agriculture.

A fourth constant, at least for two years, is mathematics. Here, as with grammar, the tenacity of the grip of traditional belief and practice must be reckoned with. Generally speaking, the mathematics needed at this stage should aim in one direction, that is, to give children a working knowledge of money from the viewpoint of the home and common business, incidentally impressing lessons of thrift. Another line should place emphasis upon measurements, and this may merge into geometry in its constructive phases. Algebra, which is now commonly studied in the

eighth grade, will probably continue as a part of the mathematics group, altho it has heard the challenge to make an affirmative case for itself.

A fifth constant, at least for one year, as most course-makers think, is some form of constructive work by all pupils, "occupational efficiency" of some sort and to some degree being the aim. It is generally conceded that no matter what a boy's future may be, he should acquire some expertness in the use of tools; and that girls should be taught the fundamentals of woman's work in the home, always with the much-needed accompanying thought of sensible frugality. This course should include drawing, put to service in the other subjects. Physical training for all and also athletics are important factors at this stage of educational progress.

It is, however, in its provision for variable elements in the curriculum that the new school is chiefly differentiated from the old. There is an opportunity for electives, so that boys and girls may further try out their different powers and begin to form their life-purposes. There are subjects and activities which start the child along the line of a chosen vocation, but the choice is understood to be provisional, with ample opportunity for readjustment.

The prevocational courses now being tried give a larger proportion of time to the industrial activities, such as manual training, domestic science, and commercial subjects than the general course requires. It is the teaching of this occupational group from the trade standpoint that constitutes, as we know, the sensitive spot in discussions of this question.

Another important elective is a foreign language, this being sometimes offered in the seventh grade. Very enthusiastic reports have been received about the success of this work where it is being tried. Spanish seems to be in the ascendant.

All the changes of subject-matter and content felt to be best cannot be realized at once. You remember, perhaps, that the first automobiles had dashboards. Custom did it. And custom will cause to persist for awhile, even in newly devised and carefully planned courses, topics, and methods that are ancestral traces of needs no longer existing and beliefs disproved and discarded. But lovers of the truth following the light afforded us by the new conception of education can do much. We must remember that many of the ills we suffer from are teaching ills. For one thing, we can cease those teaching practices that are based on the belief that the chief purpose of education is the accumulation of knowledge for use at some future time, thus putting the premium upon memory. We can think more of development and training and trust that knowledge will take care of itself. We can discard the old, formal studies, drills, and topics adhered to solely on account of their reputed value for "mental discipline." We can act in the light of the new idea of discipline—ability to do things independently, and not submission to restraint.

A recent article entitled "Education in the Next Generation," by President George E. Vincent, appearing in *The Independent* of June 26, 1916, gives us a vision of the school toward which this program points, and puts me under obligations for the closing paragraph of my paper. He says:

In the eleventh or twelfth year, tested by the varied experiences of the earlier grades children begin to display special aptitudes and interests. These will influence the activities and studies suggested to the pupils. The persons assigned to the work of vocational guidance will begin to discuss with boys and girls their future plans. Courses will be adapted to individual needs. Out of the elementary school, pupils will be guided according to aptitudes, ambitions, and circumstances to schools of different types which give special training in mechanical pursuits, commercial subjects, fine and industrial arts, agriculture and rural life, general education, preparation for technical and professional schools or colleges. Many pupils will be directed to special occupational courses which they will pursue until they are of legal age to enter upon wage-earning.

Dr. Vincent predicts that the purposeful system of education which he describes will keep in mind: (1) training for occupational efficiency, (2) the encouragement of spontaneity and initiative, and (3) the fostering of capacity for civic life. While placing occupational skill first, he would protect children from the danger of having the second and third aims ignored, not only for the children's sake, but for the sake of the nation whose welfare demands an education that transcends material efficiency and touches it "with idealistic aims and loyalties."

THE INTENSIVE STUDY OF LARGE TOPICS

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How to put the right spirit and energy into grammar-grade studies is a deep and vital question concerning the welfare of the children. There has been much complaint because of a lack of rich content and of productive, stimulating thought in these studies. Too many mere unordered facts are offered and too much routine drill on previous studies. It is profoundly important to get hold of the best study material suitable to adolescents and to learn how to bring them under the influence of such stimulating thought. An enriched and well-organized course of study which they can appreciate and enjoy is the first essential. In order to get a fair start toward the solution of this problem, one important change from our present course of study is necessary. We should shift from the present plan of scattering over broad fields of miscellaneous facts and numerous small topics to the opposite plan of selecting a few important topics for each year. In other words, we should centralize our study upon a far more intensive and enriched treatment of a few big topics.

We are convinced that adolescent children, according to their abilities and nature, require: (1) strong, rich topics of study, important national

and world-topics which constitute the central units of instruction; (2) well-informed, large-minded, versatile teachers who have learned how to deal with those growing, fruitful ideas which organize the world of knowledge on an imposing scale. This presupposes inclinations and abilities in grammar-grade children equal to the thought-mastery of these comprehensive and many-sided topics, such as: in history—the Puritans in England and in America, the cavaliers and the southern-plantation system, Burgoyne's invasion, the slavery agitation; in geography—a continental railway system like the Pennsylvania Central, irrigation plans in the West, the growth and the problems of New York City, the Rocky Mountains, etc.; in literature—the Robin Hood stories, *Evangeline*, *The Great Stone Face*, *Ivanhoe*, *Treasure Island*, *Merchant of Venice*, *Story of Ulysses*; in applied science—the water-supply of cities, the growth and influence of the steam-engine, state and national forestry, electric power plants in rivers, wireless telegraphy, the flying machine, selection and cultivation of corn fertilizers, Burbank's experiments on plants.

These grammar-grade topics should be important types, based upon underlying ideas extending thru the whole course of study. Every chief topic thus elaborately worked out should remain in the memory as a permanent landmark, a center of organization, not only at the time of treatment, but for future accumulations thruout school and life. Any topic that does not gather together and unify enough material to produce a strong and distinct impression that also remains as a standard for judging future problems is not worth studying at all. On the basis of this argument we could certainly omit a great many small topics and at the same time concentrate our effort upon these larger units of study. The full, satisfactory, intensive handling of such dominant topics carries the student into some source materials, into fuller descriptions, and into the extended and varied relations of the topic to other studies. In this way important habits of thinking and of organizing facts and collected data are formed.

A proper study, for example, of irrigation in the West would presuppose a careful examination of one important government project like that on the Salt River in Arizona or that on the Snake River in Idaho. Full government reports are studied, including the work of engineers in laying out the project, the building of a big dam, various materials, labors, difficulties, and expenses; the manner of constructing the diversion dam for catching the water saved up in the lake and distributing it thru ditches to the irrigated lands in the valley lower down the stream. Maps and structural diagrams and photographs of the working operations contribute much. The climatic and physiographic conditions surrounding the whole project are fully looked into. The government follows a well-devised scheme for attracting settlers and for distributing the lands to them on a plan of moderate payments which will return to the state the money invested, for later use in other similar projects. A brief comparison follows of the vari-

ous projects already carried out in the western states with the results achieved in developing population and agriculture. These public schemes of irrigation are compared also with the more numerous private schemes that have been worked out in the West. At this point a study of statistical data will show what a vast wealth has been produced by these means in many of the western states. It far surpasses the output of the gold and silver and copper mines.

The arid belt, in which irrigation is the chief means of developing agriculture, is found by a study of maps to extend over more than a third of the territory of the United States. It may even be worth while to compare agriculture in irrigated regions with that in regions of rainfall in order to discover which is more advantageous and productive. Note also the variety of products raised in irrigated lands, as wheat and grains, potatoes and vegetables, peaches, apples, etc., alfalfa, clover, and hay, strawberries and other berries, even trees and forests; also cattle and stock-raising therewith.

Later, in a comparison with similar irrigation projects in Mexico, in Egypt along the Nile, in the valleys of India, even in Italy and in the Sahara, we shall discover that the extension of irrigation on arid lands in various parts of the world is one of man's chief means of making a living and of adapting himself to physical and climatic conditions the world over.

This topic worked out properly displays a growing, expanding idea, collecting and organizing into one definite line of good thinking a rich and copious variety of knowledge. It interprets the facts and processes of one of the basal human occupations. It brings to the front and explains a large number of most important facts usually presented in geography, but it surpasses the method of the older study by giving unity, connectedness, and meaning to this collection of facts.

Such a large unit of study which gathers up and absorbs into itself an abundant and varied knowledge on the strong basis of a controlling, developing idea may require two weeks or a month or possibly six weeks to give it a full and appropriate elaboration. Such a treatment brings about a real organization of knowledge that means something, a strong sequence and relationship between the facts which associate them more firmly in the memory and develop well-defined highways of thought—what may well be called habits of thinking.

Such thinking-out of important topics produces strong and permanent impressions. In the future the mind will revert to these series and groupings of thought and will further strengthen and develop them. They become the powerful apperceptive masses that enter into much of one's later thinking as interpretative agencies.

Miscellaneous facts and data of knowledge appropriated by a mere act of memory have no such value. They lack organization and meaning, and in many cases drop out of the mind almost as quickly as they enter it. Even if they are retained in memory, they do not function; they do not

interpret other facts and thus continue the process of organization. The miscellaneous knowledge which some of our textbooks furnish children in scattered profusion is lacking in these two essentials of good learning and thinking: (1) the sense of relationship or meaning, and (2) the power to interpret new situations. What a dead weight such knowledge is! It scarcely deserves to be called knowledge. It is a make-believe sort of knowledge, not the real thing.

At this age children should penetrate into a few big, masterly problems of study, so as to feel their value and richness. The big world should disclose itself to the children thru these main channels in a way to surprise and awaken their sleeping thought energies. The mental enlargement and exhilaration which come with a clear insight into big organizing ideas produce the appropriate mental attitude for adolescents. Just as they are preparing to step out into the practical world of trade and business, or it may be into the fields of higher scholarship, they should strike some of these big, expanding topics which will give them respect for knowledge, which will teach them how to think, and lead them to the conviction that this world is strongly organized, and that there is a binding sequence between its parts.

There is no reason why the studies of grammar grades should consist mainly of a mere review, rehash, and repetition of previous studies—a dry summing-up and drilling of earlier studies in language, arithmetic, spelling, and geography. They should indeed result in greater thoroughness, simplicity, and clear insight into all elementary studies, but, as Lowell says: "We don't need to go about to make the world duller than it is." There are big doings in the world outside, and it may be well to give the boys and girls a glimpse of them. Why not grant them a chance at open-eyed wonder.

The adolescent mind will respond to large stimuli, to the enthusiasm involved in the big life-problems, whether individual or social or national, such as the achievements of inventors like Whitney and Field, and Fulton and Edison; of scientists like Pasteur and Franklin; or of travelers like Livingston, Peary, Captain Cook, and Magellan. We are waking up to the fact that grammar-grade boys and girls will respond to situations demanding strong individuals and hearts fearless and energetic. Big, stimulating topics and big-hearted, well-informed enthusiastic teachers who can lead the youth strongly into these simple but vigorous and energetic problems are in demand. We all need this infusion of spiritual energy which is nourished upon large enriching topics of study. Spiritual life and energy do not spring out of the empty and formal treatment of school topics. We must get at real source material, at genuine life-problems, at engrossing, absorbing, national, social, and world interests. These things grow and organize themselves on the basis of abundant facts and out of pressing situations under the stress of life-conditions. We should set children to thinking on big subjects and keep them thinking and moving along these

same lines till they begin to realize definitely what some of the main forces that are operating in the world are.

The big problem, after all, is how to find qualified teachers. Only a few, even good teachers, have learned the art of handling big, interesting topics; of organizing and developing these engrossing problems and series of problems. The fault is not so much with the teachers as with the whole method of their bringing-up, for which they are not responsible. Shifting over to big topics and big problems demands a reorganization of our subject-matter and of our methods of treatment. Our normal schools and colleges should take the lead, as they are doing to some extent, in this selection and elaboration of large units of study. This is the effort to simplify and organize our course of study on a few basal ideas in each study. This simple elaboration of big topics requires a superior kind of thinking, a close sequence of developing thought, and a full background of descriptive and illustrative detail. It requires a higher art of instruction, a capacity to control and combine more complex thought materials which involve wider relations and longer sequences. These processes of teaching have to be demonstrated on definite school topics. Much has been done already in the way of the full and elaborate treatment of these large units, and much more remains to be done. In short, this emphasis of large topics proposes a plan for the higher education of teachers, a practical scheme for selecting and working into shape by fruitful scholarly study groups and series of first-class topics which will form the basis of a better course of study and a richer, more thoughtful method of teaching.

THE PLACE OF THE CORPORATION AND THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

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The corporation and the continuation schools are here to stay. They have come into being in this country as a result of the demand for industrial training. The continuation school may or may not be a corporation school; a corporation school is always a continuation school. In other words, there are two types of continuation schools, one controlled largely by the board of education as a part of a public-school system, and the other controlled by manufacturers or employers of labor as a part of the industrial plant. One gives rise to the expression "school shop" and the other to "shop school."

What relation do these schools have to the thirteen- and fourteen-year-old pupils in our public schools? It is generally conceded that real industrial training should never be given to a child who is not at least fourteen years of age, and preferably sixteen.

Making due allowance for the time element in connection with various innovations, it is a well-known fact that there are still between 70 and 75 per cent of the children of high-school age who do not attend school. How would the transfer of the upper two grades of the elementary school to the high school benefit the 2,000,000 children between fourteen and fifteen years of age who are out of school and who have never gone beyond the sixth grade in their schooling? Surely these should have a voice or a champion when it comes to a question of continuity and adaptability of the child to the schooling which is at the basis of all school reforms. Nor can the large group of youth who do not and never will attend high school be ignored. If both groups could be ruled out arbitrarily, the matter of adjusting the elementary school to the high school would be simple indeed. But they are in the majority, and an educational scheme that leaves them out falls short of being really democratic.

This brings us to the consideration of the continuation school and its place in an educational system. Its function is to take the youth who has left school for whatever reason can be given, remove him from the environment of the shop and factory for an allotted period, and bring him into the atmosphere of the school again in order better to adjust him to the demands of his job. In our country, unfortunately, this phase of the continuation plan of education has not as yet been very fully developed. Up to this time only three states—Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and Pennsylvania—have past laws which at least outline a program which seems adequate. They have made the continuation school compulsory, but the action has been so recent that there is little that can be cited in the terms of concrete results. The following, however, coming from W. Stanwood Field, director of the evening and continuation schools of Boston, is of interest, because of the fact that it represents the pupils' attitude to the continuation school as gleaned from answers to questions by over one thousand pupils:

Over 90 per cent replied that the continuation schools helped them in English, and over 85 per cent that the school helped them in arithmetic; replies showed that nearly 80 per cent were spending their leisure in a way that could be approved. Over 30 per cent replied that the school had helped them on their present jobs and a like number had received promotions on their present jobs. Over 80 per cent had been with the same employer since entering the school; over 95 per cent liked the continuation school better than the regular day school, and nearly 55 per cent preferred the continuation school to the evening school. Of those employed on a weekly wage, over 90 per cent reported no deductions because of continuation-school attendance. More than two-thirds declared that they had a more definite idea of what they would like to be in the future than they had before entering school.

In Massachusetts the law requires every child between fourteen and sixteen years of age, not attending school, to attend continuation school four hours during working time. For three years Wisconsin had had a similar law in operation, and thirty cities of the state have continuation schools. It is declared that little difficulty was experienced in getting every working

child under sixteen years of age into such schools. The new law now requires attendance to the seventeenth year. Milwaukee furnishes an interesting example of the continuation work in that state. It is a city of over 400,000 inhabitants. According to Robert L. Cooley, the director of its continuation schools, "in one year, 5000 young people who had left school under sixteen years of age, averaging about the sixth-grade education and entered into juvenile jobs, were brought back to school." The school session is held during the day for four hours each week for thirty-two weeks in the year as the minimum. The attendance averaged about 91 per cent of the total number enrolled. All pupils attend the same school, which is centrally located and is fitted up with suitable shops, laboratories, draftingrooms, and classrooms. The pupils must take the required work per week in one attendance. Mr. Cooley stated last year, "under this arrangement, within just a few months, 715 employers have sent 3349 employes to our school. Of these employers, 483 employ but one boy or girl." Instruction is offered in at least nineteen occupations, and the object, from the vocational guidance standpoint, is "to make the boys familiar with the use of tools and to aid them in selecting a trade or other skilled work that will help them to earn substantial wages when they become men."

Perhaps the state of Pennsylvania can lay claim to the most advanced legislation in this country on this subject. When it is remembered that until last January the state allowed a working permit to be issued to a fourteen-year-old child on the strength only of his being able to read and write intelligibly, the new law must be considered a vast improvement. Now children must have the equivalent of the sixth grade and must leave employment during working hours for attendance upon continuation school for not less than eight hours per week. With this in mind, the following short report of the continuation classes in connection with the public-school system of the city of Pittsburgh will throw a sidelight on the work of the continuation school in general:

Whole number of boys and girls enrolled, 1507, of whom 119 did not live in Pittsburgh. About 20 per cent of this number will be sixteen years of age on or before September 1, 1916. Ninety-two per cent attended the public schools, or parochial or private schools previous to employment; and 20 per cent were found to be attending night schools since entering employment. Three reasons were assigned for leaving school, namely, necessity, dislike, and desire to earn money. Thirty-three per cent have chosen vocations since enrolment; 6 per cent of this number are apparently unfit, either physically or mentally, for the employment in which they are now engaged.

1. At the center of the continuation school must be placed the actual trade or occupation of the boy or the girl.
2. The continuation-school building ought to be a separate one from the regular school building and should have the equipment of the workshop. In starting such a school the less costly equipment could be secured first and the remainder added gradually.
3. Such a school must be a means of character-training and not a mere trade or industrial school.

As it is true that the most progressive movements in our modern public education can be attributed to the leadership of wise philanthropy and private initiative, so the ideal continuation school has its forerunner, in this country, in the corporation school. Some forty years ago a New York printing firm undertook to train its employes in "established classes," and since that time corporations have conducted their own schools. There are over 100 different corporations giving from two to four hours instruction weekly to employes, bearing the entire expense and continuing the wages of the employes while in school. With the characteristic zeal for the highest efficiency which has ever distinguished our industrial organizations, five years ago a movement was started to get together on education, and the result is the National Association of Corporation Schools, which held its Fourth Annual Convention at the Carnegie Institute of Technology just a few weeks ago. The personnel of the convention included representatives of the greater number of large corporations of the country as well as many individual educators and prominent men who have interested themselves in this system of education.

The functions of the National Association are given as follows: (1) to develop the efficiency of the individual employe; (2) to increase efficiency in industry; and (3) to influence courses of established educational institutions more favorably toward industry. The Association itself acts only as a clearing-house for data that have been collected under its jurisdiction, and for the interchange of ideas. Each affiliated corporation trains its employes according to its own plans. As to the scope of the work, a hint may be had by the mere mention of the following committees: Trade-Apprenticeship Schools; Special Training Schools; Retail Salesmanship, Advertising, Selling and Distribution Schools; Office-Work Schools; Employment Plans; Public Education; Safety and Health; Vocational Guidance. Much valuable educational material may be found in the reports which have been issued by the Association.

A recent report contains a statement which is the latest word on corporation-school organization.

Corporation schools are most efficiently operated when they are conducted within the shop or manufacturing plant of the corporation and under its immediate control. Instruction should be given during regular working hours, with the apprentices or students under regular pay for the time spent in instruction. The average length of a trade course is four years, with an average amount of instruction of four hours per week, best given on non-consecutive days, and divided approximately equally between the subject of trade mathematics and the allied subjects of mechanics and shop drawing. The best practice prescribed both physical and mental entrance examinations for apprentices and a trial period in the trade averaging six months.

The report of the Committee on Public Education, presented at its last meeting, is an unusually interesting document and, altho the Committee hesitates to assert the finality of its findings, there is again in evidence

that grappling with an educational problem which gives the report the tone of certainty to one familiar with the "school-industrial" situation.

The report is accompanied by a chart showing fifty elementary subjects including their various subdivisions and, by means of a graphic representation, pointing out in terms of percentages the demands of industry on the various subjects of public education.

That business is not unwilling to cooperate with schools is a fact that is very evident to one who is interested in industrial education. But we should not expect our business men to do the work which falls to the school. An evidence of the type of cooperation of special interest in these days is that which arises from the necessity of training salesmen. Just recently a number of firms interested in this problem set aside a fund of \$75,000 and asked the Carnegie Institute of Technology to organize a research bureau with the specific purpose in view of ascertaining how best to choose and train salesmen. It is this spirit on the part of industry that has brought about much of the change in our present curriculum in almost every type of school. It is a thing, moreover, that ought to be cultivated, and if it were, many of our so-called school problems would no longer exist.

We do right in lauding and applauding the work of the corporation schools, but we need to beware lest this but serve to arouse the finger of scorn. The corporation school is showing the way to tackle the other side of the educational problem. Take away the direct backing of the corporation and leave the school with all its essential details as organized by the corporation, supply the backing of the public, as interpreted in the terms of education, and we have the school which best befits modern conditions. This would really be the continuation school, taking the youth who has left the elementary school and continuing his education for the work he has entered, surrounded by working conditions, in a sense, but under the direct supervision of the public-school system and in a school building. Any continuation school short of this is, from the standpoint of industry, a makeshift and at the best a temporary expedient. There are many details, of course, to be worked out, but the high-school system was not built in a day, nor have the efforts of two score years spent in reorganization completed it.

From the experience of other countries where the continuation school has been given an adequate and honest trial, it has been found that this school helps to solve the problems of both the lower and the higher schools, in addition to the service it renders to the large group of youth of the school-going age.

The function of the elementary school is to take the child from the environment of the home for a part of the day and place him in the new environment of the school with its corps of trained teachers and administrators for a broader training for future usefulness than the home can give.

The function of the high school is to take the finished product of the elementary school and continue the training for future usefulness, pointing to the college, university; or technical school as the next step in training, or leading directly to a commercial or industrial career.

The function of the continuation school is to take the product of the elementary school, both the finished and the unfinished, principally the latter, from the environment of the shop and factory, where he is still inexperienced, and for an allotted period each week bring him under the direct training of the school, with a view properly to adjust him to life, as well as to conditions under which he must earn a living.

The function of the corporation school is not unlike that of the continuation school, except that the youth is put under the shop-management of a specific corporation, with the idea primarily of training him for the highest efficiency within that organization. In this country the value of the corporation school, from the standpoint of public education, is that it leads the way for the establishment of continuation schools. It is here to stay, it is true, but its work is highly specialized. It will occupy something of the position in elementary and secondary education that the denominational college does in the higher circles of education.

DISCUSSION

TOPIC: IS THERE A NEED FOR MORE REALITY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

GEORGIA ALEXANDER, supervising principal of schools, Indianapolis, Ind.—Constructive criticism is rightly demanded of each speaker who takes your time. I should say first that our greatest source of loss is thru making improvement everybody's business and nobody's responsibility. What we need, in my opinion, is the establishment in every community of experimental or laboratory schools that should set themselves to the serious problem of raising standards rather than standardizing what has already been achieved by our hit-and-miss methods. One pertinent question regarding arithmetic would be, "Why do our pupils add so poorly?" Column addition involves two elements, both automatic: first, forty-five combinations; secondly, "carrying" according to the decimal system. All over the land these forty-five combinations are taught in the second grade. I am sure that every second-grade teacher will say that her class learned them all. I am just as sure that every eighth-grade teacher will testify that she never received a class that stood 100 per cent accuracy nor anything like it in column addition. Indeed, in my opinion, the signal service that Mr. Courtis has rendered is to show us the futility of the five years of drill intervening between the second grade and the eighth. We now know that the children of Indiana, poor as they are, are quite as adept in figures as are the children in Kansas, and we long ago learned that there was nothing the matter with Kansas. That is, relatively speaking, we are all right. But why do we find that less than one-tenth of our eighth-grade pupils make an average of 100 per cent accuracy in the problems they attempt?

With the fear of becoming didactic, I venture to make some concrete suggestions as to lines along which these suggested laboratory schools should work. To begin with, induction based on social experience should be made the basis of instruction. Number is

a rational process, not a sense fact. The child should live thru so many concrete experiences that the inevitable law of two and two is his by virtue of his own reason. This is the theory we preach in our normal schools. Why do we not practice it? Because it is so incomparably easier to hold up the figures and drill than it is to invent concrete situations that will stimulate the child's own activity. We are learning slowly that only thru play, the serious natural occupation of the child, can we engage his every faculty and make him creative and resourceful. Thru drill, drill, drill, we train our pupils into automatons. It is a superficial judgment of the public demand when we make of them mere adding-machines. The public very discriminately places the bookkeeper among the low-salaried people. What it really pays for are integrity, judgment, creative imagination, initiative. There is no surer single proof of worth than the money it will command. Mr. Curtis has found that above twelve hundred dollars there is practically no correlation between salary and ability in computation. I would say, then, that the great aim of the public school, so far as its mathematics is concerned, should be to turn out pupils who can invent adding-machines rather than be them. And in such invention we have the highest type of socialized mathematics.

A social individual has red blood, has life. In like manner, true mathematics has life and will enter into other life thru its own propulsion. So long as the pupil's arithmetic is an isolated thing, is a thing of the schoolroom only, it is artificial. The problem of the teachers is how to give the arithmetic of the schoolroom a life so impelling that our pupil voluntarily "gets his heart in learning figures and making sums for himself."

I wish to question the almost universal practise of teaching all the forty-five combinations in addition in the second grade. There is not time to do the work rationally. Why not introduce them more gradually and, as we go along, apply them to the upper decades? In this way the decades are reduced to a unit, in system.

In our efforts to shorten our courses, cube root with trapeziums seems rightly to have been eliminated. But I question the glee with which we announce that we no longer teach factoring, while our pupils fall down before the simplest problems in ratio. In other words, the pupil who does not have the ratio sense has not the life-sense in mathematics and, lacking that, cannot have the social sense. Then, again, the eighth-grade teachers will agree with me that one of our greatest weaknesses is in the teaching of common fractions. Haste in introduction and the consequent mechanical drill are the chief characteristics of our usual practice. For example, $2 \times \frac{1}{2}$ is not only $\frac{1}{2}$ but it is $\frac{1}{2}$. Why do we not take our fractions a little more slowly and a little more rationally? The introduction of decimals and percentage need not be delayed, for the work would go along in parallel fashion. We would accomplish as much by the end of the sixth grade as is now laid out in our courses of study. What is far more important, we should have a pupil who knew what he was about. Many of you doubtless know the Buckingham tests in arithmetic which were given in eight New York schools and in ten other cities. The results were published in the *Fifteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education. Two sixth-grade classes in Indianapolis which had worked along the rational lines just indicated exceeded over 60 per cent the grades made by the eighth-year pupils in the schools reported by Dr. Buckingham. What can be done by two classes, and doubtless has been done by many more, but without profit to the country at large, can be done by all classes. We need special laboratory schools where the results of such special methods can be demonstrated for the benefit of all.

The most sweeping attempt at enriching the course has been thru the introduction of manual training. As introduced, it is now voted a failure, and a shift forward has been made to vocational training. But the end is not come, because we have not yet learned how to spiritualize into life the material which the pupil handles. Under the dictation of the teacher, wood and nails remain dead matter. But suppose our pupil turns farmer. He buys a new automobile and must needs have a garage. With what interest will he fashion a play garage on the scale of a quarter-inch to a foot. Thirty-two quarter-inches

measure naturally into 8 inches for the width of the garage, and $\frac{1}{4}$ inches into $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches for the depth. What was the real lesson? A garage? No. It was the induction of the law governing the reduction of improper fractions to whole or mixt numbers. Further, the by-product is the valuable thing. The teaching of fractions must be transferred to the shop and to the kitchen. In a few prevocational schools it is widely heralded that an attempt is being made to correlate the work of the teacher in mathematics and the teacher in manual arts. There is no correlation. The mental development of the pupil is the one thing to be accomplished, and the making of biscuits and shirt boards but the means to the end.

And what opportunity we have for teaching mathematics thru the government! Under Commissioner Wood, policeman spells social service, not graft. What would you think of asking your class some day to make original problems on "the policeman"? When the postman, in his weary rounds, walks not so many miles in the morning, which is so many more miles than he walkt in the afternoon, but is translated into a great Uncle Sam who, with seven-league boots, out-Santas Santa, the United States government becomes the child's government and the seeds of citizenship are sprouted.

But, after all, the bankers are the men who hold us in their power, who make international war, and who dictate the time and terms of peace. Ultimately the schools will solve the problem of the dollar, which means democracy and equal opportunity, and the money trust shall be no more. In the meantime the schools are a great promissory note which, day by day, grows nearer to payment in full.

JOHN W. SLAUGHTER, recent lecturer on sociology, London, England; Philadelphia, Pa.—While most subjects of the curriculum had become definite in matter and fixt in method of presentation before the discovery of the child, geography has in recent years come happily into a fluid state. This makes it possible to give it a new and useful place in pedagogical procedure. It is not like one of the natural sciences, finding it necessary to proceed painfully from the known to the unknown, and formulating a corresponding method of teaching; its problem is rather to find its way thru a great and complex storehouse of materials. From that ancient combination of topography and study of political divisions which curst the childhood of most of us with names of capes and capitals, geography has become a sort of assembling plant of materials drawn from mathematics, physics, geology, topography, botany, meteorology, ethnology, economics, and history. This diversity of source has been a constant pitfall to the teacher. Too much interest in rocks and he becomes a geologist; too much interest in climate and he falls into meteorology; too much interest in industry and he becomes an economist. His foothold on the specifically geographical plane is precarious and slippery. Another danger arising from all this wealth is that interest may center in geography wholly as a university subject. It is not easy to see from Ratzel or Reclus back to the beginnings of the subject in early childhood. Yet, without doubt, this can be made, from its very nature, the most central and radiating subject of the whole curriculum.

As the problem of the geographer was one of selection and coordination, he found it necessary to follow some definite formula as a clue in the maze. The one adopted is that of the economic determinist which postulates the effects upon a people derived from their occupation which, in turn, is made necessary by their peculiar type of natural environment. In other words, reference to the human factor has been the selective agent. The earth's surface has been rediscovered in terms of human work. Those aspects that are unavailable for man's use, or to which he has been unable to adapt himself, are regarded as negligible. Significance has therefore intensified in proportion as the study has dealt with regions where man has accomplished most. The science has therefore become primarily a study of regions, and the most important section of geography is known as regional geography.

The formula stated in its simplest terms is place, work, people, implying, as already stated, that the environment of any group necessitates specific kinds of work, and that this work determines the cultural character which makes the group into a people. In order to make this great modern development available for school purposes, let us take a still greater simplification of the formula. It may be stated as environment, function, organism. This makes the principle involved in the geographical formula capable of a more elementary, and at the same time more individual, application. The development of individual experience is a coordination of functions carried on in adaptation to an environment which is in large part natural. A biological interpretation of education would give a novel and interesting grouping of subjects. There would be primarily the humanistic group which proceeds from the story of early childhood, to literature, religion, and history, as giving the most specific account of man as such. At the other pole are topics concerned with the environment, known at their fullest as the natural sciences. The connecting link, just as function joins organism and environment, and just as work joins people with place, is the practice and theory of human occupation. This biological arrangement provides a test and criticism of the whole curriculum.

There is not much hope for true progress until the school is regarded as a place in which children may live as well as learn. Even in the practical manual activities found in the school there is little conception of occupation. In most places manual training still consists of courses in carpentry, metal work, cardboard-modeling, and all the rest, as if a highly specialized division of work organized in terms of the material used could serve the purpose of educational occupation.

These considerations show the place that geography may hold in the school system. It is a study of that *ensemble* of natural conditions under which any one of the generic occupations is practised. It is a practical introduction to the study of environment; it is an intermediate term between real experience of natural conditions and the abstract subjects of natural science. Instead of building geography out of the results of the other sciences, let it stand to them as an introduction, in close touch with occupational reality. It provides mathematics its two primary sources, mensuration and proportion. To measure a space and reduce it to a scale drawing is difficult in arithmetic, but easy in geography. The humanly important facts of light, heat, wind, and rain give a first experimental introduction to physics. Hills, rocks, and soils open the way to geology, just as trees and domestic vegetation provide a starting-point for botany. The later study of population, industry, and communication gives a reality to political economy that it does not possess on its own account; and even history has greater meaning when studied against the background of its geographical determinants.

There is no lack of natural interest during childhood to which geographical facts can be related. With very young children the story interest provides a point of departure. The events recounted in any story must transpire in some environment. In this way distinctness can be given to elementary geographical ideas, as of town, country, hill, valley, trees, forests, flowers, rocks, caves, sea, shore, island, storm, sunshine, rain, animal, industry, savage. There quickly supervenes an interest in travel and exploration which provides the great opportunity for geography-teaching. Indeed most people are arrested at that stage of development. Not only the means of communication and travel but topography, climate, vegetation, and the salient facts of ethnography are learned. And this is done by picturing the natural conditions as coordinated to form a concrete region.

The acquisition of geographical technique should be accomplished gradually and thru use. Probably the best training in the reading of maps comes thru map-making. Even a clumsily made map of the schoolyard or district puts more reality into the process than the most extensive study of county or state maps. Similarly, the making and use of simple meteorological instruments and the keeping of weather records, if only for a short time, gives a basis for the understanding of weather reports and the general facts of climate. The ultimate object in the acquisition of technique is to work out and compare the climatic

and vegetation areas of the world and proceed from them to understand population and industrial areas and their interrelation thru communication and exchange.

Finally, as already suggested, geography is not without its use as a groundwork for the study of human culture. One is better able to understand the history of Egyptians, Jews, Saracens, Germanic and Mediterranean peoples by seeing them in their peculiar environment and carrying on their part in human industry.

H. B. WILSON, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.—The essence of our discussion today in its application to the various elementary-school subjects under consideration evidently depends upon the meaning or content of the word "real." What sort or type of subject-matter is real to elementary-school pupils? What kind of course-of-study material possesses reality for pupils in the elementary schools? Fundamental answers to these questions are indispensable to our discussion.

Shall we say that all subject-matter which can be objectively illustrated and demonstrated is real? I recall that in the lower grades of the elementary schools my teachers were at great pains to demonstrate objectively with an elaborate tellurian the movements of the earth in relation to the sun and moon and in the solar system. It was beautifully objective, but I am absolutely certain I had no worth-while appreciation of the significance of the demonstration. All of us have seen very learned teachers with access to a great museum give very extensively illustrated nature-study lessons, without leading the children ever to realize that the birds or other animal forms which were being illustrated in the class exercise were the same as those about the homes and gardens where they lived.

Shall we say that those topics and subjects which pupils can discuss fluently and technically are real to them? All of us have heard children recite technical definitions in geography and point to the pictures in the book illustrating the geographic forms under discussion, and yet we have seen these same children wholly incapable of recognizing the same forms when out on a geography excursion. We have also heard children discussing English grammar with great fluency in the technical language of the subject, reeling off technical definitions a yard in length, without feeling the least discomfort in the presence of their ungrammatical language as they talk, and without much capability of illustrating, outside of the examples printed in the textbook, the points under discussion.

Shall carefully prepared outlines and notebooks be taken as evidence that the subject-matter thus organized possesses reality for the pupils? Deliver us from such a conclusion. No thoughtful teacher questions the value of objective illustration in giving vital content to all sorts of subject-matter. Ability to employ the technical language of a subject is one of the real evidences a child should possess, showing his comfortable intimacy with what he has been studying. Notebooks and outlines which are mainly the result of the pupil's own efforts to organize and summarize a body of subject-matter which he has just completed should constitute some evidence that the topics thus treated are really understood by the pupil and possess a worth-while degree of personal significance for him. Neither of these tests alone, nor all of them combined, however, should constitute the criteria for determining what subject-matter is or may be made real to children, for by such selective standards long lists of meaningless words may still constitute the bulk of the spelling required of children.

The needs of successful, mature persons engaged in the ordinary work of the world should determine the total content of each subject in the elementary curriculum, while the order in which pupils master this content should be determined by the order in which they have needs, questions, or problems which can be satisfactorily answered by the course-of-study materials.

Even common-sense observation enables us to eliminate large quantities of material from the language course of study under the guidance of this selective standard. It is perfectly easy, for example, to distinguish between the abstract and concrete noun, between

descriptive, limiting, and limiting descriptive adjectives, between the adverbial ideas of time, place, manner, degree, condition; but the distinctions, when made, add nothing to the equipment of any man to talk or write with greater accuracy or clearness. This list of non-functional material with which the teaching of language and grammar is encumbered might be indefinitely extended.

Fortunately we are not compelled to rely upon the data gathered from ordinary observation nor upon the judgments of mere common-sense, because already one careful, scientific investigation into the functional material in the course of study in English composition and grammar has been made, and its results have been verified by three careful additional studies in Columbia, Mo.; Bonham, Tex., and Detroit, Mich. In November, 1914, W. W. Charters, of the University of Missouri, with the assistance of Edith Miller, of the Soldan High School, St. Louis, began an investigation in the schools of Kansas City to determine upon the basis of the errors in the children's oral speech and in their written papers the total errors which those children committed from the standpoint of accuracy in the use of language.

As a basis for the study of the oral errors made by children the teachers throuout the schools, during one week in November, were alert to note every inaccurate expression used by any pupil, that the same might be reported to those conducting the investigation. A tabulation of these mistakes revealed a total of twenty-one types of error.

Again, as a basis for the study of the written errors made by children, all the written work which was not revised and corrected, done by the children in twelve schools during one school month, was submitted to critical examination for errors. A tabulation of these returns revealed all the errors which had been found in the oral speech of the children and six additional ones. Some of these errors could not have been detected except in the written papers, while the others would be difficult to detect in the oral speech of the children.

Upon the basis of the errors discovered and carefully tabulated in the oral and written work of the children the investigators proceeded to a discussion of the items and topics which should be included in the course of study in order that each child, if he mastered everything prescribed by the course of study and used it, might be able, not only to rid his speech and writing of errors, but to understand the rationale of his procedure. The content prescribed upon this basis is very simple and limited in comparison with the large mass of material presented for teaching in the ordinary advanst text used in elementary schools in teaching English. Those technical terms and distinctions, the mastery of which affords interesting "gymnastics," but which cannot be shown to add to the pupil's ability to talk and write accurately, have been omitted.

That such omissions are necessary in order that the attention of the pupils may be focust upon functional matter is somewhat evidenst by the fact that when the oral errors made by the children in all the grades from two to seven, inclusive, were compared on a percentage basis with those made by the children in the sixth and seventh grades, in which grades technical grammar is taught, it was found that the percentages were just as high, or higher, in the case of each type of error, save one. These data, while quite differently derived, corroborate the conclusion of Hoyt in 1906 that the extended study of technical grammar does not enable one to use better English either in talking or in writing.

From our present knowledge it seems perfectly clear that in developing a content for English composition and grammar which shall possess reality for the pupils of the public schools the necessary procedure is merely to extend our investigations until every type of error in talking and writing made by pupils in school and persons in the successful discharge of their tasks in the practical work of the world has been discovered. It will be necessary to supplement present findings by further investigations and also to conduct investigations with reference to the errors in the speech and writing of persons outside of the schools. When the results of such studies are fully known, it will be perfectly easy to state the topics, principles, standards, and practices governing correct English speaking

and writing which must be taught in English composition and grammar. Dean Charters has already done an excellent piece of pioneer work in formulating such a statement on pp. 36-43 of the monograph reporting his Kansas City investigation. It should certainly serve as an excellent model for other efforts along similar lines.

How shall we proceed to establish such real work as is herein advocated in the schools? In the first place, courses of study must be drafted so that they shall specify only such subject-matter as is included by the selective standards of reality defined above; secondly, textbooks must be chosen, after they become available, which are organized to assist in the most economical and helpful ways the teaching of those essentials specified by the course of study, and which are not therefore encumbered and padded with obsolete, useless materials.

As a third essential, a new attitude with reference to the teaching of English in the elementary schools must direct and inspire the work of the teaching and supervisory staff. These officers must one and all see that English cannot be most satisfactorily taught by requiring the slavish mastery of textbooks. Rather, the practice of using textbooks in language merely as sources of information and help must become dominant. In such an attack the teacher's first large problem in helping her pupils to talk and write good English is in finding things they really need to talk and write about. These exist on every hand, of course. The important thing is for the teacher to take such a view of the social situation in the school as will enable her, together with the children, to discover actual needs for talking and writing, as real as those with which we find the children concerned outside the school in their simple play, and in social and business experiences. At home and in play the child asks for things he really wants. He applies for a job that he is anxious to secure. He states his reasons for asking a favor of his playmates or his parents. He writes to a business firm ordering something he needs. He exchanges notes or letters with his friends and replies to invitations he receives from them. The need which the child feels for talking and writing motivates fundamentally all of his efforts in that connection, and therefore makes them definitely real. A child soon realizes that unless his efforts at expression are reasonably accurate and in keeping with good standards, he is not so likely to make clear his meaning, and therefore not so likely to succeed in his efforts. The desire to talk and write effectively leads him to seek help in improving his expression. This renders very real and actual all the subject-matter which must be taught during the process of teaching him proper letter form or composition form, correct punctuation, accurate sentence structure, and proper grammatical usage. Whether this information is gained from a textbook on language or from other sources, the child possesses a reason which is actual to him for desiring to master it.

*WILL STANDARD TESTS ECONOMIZE TIME, LEAD TO A
BROADENING OF THE SUBJECT-MATTER, AND MAKE
FOR EFFICIENCY OF BOTH TEACHER AND PUPIL?*

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Measuring the achievement of individual pupils in classes or in schools in common subject-matter is a movement of recent growth in education. J. M. Rice, in the "nineties," blazed the way, but only since about 1908, when the Stone arithmetic-test was standardized for time and unit values, have the tests been in usable form to determine the weaknesses in the child's hierarchy of habits for the various subject-matter processes, and to check

up the subjective opinion of the teacher. Following fast on the Stone test came the Courtis arithmetic, Series A, the Thorndike writing scale, and the Hillegas English-composition scale, until now we have bureaus of educational research starting up all over the country, definitely committed to this scientific side of school work. At the Cincinnati meeting of the Department of Superintendence, February, 1915, a discussion of these tests sounded the chief note. Further developed and defined, they again became the main note of the Detroit meeting, together with educational surveys which are the real propaganda channels for spreading the knowledge of the testing among the educational laity, the teachers.

On the way back from Cincinnati, train talk such as this was heard: "They will never do"; "Already teachers are overworked"; "This testing means further hardship for them." I maintain this is not the case, for, given an efficient superintendent and a patient supervisory corps, the tests can be introduced so gradually, the teachers themselves being instructed and trained in the knowledge of graphic and statistical methods, that there need be no reaction against them. This has been done in the school system in which I now work—a school system of about 600 teachers and 28,000 children. All—superintendent, supervisors, and teachers, under the capable guidance of professors of education from the best teachers colleges in the country, have been working together for the last six years, studying and giving tests. In 1913 the Buckingham spelling-test, given to about 10,000 children in our larger schools, set the entire school system thinking about spelling. We have tried, since then, to find the answer to many such questions as the following: What is spelling ability? How do words behave? How much should one grade surpass another in spelling? What effects spelling ability? What tells one how to spell a word? We have found spelling a good subject for home study, and our methods in spelling have been changed more radically than we thought possible, our main effort now being directed to studying spelling with the children in order to determine how different words function with different individuals. Thorndike says no spelling-book has yet appeared based on the study of how frequently children misspell the words of which it is composed; and every spelling-book contains numerous words that many children know how to spell. Probably the teacher's greatest gain has been in reducing the time cost of the subject thru her improved methods.

From the Stone and Courtis tests in arithmetic, we have seen for ourselves the bad arithmetic habits school children have: counting by ones, inefficient adding, poor division due to bad subtraction habits, no correlation between ability in abstract work and in reasoning problems, etc. Thru the discussion of these vital matters at group meetings and in individual conferences, we have been led to evaluate speed and accuracy in their just proportion; to rationalize numbers and fractions in use in school and home life; and to pay more attention to approximation, to sign-solutions,

to oral arithmetic, and to original problem-making by the pupil. At a conference in June, with about forty of our grade teachers, at which we discuss the value of the standard test to economize time and make for greater efficiency of the work of both teacher and pupil, some of the points brought out by the teachers were: (1) There is less overteaching now; (2) seeing the distribution of ability in the class leads to individual treatment; for the upper, 25 per cent; for the lower, 25 per cent; for the middle, 50 per cent; (3) only one-quarter of the class presents a real problem in the slow children; (4) children vary in ability from day to day; (5) children are made to know the value of time; (6) the median as a rating is more scientific than the average; (7) the teacher ceases to blame the very slow child for keeping back the class; (8) the child works to excel himself; (9) tests alone do not make a textbook; (10) the brighter children, relieved from drill work, are given opportunities to do more difficult work and to make original situations and solve them.

Oftentimes the tests disclose ignorance of subject-matter on the part of the teacher, consequently on the part of the children who have been taught incorrect facts. For instance, Dr. Ballou's geography-test was given to about 500 of our sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade children last spring. The Boston median for the eighth grade was 27.9; our median for the sixth grade was 28; for the seventh, 25.5; for the eighth, 27.5. We found our pupils could not locate the city of Lynn in relation to Boston, the question being a good one for Boston children but a rather poor one for Maryland children. Our teachers had failed regarding the question, "Why do the states just east of the Rocky Mountains receive less rain than Massachusetts?" because many of them did not know that when wind blows against mountains it is cooled by expansion; they confused expansion and condensation, therefore the pupils' answers were marked down.

Thru the Thorndike and Curtis reading scales, we have begun to analyze what a home-study assignment really means; take a fourth-grade child, for example; to know that he can have the ability to read 160 words in one minute and reproduce 50 per cent of the meaning, means that in a history-assignment of, say 800 words, if he is up to the ability for his grade, it will take him five minutes to read the printed matter alone. Now, if, in addition, he is definitely required to make a map to show the scene for the historical setting, to make a list of the characters, to locate places named on the map, to discuss the vital point in the history lesson, to jot down the questions he should want to ask because he has been stimulated by the reading, we begin to see that twenty minutes will barely suffice to cover his home-study period for this lesson, even if he works up to the limit of his ability every minute of the time.

The criticism comes: Do not tests tend to make children alike? Not at all. Tests are only a means of diagnosis. They show individual differences and group-distribution, at the same time serving as a check to the teacher's

subjective opinion which, tho oftentimes correct, also is often faulty. Tests can also be used as a defense against groundless charges made by parents against teachers and even made by school officials against classroom methods.

In conclusion I would say: (1) Standard tests, if rightly introduced into a school system, place no burden upon the teacher, but serve to help her in making more intelligent diagnoses; (2) individual differences stand out; (3) homogeneous groups are formed and teaching difficulties are lessened thereby; (4) the hierarchy of habits involved in any one process is made apparent to the teacher; (5) time cost of overteaching is greatly reduced; (6) the child works to his utmost capacity; (7) with drill placed upon a rational basis the proper emphasis can be put upon the improvement of classroom method; (8) graphic methods are understood; (9) an improvement in the course of study will be the inevitable result; and (10) an improvement in textbooks is bound to follow.

*THE EDUCATIONAL VALUES WHICH THE CHILD CARRIES
OVER FROM THE KINDERGARTEN INTO THE
PRIMARY GRADES*

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Life-experiences gained in the freedom of the kindergarten are the great educational values the kindergarten child carries into the grades as an essential foundation for the interpretation of the more mature experiences of later education. As the need for more formal means of expression arises in the child's development this kindergarten experience fills these forms with their true meaning and significance. They may thus become living forms or symbols.

What are some of the experiences of the kindergarten child?

1. The home experiences, human relationships and service, family needs, comforts, pleasures, and joys.

2. The ways in which the workman, the tradesman, the artisan, and the artist help to meet the family needs and pleasures.

3. The simpler community needs and how they are met, such as the playground, parks, and mail service. The sharing of these benefits with other families and homes.

4. The nature conditions that are a background for, and form a necessary means of, furnishing forces and materials to meet human necessities and pleasures.

5. In the kindergarten itself the big opportunity is for social and moral development thru individual play and freely formed group play as well as thru the teacher-formed groups and directed play and work. Individual self-direction, social leading and following, and cooperation are develop

where children are given some freedom in what they do, how they do it, and with whom they do it. The social adjustments made under such conditions are many and varied and are real life-situations which should carry over into their home life and play. These habits, formed spontaneously, are invaluable, but they must be carried on thru the school life, if they are to survive. This is the problem that is the most pressing in both the kindergarten and primary; how to plan for self-direction and free group play that is at the same time genuinely developing and educative.

In the kindergarten the children have much time for their own selection of materials and for the free use made of them. In doing this they either stumble upon or consciously feel their own little problems. Consequently imagination, judgment, experiment, reasoning, and self-reliance are used continually in the effort to work them out.

Our chairman gave me permission to tell you some of the more definite plans for unifying the training of children in the kindergarten and the first grade which we have been using in our own school system in Louisville. In the beginning, however, I should like to say that the only fundamentally effective way to unify is to give the same training to all teachers of children from four to seven or eight years of age. The methods of unification of which I shall tell you are only a makeshift till we can get the right normal training for our teachers of young children. In our city we are simply trying to deal with a present condition as best we can. Our primary supervisor felt it necessary to take several kindergarten courses in further preparation for her own field. Because she knows the contribution of the kindergarten, she and her strongest teachers give, not only cooperation, but active leadership in the plans for utilizing the educational values which the kindergarten child brings to his later education. Our other special supervisors, such as those of music and of manual training, are active in the scheme also. We have many meetings of kindergarten and first-grade teachers, and the kindergarten and first-grade teachers in the same building frequently plan their work together, each suggesting to the other.

In the last few years we kindergarten teachers have tried to give the first-grade teachers something specific that they can actually use in the early work of the kindergarten child in the first grade. This has given them a basis of work for immediate use, but it also has done something much better. It has changed their attitude from that of general friendliness and interest to a positive and definite planning to use the contributions, abilities, interests, and knowledge of the kindergarten child. The following plan was used: Every kindergarten teacher in the system brought in a list of ten stories, songs, games, rhymes, poems, pieces of handwork, and other specific habits which she felt were good for her group of children. A committee then chose about fifteen of each from these lists. This selection was made from two standpoints: (1) those stories, etc., which were the most frequently found in the lists; (2) with the help of the primary

supervisor and first-grade teachers, from this smaller list ten were selected because of their utility in the first grade as a basis for more advanced work. For instance, all the ten stories finally selected are in our first-grade supplementary readers. Most of the poems and songs are in various books furnished to the first-grade teachers. These lists were sent out as a kindergarten first-grade bulletin to all these teachers, having been accepted as a minimum course which every kindergarten teacher gives her children at some time during their kindergarten training. In this way the first-grade teacher can count on the kindergarten child's familiarity and skill in these specific things, so she plans to use them as a basis for their first work in her room.

The bulletin goes on to give suggestions of simple plans for using this kindergarten course, particularly in the so-called "seat-work period." We selected this period for two reasons: (1) because it seemed the best opportunity for free handwork, and (2) because it seems the most difficult period for the first-grade teacher. We are now calling this "the period of independent expression," where both individuals and groups are self-directed in their work.

In order to make the work still more definite to the first-grade teacher and to give the kindergarten child a realization that what he knows and can do will be useful to him in the primary grades, we send in with the children two kinds of their own handwork. One kind is represented by a booklet containing four or more leaves, among other things the working-out of some simple problem such as the following: "Cut as many stockings to paste on this mantel as are needed for the children of your family on Christmas Eve." The problem is written on the other side of the leaf so the first-grade teacher can see how the children can do their own thinking. Each kindergarten keeps what we call a first-grade box for the best pieces of free handwork of any kind that the children do the last few months they are in kindergarten. With the teacher's help they select the best and most characteristic forms in free cutting, painting, modeling, construction, drawing, or any other forms that are so good that both children and teacher cannot fail to recognize them. For instance, some child paints a very good robin. The kindergarten teacher and children select it because it is unmistakably a robin. They mount it on the inside page of a folded leaflet of mounting paper. When the children enter the first grade, they take a boxful of such work with them. As the first-grade teacher sees fit, she prints the name on the outside of these folders and lets the children see the word in connection with the picture in her teaching period. Afterward this group can select their own little teacher, who then holds up the leaflet, asks someone to read the word, and opens it to let the group decide whether or not it was read correctly.

Another simple scheme is to allow the children to bring to the kindergarten good pictures of single forms, such as animals, boys, girls, birds,

trains, and toys. They cut them out and mount them on uniform cards, leaving ample space for the first-grade teacher to print the name below. She prints the name also on a small card. Several of these mounted pictures and cards are put into an envelope made by a fourth-grade class. Then a child can take the envelope and match the card word to the word printed on the mounted picture. This plan was worked out entirely by a first-grade teacher in a slightly different way.

Another plan for closer unification is one that we have been trying for six months. All of our elementary schools have only one session, closing at one-thirty. Consequently, we have only one session in our kindergartens. Our children begin work at eight-thirty and are dismissed at eleven-forty. The kindergarten teachers spend from one to two hours a week in visiting the homes. On the other days they have from twelve-thirty to one-thirty for preparation of materials. The period from twelve to twelve-thirty is given to teaching the slowest group of beginners in the first grade. This work is confined strictly to play situations where the play is directed through reading what to do.

In addition to the benefit to that distressing number of six-year-olds who are not ready for the usual first-grade work, this plan gives the kindergarten teacher an insight into the difficulties that beset the child just beyond the kindergarten period, and it necessitates many conferences with the regular teacher of these slow pupils.

I believe I can say that without exception our kindergarten teachers have greatly enjoyed this connecting step between kindergarten work, pure and simple, and first-grade teaching. In no case are they asked to do any drill work except that naturally involved in the plan they work out themselves for this slow group.

These simple, concrete means of basing the early, first-grade work directly on the previous training and experience of the child in the kindergarten would apply only in the situation out of which they were developed, as you can readily see. They are the outcome of an effort to meet an actual condition. They are useful and possible only because of the common ideals and principles held by all concerned, by kindergarten and primary teachers and their leaders. They are possible only because all feel that continuity of growth can be secured only when all who train our children set themselves steadily to the problem of fostering genuine growth through an environment and method of using it that calls out free selection of problems and materials and freedom in ways of solving them. We work for this in order that our children may grow in self-direction, self-control, leadership, and subordination of self to efficient leading, cooperation, and initiative, and in imagination, open-minded experimentation, critical judgment, and ability in and out of school.

*PRACTICAL MEANS OF UNIFYING THE WORK OF THE
KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY GRADES*

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The topic which is before us implies that a closer union of these two parts of school work is wanted. It seems to be assumed that such an organization is needed for greater efficiency; that organization itself insures greater efficiency. But one must ask at once, efficiency for what? It seems to be implied that there is a desire to carry over into the first grade greater results from the kindergarten work than have prevailed in the past. I am in full sympathy with the earnest effort for greater efficiency in these early stages of work. I cannot but feel, however, that there is danger of more harm than good in the organization which seems to be in the minds of those who plan for this discussion. Let me express my view very briefly in two statements:

1. The best relation between the kindergarten and the first grade is no organic relation at all. I mean by this to emphasize the idea that the kindergarten has its own function to fulfil, as also has the first grade, and each has its function without reference to the other. The first grade should, of course, take advantage of any work done in the kindergarten; also in any step of experience. Previous experience, if at all related to what one is endeavoring to do at present, is a real contribution. But the kindergarten should not be looked upon as in any way a prerequisite for the first grade. Moreover, the kindergarten should be regarded by those conducting it as very much more than a preparatory school. Closer organization would doubtless have the effect of leading teachers and directors of kindergartens to conduct their work more with a view to preparing the little children for a more successful undertaking of the work in the first grade. This would seem to be most injurious to the work of the kindergarten.

2. There is serious danger that organization works to the advantage of system, but at the sacrifice of the boy and the girl. Adults seem to take a great deal of delight in organization of schools and other enterprises; system seems to be an object of admiration and worship for the adult. And this is quite right for the adult. After having considerable experience, the adult takes delight in putting that experience together in a very systematic way. The case is quite otherwise with the boy and the girl. There is altogether too much originality and individuality in the real boy and girl to be favorable toward any such organization as seems to be proposed. Little boys and girls delight in playing, without reference to the possible relation of that play to a certain bit of number work or reading which may come later.

Let me, in the next place, state what seems to me to be the real practical purposes of the kindergarten and the first grade. Each has its own work

to do, altho the two may clearly be stated by the adult as one purpose. That purpose seems to me to be nothing else than to help boys and girls to do better in all those wholesome activities in which they normally engage. And we must expect children from the age of four to six to have quite different normal activities from children from six to eight years of age. If the education of the four- to six-year-old child is to be determined by what he needs when he is six or seven, I am very confident he will not live the fullest life that belongs to the child of four to six. I am more and more convinced of the idea that the best preparation for somewhat later years is efficiency in the immediate present.

Two reasons for the position which I am taking are these:

1. Preparatory work in the elementary stages of child life robs that life of its beautiful simplicity. Children live in the present; their motives are concerned with the present. Interests have to do with what concerns them in the immediate present. Parents and teachers are too liable to forecast the future for the child. For example, a fond father announced to me that his boy of two years had already decided to be a foreign missionary. Two years later he was obliged to admit that a change had taken place and the child was occasioning the parents a great deal of trouble—in his words, “acting like the devil.” It was clearly not the child who made the decision at the age of two, but the father. Teachers are doing the same for their pupils, planning work for the future, whereas the children themselves are interested only in the present.

2. Teachers who teach pupils for the purpose of preparation work more for the promotion than for the development of children. The lower-grade teacher is not in any sense on a lower stage than the upper-grade teacher but somehow both teachers and pupils too early emphasize the notion of promotion as synonymous with advancement. If the kindergarten teacher were to keep in mind the preparation of her children for the first grade, the work in the kindergarten would be robbed of much of that which now makes that institution so valuable to the little people.

In conclusion, my practical advice is this: Let the kindergarten teacher feel that she is second to none, and let the first-grade teacher also feel that she is second to none. Each has her own work to do—that of helping her own pupils do better than they have ever done before. The first-grade teacher should, however, not be unmindful of what her pupils did as kindergarten pupils. Take all the advantage possible of their experience, but in no case request or insinuate that the kindergarten teacher is to work for the good of the first-grade pupil.

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Altho the practical means of unifying the work of kindergarten and primary grades must be undertaken by two sets of people—the elementary teachers and the kindergartners—yet there should be but one point of view from which this unification is to be regarded, that which gives a vista of education as continuous development. A kindergartner should be first of all an educator surveying the whole field of education. She should see ends as well as beginnings and also the steps in the process of growth. Only after taking this broad view may she confine her attention to the first steps in the process. Any suggestions for unifying the work of kindergarten and primary grades should consider the function of the whole school and then its relation to children between four and eight years of age. Lastly, what seem ideal aims and methods for these years can be compared with the actual practice of the early grades.

If the school realizes that part of its duty is to develop ideals of morality, to encourage initiative, and to give knowledge which can be applied, then it must alter its methods. It must provide for the children the conditions which develop these traits in the race. Morality was learned in contact with actual situations, in performing manual labor, in working with one's fellows. Initiative and ability to apply knowledge were developed in the same situations.

To use tools, to move from one kind of work to another, to exercise outdoors, and to learn to supply one's daily needs are educating influences which develop skill, initiative, independence, and bodily strength—in short, character and knowledge. . . . The essential thing to be brought about thru the change in education is, not massing more information, but the formation of certain attitudes and interests—ways of looking at things and dealing with them. . . . What is wanted is that pupils shall form the habit of connecting the limited information they acquire with the activities of life, and gain ability to connect a limited sphere of human activity with scientific principles upon which its successful conduct depends.

According to the above quotations taken from Dr. Dewey's writings, school methods must relate directly to instincts, impulses, interests, motives, purposes, habits, attitudes.

The school grades for the child between four and eight years of age must provide an environment with much first-hand experience, where the senses can be trained, and knowledge tested thru experiment. Results should be watched, but we must enlist a child's "participating disposition in getting the result desired, and thereby develop within him an intrinsic and persisting direction in the right way." Educational influence should be exerted along the lines of changing tendencies. Unless the right education is provided for reasoning, effort, and cooperation when rudimentary habits are forming, the child's tendencies may be so warped that it will be difficult to train him in the right direction later. Taking this view of the

function of the school in the first years, the following suggestions might be made for unifying the work of kindergarten and primary grades.

The purpose of a program or course of study is to suggest an outline of those topics or facts which can be given in such a way that the life of the child will be enriched and the different aspects of his world will take on a more organized relation. The fact content for both kindergarten and the first grade should be drawn almost entirely from living experiences, such as gardening, care of pets, and play with toys, such as dolls and kites. These experiences can be amplified by visits to the park and shore, to the blacksmith, banker, and fireman. Instead of talk or study "about" things, children should live among things that provoke study. More opportunity should be given in the kindergarten for vivid first-hand experiences. The adult selection of experiences which can only be presented to the children thru pictures and which are arranged in logical sequence do not have as educational a value and do not make as lasting an impression as those which require the child's activity in actual situations. In the grades also, there should be more of living in real situations. The error encountered here is of a different character from that in the kindergarten. Instead of organizing the child's thought by adding daily to some experience which interests him, attention is concentrated on details, on the learning of reading and number symbols. More vivid first-hand experiences similar to those in the kindergarten should be given, but these should be considered in greater detail, and interpretations should be sought outside of daily experience.

The child loves to handle and to make things. While nothing which is of value in an adult's eyes may result, the child is learning in the only vital way the uses and possibilities of material. The child of four to eight years is also learning to reason and to hold a purpose in mind long enough to carry it over into a course of action. If the result is one strongly desired, he will train himself in concentration and in the putting-forth of effort. At this period of a child's life, manual training is one of the most important means of mental and moral training. The kindergarten can improve its practice along several lines. It can work more consciously for the development of initiative, of judgment, and the sustaining of effort. Kindergartners are often afraid of crudeness and of failure. They lead the children step by step in constructing an object and so make infinitesimal the educational value of a result. A child should be helped to develop along the line of the selection of the end for which he plans to work. If he enjoys the fruit of his activity, that is, if the result for him is either useful or beautiful, he will learn the value of sustaining effort until the longed-for end is reached. If children are to express their thought and to learn to reason thru handwork, then suggestions as to suitability of material and amounts required should be welcomed. In many kindergartens the children are hampered by the traditional way of supplying kindergarten materials, or by limits arbitrarily set by the kindergartner.

It is as uneducational to ask a child to build a house of eight cubes, when his idea of a house requires an extra cube for a chimney or an extra half-cube for a slanting roof, as it is to compel an older child to write a description of a house which shall contain eight words and no adjectives. In the primary grade the child is most terribly sinned against because so little time is devoted to handwork. Just at the age when, if rightly used, it energizes the whole personality, develops the reasoning power, and teaches the value of effort, handwork becomes incidental in the school program. It should take its place alongside of real experiences as one of the most necessary educational agencies. The objects made should be such as the child desires in his endeavor to live out further experience.

A usable vocabulary registers a certain number of ideas which have become formulated and is a working capital for further ideas. Language develops most vitally in contact with real things in real situations. It is in communicating with his playfellows that a child strives to convey thought as accurately as possible. In the kindergarten the best language-training periods are when the children gather freely around the newly discovered sprouting leaf or around Mary as she enthusiastically talks about baby's new tooth. In the grades there is little time for real conversation because reading seems so much more important. Contact experiences and practical, usable handwork will lead to many interesting moments of free give-and-take-in ideas. Good language training will result, as conversation will be relevant to the topic under consideration. The train of thought will be sustained by the contributions from many minds, and the subject will be presented in different aspects.

Thru the period from four to eight years the child is gaining control over the larger trunk muscles. This has a marked effect upon the growth and development of the vital organs. It also stimulates the growth and development of the fundamental nerve centers in the brain. Most kindergartens and primary classes neglect to give the child opportunities for big muscle activity, for running, sliding, climbing. A few pieces of playground apparatus should be convenient to every classroom. There should be more freedom to stand or to sit, as the nervous system requires. Movable chairs and tables should be in every primary room, so that space can be cleared for the games. "Physical exercises" will not take the place of this freer activity.

The new type of education must concern itself with developing ideas and ideals of cooperation. Many of these come thru shared experiences and thru handwork, but very important in this direction at this period are the games. The activity games lead the child to find his skill in relation to that of his companions; the dramatic games help him to take his particular part in order to carry out an idea which is larger than he could express alone. In the kindergarten the games should be much simpler, nearer the child's level of thought. There should be more spontaneous

dramatizations, crude perhaps from the adult standpoint, but expressions of the child's own imagination. Often the kindergartner supplies a game formula thru which the children move and which is really as non-educational as the dictated handwork. In the grades much more time should be devoted to the physical and social education which is given thru games. These games should be developed from the children and continually improved by them.

"What does the six-year-old child care for print? His fingers are itching for contact with things and his legs are set for chasing butterflies." Reading cannot be presented to the child in an educational way until he is capable of developing the right attitude toward the printed page, of scanning it eagerly for enjoyment, or to add to his knowledge. To gain control over reading symbols is an individual problem. If a child is "exposed" to opportunities for learning to read, he will learn the symbols in his play. The school must direct group attention toward reading only after the child's life has been enriched by many actual experiences and he seeks to enlarge experience from the printed page. In the first grade too much time and energy are devoted to the learning of word symbols. If the time were spent in giving children richer experiences, they would soon find their need for more information and would teach themselves to read. Also number work has been too much emphasized in both kindergarten and grades. The geometrical ideas found in the blocks and other materials of the kindergarten can safely be left for the child to learn at a later date. Children will also teach themselves the number symbols. A little experience in measuring for handwork, in making change with toy money, in keeping score in games, etc., will give more usable knowledge of number relations than the child can possibly get in the hours devoted to mathematics in the early grades.

The means suggested for the unification of the kindergarten and primary grades have indicated a necessity for adjustment on the part of both. This adjustment is solely for the purpose of conserving the best growth of the developing child. To organize education so that natural active tendencies shall be fully enlisted in doing something, while seeing to it that the doing requires observation, the acquisition of information, and the use of a constructive imagination, is what most needs to be done to improve social conditions.

III. THOMAS M. BALLIET, DEAN, SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The primary-school curriculum is too formal. Many of us have become convinced that formal arithmetic should be taken out of the first three years. At that age children have need of arithmetic only in so far as it comes up in their play. They will know just as much arithmetic at the end of the fifth year of school if it be begun in the fourth year as they will if it be begun in the first.

Moreover, the children, during the first three years of school, have absolutely no need of writing; hence penmanship should be taken out of the first three years. This necessarily takes out spelling also. Children have absolutely no use for the expression of thought in written form in these early years. The first four years of school, at least, should be devoted in language training to practice in oral speech. Fluency in writing turns upon fluency in thinking, and we think in oral language when we write. Fluency in thinking is acquired thru drill in oral language; therefore thoro drill in oral speech in the first four years of school is the very best basis for training in written language during the last four years. Experiments have been made which clearly indicate this.

I should retain reading in the first three years, for the reason that if people learn to read at a late age they are invariably condemned to be slow silent readers. To an educated person who has to read a great deal, speed in reading is an immense advantage. I have found that all persons who are rapid silent readers, of whom I have made inquiries, learned to read before they entered school. Some of them tell me that they do not remember the time when they could not read. There seems, therefore, to be a close connection between learning to read young and the ability to read rapidly. It has been found that rapid readers, in case of light reading, grasp the thought better than slow readers. There is therefore no advantage in reading slowly when the thought can be taken in rapidly. The difference between slow readers and fast readers, in the case of people of equal ability and education, has been found, in some cases, to be about 400 per cent.

But it is not the negative aspect of this problem which is the most vital. It is not so much what we take out of the curriculum as what we put into it that is important. For arithmetic, writing, and spelling, I would substitute a great deal of handwork. Children do their best thinking when they are planning something to do with their hands. Their attention is much more easily focust upon something which they are doing with their hands than upon something which they hear or read. Then, I would devote at least half an hour each half-day to the telling of stories and to the reading of the best childrens' literature to them, so that by the time they finisht the primary grades their minds would be saturated with the best of the rich literature for children in our language. We must, however, not look upon this merely as an exercise in language and question it all out of the children in detail. To have children tell the stories which they have been told is the the very best language work, but they must tell them of their own accord, and not in answer to specific, detailed questions. The story creates beautiful pictures in the child's imagination, and these pictures react upon the emotions. When they are questioned too closely on the details of the story, these beautiful images are torn to pieces in their minds, and thereafter no longer touch their emotions. Literature is art and must appeal to the emotions thru the imagination. Too much analysis destroys it as art both for adults and for children.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

DETROIT MEETING

OFFICERS

President—LIVINGSTON C. LORD, president, State Normal School..... Charleston, Ill.
Vice-President—GEORGE H. BLACK, president, State Normal School..... Lewiston, Idaho
Secretary—DIMON H. ROBERTS, superintendent of training department, State Normal
College.... Ypsilanti, Mich.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 22, 1916

A conference was held in the Ballroom of the Hotel Statler at 2:00 P.M.

The following program was given:

"Extension Work in Normal Schools"—Carl W. Salsler, director of extension, State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.

John A. H. Keith, president, State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis., led in the discussion.

"The Common Ground of City and State Normal Schools"—William B. Owen, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

DIMON H. ROBERTS, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

EXTENSION WORK IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

CARL W. SALSER, DIRECTOR OF EXTENSION, KANSAS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, EMPORIA, KANS.

Begun in Cambridge, England, in 1872, and introduced into America in the eighties in connection with library work, extension teaching has had a remarkable development. Its most marked advances, however, have been made in the last fifteen years. Extension work is no longer to be viewed as of doubtful standing in the educational world. It has come to stay. Whatever examination is made of it, then, must be made with open mind, in full recognition of the valuable work now being done, and the still more valuable adaptations that promise much for the future of extension.

The universities have long since recognized the value of extension work, and for the last two or three years the directors of university extension have maintained a national organization. Now, it is a significant thing that thousands of teachers have enrolled with the universities for extension courses, while many normal schools have looked on somewhat helplessly at a time when they should have been actively participating. If any

institution should be active in the training of teachers in service, surely the normal school should be. This is in no way finding fault with the universities for offering their help, but it is chiding the normal schools somewhat for being rather slow in offering their help as well. It is recognized, of course, that some normal schools have seized the opportunity, but the number is comparatively small.

Let it be understood at the outset that normal-school extension is not university-extension. Normal-school extension has to do with those who are teaching and those who expect to teach. It has to do with those young men and young women who promise much in ability and personality and who may be induced to elect teaching as their life-work—the kind so much needed in our schools today. It has to do with those who are serving as school officers and with those who are actively interested in the problems of the public schools. Surely this is a definite field. It is a field in which the normal school may do much for itself as well as for those whom it serves. The definite limitations of this field for normal-school extension make it easy for the normal schools to reach out and demonstrate conclusively that they are something more than mere certificate factories and sources of pure theory. For when all the possibilities in connection with extension work with teachers have been considered, it will be seen to be an excellent outlet for the most practical of service.

As indicated above, a number of normal schools are now doing extension work, but it seems that each one has pickt out one or two phases of extension and has carried them on without much attention to other parts of the field of extension. Some discussion of these various phases of extension may be of interest here.

Correspondence study, being the most fully establisht, perhaps, should claim first consideration. It is an effective form of extension. It is costly to carry on, but is worth the effort. Studying by mail accomplishes several things for the normal school which provides it effectively. It reaches out and interests prospective students. It provides a connecting link between the school and the student who must leave for a year and who is more likely to return because of its influence. It provides a means of saving time and money both for the school and for the student who must drop out suddenly in the midst of a semester's work. Correspondence study is not an easy means of grace or, at least, it should not be. It is the experience at the Kansas State Normal School that those who take courses by mail are strong students. It is understood that the completions in the commercial correspondence schools amount to about 5 per cent, the mortality to about 95 per cent. Twenty-five to 35 per cent is a good record of completions in correspondence-study departments of colleges and universities. The percentage of such completions in the Kansas State Normal School is about 60. The normal schools have the very best field in which to carry on work by mail. Teachers know more about studying; they have a

certificate or some other definite end in view, and they are more likely to see the thing thru when they make a beginning.

Courses offered by correspondence should be identical with those given in residence so far as this is possible. These courses should be worked out carefully in every detail so that the amount of work done by the student will equal, if not exceed, what he would do in the course in residence. Courses should be kept up to date, and for this reason it seems a little doubtful whether they should be duplicated in too permanent form. The instruction may be in the hands of regular members of the faculty or those employed especially for correspondence work, or it may be so arranged that the classroom work may be reduced for certain members of the faculty to permit them more time for correspondence instruction. The plan by which a teacher does both kinds of teaching seems sound for normal schools. The courses should not be too cheap to students. Instructors should be well paid for their work in this field; they ought not to be permitted to do it at a sacrifice. The work should be self-supporting or nearly so. If the work is offered too cheap, it will be likely to be slighted somewhat, or it is likely to be thought "cheap," which is about as detrimental for the standing of the institution offering it. The amount charged for the handling of this work should be based on the amount of credit given for the course.

Extension lectures offer a means of large service to the state. Probably most normal schools have more calls for such addresses than they can take care of. Local, county, and district meetings, and associations are always in need of both inspirational and technical talks in the pedagogical field, and it is clearly the business of normal-school faculties to help take care of such demand. This work, of course, needs to be centralized in the extension organization. It ought not, however, to be considered sufficient for a representative to go out, fill his speaking engagement, and return without an effort to look about him. His talk ought to be beneficial to his audience; but beyond that it has been fully demonstrated that a half-hour's personal conference with those whom he may arrange to meet afterward does more for them and for the institution he represents. On his return from each extension trip the faculty member should make to the extension office a full report, including number address, place of meeting, schools visited, newspapers visited, school officials visited, and particularly the names of strong, prospective students. Thus one of the features of a systematic, effective extension organization is the proper solicitation of high-class students. Normal schools ought not to be satisfied to take merely what comes, in the way of students.

In connection with extension lectures, local classes for credit may be organized in accessible towns. These classes are best conducted in person by a faculty representative, but in some cases may well be conducted by the local superintendent under the direction of some department head who furnishes the outline of the course and visits the class often enough to keep

fully in touch with the grade of work being done. Instructors both willing and qualified to do this work of extension teaching with local classes of teachers are not easy to find. They must be on the road almost constantly during the school year, classes being scheduled in neighboring towns so that one or two classes may be met each day by the instructor. It is not easy work; but the fact that it pays well ought to be fully brought out in detailed discussions of extension work. This work may, of course, be divided among regular faculty members. This serves as a superior plan to keep the faculty in close touch with practical problems out in the teaching field. Ten or twelve night classes under the auspices of the extension division are offered by regular instructors at Emporia. The students are mostly townspeople and pay a fee of from \$5 to \$7 for a two-hour course.

It has been pointed out that effective extension work ought to get hold of and bring into the institution the most promising students to be found. On the other hand, extension work may well concern itself with the placing of these students after they have completed their training. The appointment bureau is an important phase or department of the extension division in the Emporia plan. The work of placing teachers can be done more effectively, more persistently, and more satisfactorily in connection with the extension department than in any other way. It is not possible to go into this matter in detail. The strongest argument is the fact that it works. No one in an institution can build up as wide a personal acquaintance over the state as those actively a part of the extension work. Such acquaintance is absolutely necessary to any effective appointment organization. Here the work is handled in a disinterested, business-like manner. The student's major, his personal acquaintance, and school relationships have little to do with the positions to which he is recommended. Sympathy with his need of a position does not land him in a place where he will fail, and, of course, it ought never do so. Any policy that does not follow a student longer than to see him in his first position is ruinous. No normal school can afford it. Every normal school should carefully follow the work of its graduates year after year, and if the approval of such an institution is placed on the work of a teacher, it ought to be respected in every corner of the state and outside as far as the influence of the school extends. Most normal schools and other institutions recommending teachers could profitably tighten up considerably in this respect. A well-organized appointment board is essential, with a secretary able to secure and hold the confidence of superintendents and school boards, to enlist the cooperation of department heads in the matter of recommendations, and to judge impartially the qualities and abilities of prospective teachers and supervisors. Upon his tact and judgment rests the school's success in the placing of its product. No other phase of the normal-school's field work is more important than this one.

Many normal schools seem not yet to have realized that this is a day of publicity. No extension organization is complete without its publicity

department. The real news of the school is of interest to the state. It should be furnished, and newspapers are glad to get it. Real news about a school, never of the framed-up or sensational variety, should not be allowed to go to waste. The people of a state furnish money to their institutions in proportion to the service rendered; at least that is the theory. There is no other means than the newspapers by which all the people of the state may learn what their normal school is doing. Such a school ought to be doing something everyday and the people ought to know about it. Normal schools should advertise more. Newspapers and other publications would naturally be more interested in them and in their news if they were active advertisers. A reasonable financial outlay for advertising by any normal school is more than justified. The daily and weekly press of the state may easily be furnished with the news of the school which has been collected and edited by some one especially appointed to that work. Much of the collecting and writing of news of the school may well be done by students. The final release and distribution must, of course, be in the hands of someone in authority. Do what you will in normal schools, but do not forget to cooperate with the newspapers in every possible and legitimate way. They are the friends of every good move in education, and you cannot for one moment afford to neglect or evade or disregard them.

It is hardly necessary to point out that glee clubs, concert companies, lyceum courses, public-school weeks, and other special activities of this nature are not only means of service, but also give the school a very valuable kind of publicity, as well as personal touch with the various communities of the state. These activities, like the lectures, give opportunity for faculty and students to widen the acquaintance of the school. A normal school cannot possibly overdo the matter of sending its representatives out into the schools and communities of the state. There is nothing more valuable than personal touch in keeping a school up to the place it ought to occupy in its field. Any extension department worthy the name will see to it that many such opportunities are offered and taken advantage of. The Kansas State Normal School provided 150 lectures last year, reaching more than 10,000 persons and all parts of the state.

Believing that too much has been said and not enough done in connection with rural schools, the Emporia Extension Division has this year added a new department known as the Rural School Bureau. The bureau is in charge of a board of eight members, each of whom is intimately acquainted with some phase of the work in rural schools. Its chairman is the professor of rural-school administration. The board makes plans in the interest of rural schools, and the clerical force of the extension division sees that they are carried out. Special helps of various kinds are being furnished to rural schools, and thru cooperation with county superintendents and two hundred rural teachers several plans for bettering the programs and methods of teaching various subjects are being tried out.

The alumni organizations offer another activity that may very profitably be hitched up with the other extension work. Alumni interests are rather hard to organize effectively in normal schools because teachers change residence so frequently. It was the experience of the Kansas State Normal School that alumni work moved by fits and starts until it was organized on a business basis, and it then became a part of the extension work. Now it is looked after continuously, just like the other lines of work. The alumni association shares in the management of the appointment bureau, and the interest and support of the alumni is growing better continually. The bureau often receives two or three notifications of a vacancy because of active alumni. The loyal alumni can do much also toward sending in the most promising high-school graduates. Many do this of their own accord, but it is not a bad plan at all to have a special alumni organization or club whose chief aim is to reach out and bring in promising students. Any organization that amounts to anything at all must have a definite piece of work to do, and it must then have somebody whose business it is to see that the membership of the organization does the work laid out for it. Alumni organizations are no exception to this rule, and the only way to get real results is by persistent, unrelenting, systematic effort.

The last few years have seen a most remarkable interest develop in the definite measurement of results in education. Again, realizing the advantage of practical application, the Kansas State Normal School last year established the Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards. Tests with full directions for their use are now being furnished at cost by the bureau in reading, handwriting, arithmetic, drawing, English composition, and spelling for the elementary school; algebra, reading, and English composition for the high school. The bureau has devised the Kelly silent-reading-test and the Monroe algebra-test. Practically every city of the first and second class in the state has given one or more of these tests and has reported the scores to the bureau. These scores are compiled and charted by the bureau and the results reported to the superintendents. The bureau has just issued a 200-page report of the survey of the city of Leavenworth, which goes exhaustively into every phase of the city's school system. As a result, Leavenworth is enabled to plan wisely for the next few years in the development of its schools. You may hold what opinion you choose in regard to the value of scales and measurements in education, but the superintendents and teachers of Kansas are rapidly coming to the conclusion that such tests are of great value. No phase of our extension work has grown more rapidly during the last year. Orders are received for these tests from every part of the country; 119,000 copies of the Kelly reading-test, 2000 of the Ayres spelling-tests, 1500 of the Ayres and Freeman handwriting scales, and 48,000 of the Courtis tests in arithmetic have been furnished by the bureau. This is a phase of extension work which ought not to be neglected a moment longer by any normal school. This work is

clearly in the field of the normal school. Why neglect it and lose the stimulating reaction on classroom-work and practice teaching which it is certain to bring about?

A live, progressive library and music school are great assets in extension work. Thru the cooperation of the library and music school, the Emporia plan includes the loaning of books, pamphlets, lantern slides, victrolas, and records. Reference books are loaned to extension students. Packages are sent to high schools and individuals, and lantern slides on various subjects are loaned without charge except for the postage. Questions on library-management are answered, and the library functions actively and most effectively in the city and school libraries thruout the whole state.

Specially selected high-priced records and machines are sent to every part of the state in an effort to cultivate a taste for, and interest in, good music. Most of the high schools now have their own machines, and the records alone are now askt for in a majority of cases. One machine has been on the road for three years, has traveled thousands of miles into every section of the state, and is not yet entirely worn out.

It will be seen from this enumeration of the phases of the work that extension may be rather inclusive. A normal school may do many things in the name of extension that might be difficult in any other way. Extension is strategic.

In organization and administration extension work is not difficult. No act of the legislature is required. The way to begin extension work is to begin. The personnel of a faculty is likely to determine at the start the kinds or phases of extension in which a normal school will engage. The needs of the state or district served ought to determine largely what lines the work will follow. One school will need to emphasize correspondence study, another lectures, another extension classes, and so on.

The Emporia plan provides a fully centralized extension division consisting of several different departments, each department in charge of a board of five to eight members, the most competent on the faculty in that particular line. These boards determine policies and make plans which are carried out by the clerical force of the division. In this way 25 or 30 of the most able members of a faculty of 100 contribute to the thinking of the extension division. Whatever plans these boards mature may be considered safe for adoption. This plan provides that the things workt out by the extension force in connection with other field work will carry over and function in the classrooms of all departments. Such a reaction cannot avoid being wholesome.

All equipment and expenditure of money in every way are coordinated so that there is a minimum of waste, and material purchast or workt out in one department may often be made use of in another. Clerical help is shifted to the place of greatest need, and every plan is kept in motion until fully completed.

So far this plan has worked admirably at Emporia. Doubtless other schools have developed plans just as good. The key to success in this plan is a combination of centralization and cooperation.

A large appropriation is not necessary to make a start in extension work. If a working organization is provided and the cooperation of the faculty secured, any normal school ought to be able to start the work on a few hundred dollars the first year. In correspondence study, appointment, alumni, measurements, and faculty lectures and classes fees may be charged; in fact, the soundest policy seems to indicate that reasonable fees should be charged. The Kansas State Normal School spent about \$8000 last year in extension, half of which it collected in fees. The division is now in its third year. A normal school can no more afford to neglect extension work because of lack of money than a business house can afford to devote none of its income to advertising. Both are in the process of being slowly exterminated by their competitors.

It would seem to be a sound policy in extension that every plan be carefully examined, and its results, if carried out, compared with the cost. If the comparison is not unmistakably favorable, then the plan ought to be abandoned for one that stands this test. Fads and fancies have no place in real extension work. No plan should be undertaken until its cost can be figured thru to the end. If sufficient fees are charged to meet half or more of the expense, extension work is in less danger from attack and from the economical fits that seize on legislatures every now and then in even the best-regulated states. In this connection it should be borne in mind that it is easy to cut down a fee schedule, but not so easy to put it up. It should be placed high enough at the start.

Standards should be high in all forms of extension work. No student should be permitted to get a credit easier thru an extension course than thru a residence course. Any other policy is dishonest and short-sighted. Only a part—possibly one-half—of a college course should be done by extension. No student should be allowed to do more than twelve college hours in a year by this method. Extension classes should be conducted on the semester-hour basis and the same requirements made for credit that are made in the residence courses. There is no reason why college standards cannot be maintained in extension work as well as in the classroom. This is a good place for normal schools to apply more business principles and less theory and sentiment. Either high standards must be maintained or extension work had best not be done. Any other policy is demoralizing.

To sum up, extension work in normal schools is comparatively new, standards are rather difficult to maintain, it may bring in more students than the school can properly care for, it has a tendency to cheapen education unless carefully guarded, and it is difficult to justify tangibly every dollar's expenditure in this field. On the other hand, extension work operates to hitch a school up closely with those whom it serves. It widens the acquaintance

of the school. It carries training right out to the teacher in service and, in connection with the summer session, shortens the time required to complete the college course. It advertises the school most effectively. It enables the school to feel the educational pulse and to know what to do next. It enables a school to be alive and quickly responsive to every educational need and, every institutional opportunity. The advantages outweigh the disadvantages fully two to one.

This paper has touched a few spots in the broad field of extension. There are many things in connection with extension work which cannot be mentioned here. By its attitude toward extension work a normal school determines largely whether it is merely traditional in its policies or whether it is broad-gauged and aggressive. The Kansas State Normal School believes in extension for normal schools. It considers such work extremely practical. It believes that all normal schools should cooperate to the end that the right sort of extension work may be effectively planned and carried out in normal schools the country over. If any normal school or any other institution has something good in the way of extension plans or precautions, it is needed out in Kansas. That is the Kansas idea, and is, it is hoped, the sentiment of all those who are laboring to bring the normal schools to their highest possible point of achievement and usefulness in the American scheme of education.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

NEW YORK MEETING

OFFICERS

President—LIVINGSTON C. LORD, president, State Normal School Charleston, Ill.
Vice-President—GEORGE H. BLACK, president, State Normal School Lewiston, Idaho
Secretary—DEMON H. ROBERTS, superintendent of training department, State Normal
 College . . . Ypsilanti, Mich.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The department met in the Horace Mann Auditorium at 9:30 A.M., President Lord in the chair.

The following addresses were given:

"A Differentiated Course of Study for Normal Schools"—J. Asbury Pitman, principal, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.

"Normal School Curricula—A Critique"—Thomas M. Balliet, dean, School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York, N.Y.

A general discussion in which many took part followed the presentation of the two addresses.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 4, 1916

The president called the meeting to order in the Horace Mann Auditorium at 2:30 P.M.

The following program was given:

"Normal Schools and the New Movement in Education"—Thomas H. Briggs, associate professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

"The Teaching of History"—Henry Johnson, professor of history, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

A general discussion followed the two addresses.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—J. Asbury Pitman, principal, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.

Vice-President—Natalie Thornton, dean of women, State Normal School, Moorehead, Minn.

Secretary—John Sims, president, State Normal School, Stevens Point, Wis.

DIMON H. ROBERTS, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

A DIFFERENTIATED COURSE OF STUDY FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS

J. ASBURY PITMAN, PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, SALEM, MASS.

More than three-quarters of a century has past since provision was first made for the professional training of teachers at public expense. The common school was then the only school open to a very large proportion of the people of America. Since those early days great changes have taken place in our educational system. When the first normal school was established in Massachusetts, the conditions were essentially rural, and agriculture was the principal industry; today 62 per cent of her total population is most in cities, and 22 per cent is contained in towns having not less than five thousand inhabitants and largely engaged in the manufacture and distribution of a great variety of products. This condition is typical of large portions of the country. The simple program of the early rural school has necessarily given place to the complex, comprehensive curriculum of the city school, the influence of which is apparent in the course of study in every school in the land, quite regardless of size or environment.

The public high school has evolved from the common school and, in many states, is making a demand upon the normal schools for teachers of the academic subjects required for admission to the college and the technological school and of those other subjects offered in the various elective courses. Special departments of music and drawing; of manual training, agriculture, household and industrial arts; of business education; of vocational guidance; of general science; of physical education, have been established in both secondary and elementary schools. The teaching in some of these numerous departments may be done by specialists, or the instruction may be given under the direction of supervisors. Be that as it may, the regular teacher, whether in the secondary or the elementary school, requires a broader general education and a richer scholarship than formerly. For most students the normal school must provide this, in addition to a detailed study of the specific subjects they are to teach, special method, and general

courses in education. It must also supply the demand for supervisors and special teachers in a wide range of departments and subjects.

Changing conditions call for a new type of normal school, one which is slowly evolving from the original institution which was created solely to minister to the simple needs of the elementary school of two or three generations ago. The modern normal school must meet the requirements of an extremely complex public-school system, whose function is to train for intelligent citizenship, furnish some measure of vocational guidance, and at least lay the foundations of industrial education. Its courses of study, therefore, must be so organized as to include many special departments and to carry on its work with the highest possible degree of efficiency and economy.

It is an obvious and an accepted duty of society to require all future citizens to acquire, during the period of childhood, such a minimum of education as shall prepare them for an intelligent participation in those affairs of life which are of common concern, and which shall also enable them to become self-sustaining members of the society of which they are part. It includes the arts of expression—English, both oral and written, music, and drawing; the fundamental facts of arithmetic and their application to the experiences of everyday life; some knowledge of the material world as disclosed by the study of geography and general science, and some conception of their social relations as revealed thru the study of history and of civics. Experience seems to have demonstrated that this may be accomplished by the child of ordinary intelligence in the first six years of school life. This corresponds approximately to the age of compulsory school attendance as fixed by the laws of most states, and to the preadolescent period.

The function of the elementary school then is to lay the broad foundation of education by putting the individual into possession of the fundamental tools of knowledge. The next duty of society is to seek to adjust him to the position which he is best qualified to fill, and so to prepare him that he shall attain to a maximum of productive efficiency. This calls for differentiated programs of study for the next six years of the school course. A complete reorganization of the work of these later years is well in progress. The movement had its beginning, a quarter of a century ago, in the enrichment of the curriculum of the grammar school, a prominent motive being to hasten preparation for college; but its influence was felt by all classes of pupils without regard to their probable future careers. Departmental teaching was extended to the grammar school. This was the contribution of the Committee of Ten.

An impossible program for the later years of the grammar schools, in consequence of the multiplicity of subjects offered and the insistent demands for vocational guidance and prevocational courses, has brought the elective system into the intermediate grades, and they have been organized into the group now generally known as the junior high school. This new departure

in secondary education has swept over the country with a rapidity unequaled in the history of American education. The junior high school has evidently made its way as an integral part of the school system; and the discussion of the merits of the plan has changed to a consideration of ways and means of adoption and adaptation to local conditions.

This reorganization of education is of the utmost importance. Present needs can be met only by offering differentiated courses of instruction which, in matter and method as well as in position, are intermediate between the elementary school and the more highly specialized work of the high school.

Altho the chief objects of this movement are to appeal to individual interests, to discover native capacities, and to minister to vocational needs, this intermediate period should still be devoted largely to general education—physical, cultural, and social. But altho vocational guidance should be one of the dominant motives, neither the study of occupations nor practical experience in any form of industry should be allowed to take the place of education; they should be made means and not ends in themselves. If this is true, the art of teaching should be in greater demand in these schools than high academic attainment or superior vocational skill; for, after all, the greatest argument in favor of the intermediate school is the opportunity afforded for improvement in the quality of the instruction.

The particular form which the intermediate school will take in a given community must be largely determined by administrative necessity. Size of town, distribution of population, capacity and location of existing school buildings, need of new buildings to accommodate growth of school membership, financial resources—all are factors which enter into and complicate the problem. But, whatever the conditions, the principle of differentiated courses for pupils from twelve to fourteen years of age seems sure to have an almost universal application. It is evident that the history of the elective system in the college and the secondary school is to be repeated in the organization of the curriculum of the intermediate school; and even if some form of the six-and-six plan is not generally adopted, there are many indications of a revival and an extension of departmental teaching in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

At the present time there are at least three types of these schools, variously known as the junior high school, the intermediate school, and the departmental grammar school:

1. A separate school, usually including three grades, and with clearly differentiated courses conducted on a strictly departmental basis by a corps of special teachers.

2. Two or three grades, organized as a part of the high school, with some measure of differentiation and specialization, and taught by both grammar-school and high-school teachers.

3. Two or three grades, continued as a part of the grammar school, and instructed, on a departmental basis, by grammar-school teachers and some specialists.

Instead of a uniform curriculum for all children in the school, at least three different courses—each containing a common core of instruction—are usually offered. These are variously styled (1) the general, literary, or academic; (2) the business, commercial, or commercial arts; (3) the industrial or practical arts. The latter is differentiated into the manual-training or practical arts for boys and the home economics or household arts for girls.

The design of the first, or academic course, primarily, is to begin the preparation for college, altho it will doubtless continue to attract students who cannot enter college, but who have a desire for a general education and whose vocational aim has not been determined. The purpose of the second, or commercial, course is to prepare for the corresponding course in the high school proper; it is also intended to train pupils to go directly from the eighth or ninth grades into positions in stores and offices. And the third, or practical-arts, course helps boys to determine their vocational aim and to make an intelligent choice of a vocation, to prepare for vocational courses in the high school, and to be of service to those boys who must leave school at the end of the seventh or eighth grade and enter the industrial life. The household-arts course is founded upon the assumption that all women are destined, ultimately, to become home-makers. In its place and its methods it corresponds to the course in the practical arts.

Here, then, is a new field with its novel and peculiar needs suddenly opened to us; and the demand for properly prepared teachers is already large and insistent and steadily increasing. By what agency are these teachers for the junior high school to be trained? In most states normal schools have not extended the scope of their work beyond the original function of preparing teachers for the elementary school; an increasing number, all over the country, are maintaining special departments; a few in the states of the Middle West and Far West have developed into teachers colleges, and these are already training teachers for the secondary schools.

It is evident that there will be a keen rivalry between the colleges and the normal schools in an attempt to meet the demand for teachers for the junior high school. The opportunity seems to be ours, but we cannot afford to delay our preparations for meeting it. Theoretically, at least, the normal schools should prepare teachers of all subjects taught in any division of the public-school system; practically, conditions are such in most states that they cannot, either profitably or successfully, compete with the college in the preparation of teachers for the regular high school. In some cities the dominant motive for the establishment of the junior high school seems to be to give the pupils an opportunity to begin the study of foreign languages and higher mathematics one or two years earlier. It is a revival of the old idea

of an enriched curriculum for the grammar school. The above applies, of course, to preparatory and general courses only—chiefly the former. Under existing conditions, at present and probably for a good many years, in many of the states we shall continue to look to the colleges for departmental teachers of these subjects. Only in those normal schools where four-year courses are maintained will it be possible to enter into active competition with the colleges in the training of teachers for these departments; but in all other departments the preparation of teachers for the junior high school presents to the normal school a most promising field for future development.

The evolution of the normal school has resulted in the adoption of the general policy of specialization in the training of teachers to meet the various needs of a complex system of education as the surest and the most economical means of securing efficiency. In a state maintaining a single large normal school with adequate resources, the problem of differentiation is comparatively simple. The organization of a state system in which several schools are involved is more difficult.

As a result of the recent survey of the normal-school system of Wisconsin, a new policy has been adopted. Separate departments for the training of teachers of the primary, the grammar, and the high schools have been established. These are common to all the eight normal schools of the state. In addition to these there are not less than twelve different special departments distributed among the normal schools of the state, two or three usually being authorized in a single school.

In Massachusetts there is a normal art school devoted to the preparation of special teachers and supervisors of drawing and the fine arts and, incidentally, to specific training for "competent leaders in industrial art." This school is both a professional and a vocational institution. There are, besides, nine normal schools engaged primarily in the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. Four of these are also engaged in training teachers for the intermediate school. There are also, in certain schools, special departments for preparing teachers of the household arts, the practical arts, and the commercial arts; special teachers and supervisors of music; kindergartners; and rural-school teachers.

Teachers are now generally selected for particular grades and for particular departments. In response to these demands a new type of normal school is being evolved, and it is nowhere better illustrated than in these states. From the standpoint of organization these systems are probably among the best in the country, and they may fairly be considered as models deserving careful study.

The great diversity of conditions and practices in the normal schools indicates that there is serious need of standardization. This does not, however, mean that they shall be conducted upon the dead level of uniformity. We are recognizing the fact that there is no essential reason why there should be such wide differences in organization, in courses of study,

in methods of instruction, and in standards of preparation for admission, and of academic and professional training. Organization should no longer be a matter of chance; training should be differentiated according to the probable kind of service to be performed by the prospective teacher; vague and general purposes should be replaced by definite and specific aims. The normal school should continue to stand for general education, but it must not be forgotten that it is a vocational school, and there should be a sharp distinction drawn between the cultural and the professional courses.

In a typical state-normal-school system maintaining several comparatively small schools, like that of Wisconsin or Massachusetts, the following organization would probably be in the interest of both economy and professional efficiency: Let each school consider the training of teachers for the first six elementary grades its chief function; this would seem preferable to the Wisconsin plan, in which four grades are included in the group. For the present this would be accomplished in two years. A reasonable proportion of typical normal schools, based upon the extent of the demand, might maintain an advanced course of at least three years for the preparation of teachers for the junior high school. This work would naturally be more or less highly specialized. In addition to this, each school might maintain one, or possibly two or three, departments for the preparation of special teachers and supervisors. Some of these departments would offer courses four years in length; others would require less time.

The United States Commissioner of Education has endorsed this principle of organization and has advised the selection of one normal school in each state to prepare special teachers of the household arts for both the junior and the senior high schools. Such a course should not be less than three years in length, in order that it may include sufficient instruction in science and in other academic work and the requisite amount of professional preparation.

Similarly, another school should prepare teachers of manual training and of the practical arts. This course, also, should cover a period of at least three years. Much of the training should consist of practical experience in the industries under actual conditions of labor.

There should be another department for preparing teachers of the commercial subjects. For many years there has been a strong demand from the high schools for such training, and the junior high school has a similar need. This course should offer to high-school graduates two years of training which shall be largely vocational in character. This should be followed by a year of business experience under the general supervision of the school. The fourth year of the course should include advanced study, pedagogical training, and teaching experience under guidance.

Special teachers and supervisors of music and of drawing, kindergarten, and rural-school teachers might also be prepared in schools

especially designated to do this work; and, should the demand seem to warrant, others might be charged with the training of special teachers of general science. A department of physical education and related hygiene, which should have for its chief object the preparation of school nurses, might be established. This department would be conducted in cooperation with one or more hospitals.

In many states it would be of unquestionable value both to the normal-school and to the public-school system if the directors of such departments as the household arts, practical arts, commercial arts, and general science should be made special agents of the board of education for the purpose of influencing education in their respective fields.

The courses for the preparation of teachers of the junior high school would be differentiated by groups to meet the needs of departmental teachers. It is probable that both financial saving and efficiency might be secured by allowing certain schools to enjoy a monopoly of specializing in certain subjects or groups of subjects for which each might be best fitted by reason of environment, equipment, or professional ability. Thus the emphasis might be placed by different schools on English, social science, geography, mathematics, general science, etc. Obviously, teachers of all these subjects require a considerable amount of preparation in common. We may assume that, as a prerequisite for normal training, each has had the equivalent of a four years' course in a good high school. In addition to this academic training each should acquire, during the period of specific preparation in the normal school, a thorough mastery of the subject-matter to be taught, together with a careful study of special methods. All should have general courses in personal and school hygiene and in educational psychology, including principles and general methods. All should have some vocal training, including singing and the cultivation of the speaking voice. All should have some training in literature for appreciation entirely apart from the professional study of the literature of childhood; some training in history and social science beyond the requirements of the grades, and a reasonable knowledge of general science.

The six-three-and-three plan seems likely to find most general acceptance. The first six grades are being regarded as the elementary group, the next three as the junior high school, and the remaining three as the high school proper. Differentiation in the normal school should therefore be based upon this division. Students should be grouped in differentiated courses according to natural processes of selection. The work of the first year should be common to all. This would at the same time afford a necessary foundation for later work and a basis for judgment as to fitness for a particular field. Differentiation should begin in the second year. The organization should be flexible enough to admit of frequent readjustments during the course, and particularly as the necessity for changes is made apparent by experience in the training school.

Teachers for the junior high school should be more thoroly trained than those for the elementary school, and they require hardly less knowledge of the subject-matter of such branches as they are to teach or less general education than those employed in the high school proper. The course of study should be not less than three years in length. The curriculum should provide for a more thoro mastery of subject-matter. Electives, usually by groups of related subjects, should be offered. There should be a common core of studies running thruout the course. This should include courses in education, physical training, personal and school hygiene, music and drawing. English in some form should be a prescribed subject for each year of the course. Those students who show special aptitude in any subject should have the opportunity of equipping themselves for departmental work. This should probably be accomplit by offering elective courses in groups of subjects. This more advanst instruction would usually be given in the third year of the course.

English expression, literature, history, and social science might form one group. In English the work might consist in further training in oral and written composition, the selection and organization of material suitable for use in the intermediate school, and a careful study of typical courses of study for these grades.

The study of literature might have for its chief aim, on one hand, the development of the power of appreciation in the student; on the other, the purpose of discovering methods and means of developing similar power in the pupils. If history and social science should be included in the group, the study would be given largely for cultural purposes, altho community civics should form an important part of the course. In addition to the pedagogy of history for the intermediate school, a more intensive study of early American history and government with their European background should be made in the third year to give the students a better grasp of present-day social, economic, and political problems.

Geography, general science, physical education, and hygiene might constitute another group, which might also include arithmetic. In geography, in the second year of the course, there might be an advanst study of methods, and in the last year of the course an intensive study of some of the problems of political and economic geography.

The instruction in physical education might include, in addition to personal and school hygiene, a study of such folk dances and games as are suitable for the intermediate school; this should include organized play and its supervision. In the last part of the course emphasis should be placed upon problems affecting public health, such as milk and water-supply, housing, sewage disposal, and the treatment of infectious diseases.

The work in arithmetic should probably deal chiefly with the business and industrial applications to the experiences of life in the home, in the office, and in industry; for the teacher of this subject in the junior high

school must cooperate with the instructors in the commercial, practical-arts, and household-arts departments.

One of the results of differentiation should be the attraction of more men to the teaching profession. In schools large enough to make it practicable, it is quite possible that the grouping of electives open to them might be somewhat different from those for women. History and community civics, practical science, and arithmetic are subjects which usually make a strong appeal to men.

All students in this course should have advanced work in education. The study of the psychology of the adolescent period and of contemporaneous problems in education, particularly those affecting the intermediate school, should have a prominent place. Courses in administration should be provided for those students who expect to become superintendents, principals, and directors of special departments. Naturally these will be elected chiefly by men.

Suitable provision also should be made for practical experience in teaching in a carefully organized junior high school as a part of the training-school system and in other school systems with which the normal school is affiliated. This should include not less than twenty weeks of actual experience about equally divided between the last two years of the course.

NORMAL SCHOOL CURRICULA—A CRITIQUE

THOMAS M. BALLIET, DEAN, SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

Normal schools are training teachers for the elementary schools more efficiently than colleges and universities are training high-school teachers.

While some of our universities are doing important research work, none of them give the practical training they should give. None of them do effective work in method, and only a few of them furnish adequate facilities for observation and practice.

On the other hand, our best normal schools are giving very practical training, and their graduates do good teaching from the very beginning. But, efficient as they are, they seem to me to have several weak spots in their curricula, and it is these which I shall try to point out in a spirit of friendly criticism.

1. Normal schools, as a rule, lay too much emphasis on the history of education. I know some of them do not, but they are exceptional and are not always the best. The history of ancient and mediaeval education has no value for a teacher in the elementary schools. It never "functions" in the schoolroom. Even the history of modern education has, for the most part, no practical value for such teachers. A sketch of modern educational theories, as represented by the educational reformers from Comenius down,

has some value in that it gives the student the background of current educational thought. A short history of methods of teaching the elementary school branches would also have considerable value. But this is never given.

The history of education, moreover, is beyond the comprehension of immature students in normal schools. It is a very large subject and is inextricably interwoven with the history of philosophy, political and social history, and with the history of religion, of the church, and of dogma. Students in normal schools and, for the most part, undergraduates in college as well, do not have the necessary preparation in these allied fields to study the history of education with intelligence and profit.

The history of education is a part of the history of civilization, and is a subject for advanced students only. It should be relegated to the graduate school of the university. It is of practical value only to persons who have to formulate educational policies.

2. It seems to me that many of our strongest normal schools attempt too much in psychology and often lay emphasis on aspects of the subject which have no vital connection with problems of education. We have no good texts yet on educational psychology; most of them are written by psychologists who do not know the problems of the schoolroom. We need a text which will discuss, from a genetic point of view, the facts of child life; and then treat with fulness the psychic processes involved in the acquisition of the elementary school studies. In short, what is most needed is a psychological basis of methods of teaching.

As a preliminary to the study of specific problems of method, the student must, of course, be familiar with such fundamental topics as attention, apperception, memory, imagination, emotions, instincts, adolescence, etc. These topics should be freely illustrated by the facts in the student's own psychic life. Psychology in the normal school and in the college as well should be applied psychology; the technical training of the laboratory and the discussion of psychological theory should be left for the graduate school.

3. Normal schools make a mistake in repeating the academic work of the high school. Under the elective system pupils in high schools may skip certain studies, especially in the sciences, which are essential to elementary-school teachers. Such studies must, of course, be taught in the normal school; all others should be excluded from the curriculum. I assume that normal-school students are graduates of high schools.

4. Instead of repeating high-school work, normal schools should give their students a much more thorough grounding in geography, American history, and arithmetic. Normal-school graduates seldom know enough of these three elementary-school studies to teach them effectively.

There should be a course in geography, extending over at least one year, with a daily lesson. Such a course should not consist of a review of a textbook used in the elementary schools, but of a scholarly study of the subject

as a science, from a higher point of view. The class should be taken over a modern physical geography. The course should include the study of a brief treatise on meteorology; should include certain phases of astronomy which have a bearing on mathematical geography; and it should include the study of a brief modern treatise on commercial geography.

The course in American history should likewise not consist of a mere review. It should extend over a year, with a daily lesson, and include the study, say, of Fisk's two volumes, *The Revolution* and *Critical Period*, portions of several volumes of Parkman, and several volumes of Rhodes, together with supplementary reading on special points. It should include also the study of some good book, like Brigham's or Semple's, on the relation of geography to history.

In arithmetic, the emphasis should be placed on commercial arithmetic, of which elementary-school teachers know least. A daily lesson for half a year might ordinarily be sufficient. Teachers generally know how to make the calculations and can "solve" problems; but they are usually unacquainted with the nature of the business transaction to which the problems relate. I have frequently found that teachers who had been teaching, for example, "stocks and bonds" as a topic in arithmetic, had no knowledge at all of the difference between stocks and bonds as securities, and of their relative safety as investments. They would invest their own money, in childlike simplicity, in fake stocks in copper mines, rubber plantations, and the like, which promise them 20 per cent dividends.

5. Normal schools should provide a course in principles and methods. No normal school today meets this need at all adequately. Such a course should include sex morality and social hygiene.

As above stated, normal schools give admirable practical training in methods, far better than colleges and universities; they could strengthen their work, however, even here, by emphasizing, in addition, the more scientific study of method. Psychology and experimental pedagogy now make this possible. Huey's "Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading" is a sample of the type of books needed for this purpose. The available literature must still, unfortunately, be sought for the most part in scientific journals.

DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND PRACTICAL ARTS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

- President*—FRANK ALVAH PARSONS, president, New York City School of Fine and Applied Arts, New York, N.Y.
Vice-President—A. H. CHAMBERLAIN, secretary, California Council of Education
Vice-President—LEONARD W. WAHLSTROHM, head of Manual Training Department,San Francisco, Cal.
Parker School, Chicago, Ill.
Corresponding Secretary—FLORENCE E. ELLIS, art director, American Crayon Company.....Sandusky, Ohio

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. in the theater, Madison Square Garden and was held jointly with the American Home Economics Association, Benjamin R. Andrews, presiding.

The following program was given:

"The Home as a Social Institution"—Mrs. John M. Glenn, counsel, New York Charity Organization Society, New York, N.Y.

"The Home from the Standpoint of Health"—Maurice A. Bigelow, director, School of Practical Arts, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"Art in Home Environment"—Henry Turner Bailey, editor, *School Arts Magazine*, Boston, Mass.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M., Arthur H. Chamberlain presiding.

The following program was given:

"Art in Advertising Education"—William H. Ingersoll, marketing manager, Robert H. Ingersoll Co., New York, N.Y.

"The Influence of Architectural and Decorative Art"—Lloyd Warren, ex-president, Society of Beaux Art Architects, New York, N.Y.

"Education for an Age of Service"—Joseph H. Appel, vice-president, Board of Trustees, American University of Trade and Applied Science, Philadelphia, Pa.

"Vocational Education and Government Aid"—Alvin E. Dodd secretary, National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, New York, N.Y.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M., Clifford B. Connelley presiding.

The following program was given:

"Art Education and Industrial Results"—David Snedden, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.

"Art A Vitalizing Force in Education"—Annette J. Warner, Department of Home Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

"Practical Esthetics in Preparation for the Trades"—James P. Haney, director of art instruction, high schools, New York, N.Y.

A discussion of Mr. Snedden's paper was called for by the chair.—Florence E. Ellis led the discussion; Arthur D. Dean and Ellsworth Woodward followed.

The following nominating committee was appointed:

Arthur L. Williston, William C. Smith, Anna L. Cobb.

FOURTH SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M., William C. Smith presiding.

The following program was given:

"The Essentials in Vocational Education"—P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D.C.

"Art Education for House Furnishing"—William Sloane Coffin, director at W. & J. Sloane's, New York, N.Y.

"The Domain of Art Education"—Thomas M. Balliet, dean, School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York, N.Y.

"Art Teaching Versus Practical Life"—Arthur H. Chamberlain, secretary, California Council of Education, San Francisco, Cal.

The report of the nominating committee was read and unanimously adopted:

President—William J. Bogan, principal, Lane Technical School, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—Ellsworth Woodward, director, Art Department, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

Vice-President—Isabel Bevier, professor of household economics, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Secretary—Anna Hedges Talbot, State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.

At the same time, but in the Lecture Hall of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, another meeting was held, presided over by H. W. Kent, secretary, Metropolitan Museum of Art.

The following program was given:

Topic: The Relationship between Museums and Schools

"Its Value"—John H. Finley, commissioner of education of the state of New York.

"Its History"—Paul M. Rea, secretary, American Association of Museums.

"As It Exists in Museums of Art, and in Particular in the Metropolitan Museum of Art"—Robert W. de Forest, president, Metropolitan Museum of Art.

"As It Exists in the American Museum of Natural History"—Henry Fairfield Osborn, president, American Museum of Natural History, New York.

"As It Exists in the Children's Museums"—Anna B. Gallup, curator, Children's Museum, Brooklyn, N.Y.

FIFTH SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 10:00 A.M., Leila Mechlin presiding.

The following program was given:

"The Art Instinct Universal"—Florence E. Ellis, formerly supervisor of art, Cleveland, Ohio.

"The Essentials in Making Art Practical"—Ellsworth Woodward, director of School of Art, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

"Differentiation in Art Training to Suit Individual Pupil's Needs"—Royal B. Farnum, state specialist in art education, New York, N.Y.

FLORENCE E. ELLIS, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE HOME FROM THE STANDPOINT OF HEALTH

MAURICE A. BIGELOW, PROFESSOR OF BIOLOGY AND DIRECTOR OF THE SCHOOL OF PRACTICAL ARTS, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

It has long been the interesting custom to name epoch-marking ages or periods of human existence in honor of their dominating characteristics. Thus we designate such great periods as the Stone Age, the Bronze Age, the Elizabethan Age, the Dark Ages, and many other great periods that have made a profound impression on human life and history. For about fifty years the world has been entering the greatest of all the ages of human existence, the golden age of applied science. It is the most significant because in many times ten thousand ways it affects the well-being of humanity, and it is an age which is sure to remain permanently and extensively with human life.

Now, among the many important lines of progress in this golden age of applied science not one has surpassed hygiene, the science of human health. The great discoveries of physiology and bacteriology in the last two decades of the nineteenth century laid the foundation for a real science of healthful living, and within this twentieth century hygiene in every one of its many-sided aspects has progressed so rapidly in its discoveries, and especially in its firm grip on human interest, that it is no exaggeration to declare that we are now living in the age of hygiene. Truly, the ancient goddess Hygeia has now returned to earth, not as a mythical nor mystical divinity presiding over the health of men, but in the form of definite, organized, and practical science that is leading mankind toward healthier, happier, and more efficient lives. It is indeed fitting that in honor of the goddess Hygeia we should name the modern scientific realization of the old Greek grasping after some force or divinity in control of health. It is suggestive to note that Hygeia, the goddess of health, was the daughter of Aesculapius, the god of the healing art, for in this era of applied science the cure of incipient disease by medical treatment and the prevention of disease by hygienic practice are very intimately related.

Naturally, this age of hygiene is the most important of all ages, for our supreme interest in the world is in living; and hence, whether we are specialists in hygiene or not, we feel in close sympathy with the science that aims to increase the length, efficiency, and joy of the average human life.

Having indicated the general outlook of hygiene, I come now to the problem of applying the science of health in the home, for to a very large extent the final results of our modern hygiene will depend upon our success in the attempt to apply its principles in everyday home life. Physicians and sanitarians may make laws and rules and recommendations; but without

the hearty cooperation within the households of each community there can be at least only incomplete and unsatisfactory improvement in the health conditions.

Now, in looking at the domestic hygiene problem more intimately, we need to bear in mind the fact that all the prominent phases of hygiene—personal, sanitary, and social—concern homes directly. Personal hygiene in the home is fundamental and of primary importance, because upon maintaining the healthful physiological activity of each individual life depends, in large measure, the ability to resist transmissible germ diseases. Personal hygiene is simply the common-sense application of the physiological laws concerning the functions of the organs of the human body. For example, the physiology of nutrition teaches us certain truths regarding the amount and nature of foods needed for various periods and conditions of life; also it teaches how the complicated machinery of our nutritive organs deals with the foods. Personal hygiene of nutrition aims to lead the individual to apply in a rational way the established laws regarding both the dietetic and the digestive aspects of nutrition. Similarly, the physiology of the nervous system gives us a basis for the hygienic rules relating to work and to play and to rest. We might go on to consider the physiology of any system of organs in the human mechanism whose complexity fails to excite our wonder because familiarity has led us to take it as a matter-of-fact. The truth is that each group or system of organs is an intricate mechanism which deserves more expert care and attention than the mechanician gives to a watch or to any other man-made machine; but proper care or personal hygiene of the human machine requires an understanding of its actions or functions. We come, then, to the conclusion that those who are the leaders in home life—and, naturally, these are usually the parents—should be prepared to apply personal hygiene to themselves and to their children and to teach the children to care for themselves.

Preparation for such personal hygiene in the home requires, not only a knowledge of the rules of personal hygiene, but also of the essentials of the physiology on which the rules of personal health are based. Only to a very limited extent can mere rules be helpful as health guides in the home, for the reason that individuals, and especially children, are highly variable. The old saying that "what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander" does not apply in human personal hygiene. A particular food combination may be good for one person and decidedly harmful to another; a cold bath is beneficial to some individuals, while it paves the way to bronchitis and pneumonia in many others; and there are hundreds of such idiosyncrasies which are known in physiological science, and which must be taken into account by one who intelligently and scientifically applies rules of personal hygiene, especially to children. One only who has grasped the first principles of the underlying science of physiology can safely and surely direct himself and others regarding many rules of personal health. Especially

is this so, because the printed literature of personal hygiene is so full of personal fads and fancies. One author feeds himself on soft-boiled eggs and concludes that this prevents rheumatism or tuberculosis; another bites his food fifty-seven times and, having survived the experiment, recommends unlimited mastication as a panacea; another sleeps in an ice-cold atmosphere and recommends it as a sure cure for everything, from toothache to tuberculosis. These are scarcely exaggerations, for there are many such absurd suggestions masquerading in the guise of personal hygiene. Those only who are familiar with the healthy working of organs as taught in physiology are able to reject or to try cautiously hygienic advice which seems to be out of line with the principles of physiological science. There should be applied in homes only such personal hygiene as has been tested and approved by many authorities in physiology and medicine. The unscientific conclusions based on the personal experience of one or a few individuals is not advisable for home practice.

Sanitation is the second aspect of hygiene that applies to the home. By sanitation we understand the problem of conserving health by scientific control of such unhealthful conditions as are caused by microorganisms and by unfavorable physical environment, such as drainage, ventilation, lighting, heating, and external factors that influence health. At present it is the most practicable line of hygiene, for one or more individuals may dictate and enforce rules that will lead to the health of many people. For example, the hygienic regulations of boards of health, or of military medical officers, or of a family physician, or of a leader in a home, may control unhealthful environment and protect the health of all who come within the regulated conditions. In the very isolated farm house, sanitation is entirely a problem of the home; but in the vast majority of American homes, and still more under the village system of Europe, there is more or less communication and interdependence upon people from other homes; and hence public regulation of healthful environment becomes necessary and is being rapidly provided under our legal sanitary organization.

For our present purposes we may assume that public officials may do all that is at present practicable in protecting our homes by guarding us against impure water, tainted foods, and contagious diseases. Still there is a place for the sanitary side of hygiene in the home. In the first place, public sanitation can never be absolutely perfect. For example, the milk-supply of New York City comes from many thousand farms. It is obvious that no possible sanitary inspection and regulation can make this milk absolutely safe. The New York water-supply is the safest found in any great world-city, and rarely indeed is it accused of carrying the germs of intestinal disease; but it cannot be absolutely safe. Evidently the home must cooperate with the public sanitation system and pasteurize or sterilize its milk and water from the uncertain sources. These are

illustrations, but practically every phase of public sanitation needs intelligent and scientific home cooperation.

The third phase of hygiene that definitely concerns the home is social hygiene which, in this country, has come to include much that is better classified as sex education. Only in part are the problems of sex concerned with health and therefore a part of hygiene. Especially is this true in dealing with children in the home. A very limited amount of hygienic instruction of children of preadolescent years and in the early years of adolescence should be part of the best home training. Also parents should be on the alert and ready to give any needed hygienic guidance. On the whole, however, the problem of sex instruction for the home is more concerned with developing wholesome attitudes and ethical standards than with teaching children facts of sex that concern health.

The problem of applying any phase of hygiene in the home is simply one of teaching the present parents and the pupils who will be the parents of the next generation. The hygienic standards of the majority of homes are low simply because the established laws of health have not been properly emphasized in the education of the parents. A little physiology and a little hygiene have been taught in the public schools under legal restrictions which have prevented the satisfactory selection of subject-matter and methods of teaching. Until recently the colleges have done but little in this direction. Even now the majority of college students do not study physiology and hygiene while in college. The popular magazines have helped somewhat in spreading the gospel of hygiene, but, on the whole, they have confused their readers by sensational and faddist articles. The household-arts departments of various schools and colleges have woven some hygiene into their scheme of instruction with results that are useful but far from satisfactory.

On the whole, then, we are not educationally prepared to attack efficiently the problem of extending hygiene to the majority of homes that are greatly in need of the methods of healthful living. We are not prepared because the teachers are not prepared. Even household-arts teachers, who ought to be most interested, are, in the great majority of cases, weak in their knowledge of the principles of physiology and hygiene, except in the dietetic aspect of nutrition. They are weak because no school for the training of teachers of household arts is giving to applied physiology and hygiene even one-half of the attention it deserves.

The solution of the problem of introducing the needed hygiene into the home is to be found by improving hygienic teaching in our educational system, and this means specially trained teachers, beginning in colleges and normal schools. This does not refer to the education of girls only, as many people think. All real homes include both sexes, and both must cooperate if home hygiene is to be efficient. It follows, then, that improving the hygiene in girls' schools and colleges, or in household-arts courses,

is inadequate. It is not a subject for sex-differentiated education. Already we have too many schools in which the girls are getting fair instruction in the name of household arts that relates to health in homes, but the boys they will some day marry are not taught household arts, and hence are left fearfully ignorant of the great problems of healthful living. I protest against any such plan for sex-limited teaching of knowledge so important as that of physiology, bacteriology, hygiene, nutrition, and other applications of science concerned with household arts, and which we are tending to limit to the special education of girls. I assure you that we shall never get efficient application of either science or art in the home until the men as well as the women understand the fundamental principles. And we cannot teach the principles to men if we set them aside as reserved for household arts. The only possible way of getting both sexes to understand the great underlying principles of science and art as applicable to home life is by teaching the fundamentals to both sexes in courses of science, and then teaching girls the special application to the fundamentals of household arts.

In conclusion, I see good reasons for the belief that the importance of all phases of hygiene in the home is gaining recognition rapidly; and a popular interest in, and a demand for, hygienic knowledge will surely lead to the much-needed improvements in our educational dealing with the science of healthful living.

THE INFLUENCE OF ARCHITECTURAL AND DECORATIVE ART

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We apply the term "art" nowadays to those thousand and one things which are dependent for their proper execution more on the personal equation of the worker than on the known laws of science. The criterion by which we judge this execution, however, varies in each art and is dependent on a host of circumstances, as we approach it from different points of view.

In the arts dependent on esthetic qualities, the world has found it necessary to establish certain standards of criticism by which relative merits are decided. This has produced another art, that of criticism which, in turn, is divided into various schools which differ in rendering verdicts on the same subject; and we are constrained then helplessly to ask ourselves who shall decide when these doctors disagree.

We hear very much about taste of every kind—good, bad, pure, classic, vulgar, or what you will—not realizing that it may not be taste at all which enters into popular discriminations. Esthetic taste, probably is a sense, rather like our conscience, influenst by heredity, environment, education, and countless other things, and which exists in varying degrees in various individuals. We all surely know people who are entirely lacking in this

sense, who obtain no greater pleasurable reaction from one object than from another, tho these may affect others keenly in opposite ways. Now, where this sense is absent or where it exists only in a minor degree, other faculties or tendencies will be brought in to decide where taste should have decided; so we see people surrounding themselves with accessories of life which we call "in bad taste." Yet this is a misstatement, because it is not the sense of taste which prompted their choice or their fabrication, but considerations entirely foreign to it.

When we speak of esthetic taste, it does not mean simply the reaction, pleasurable or otherwise, which is received thru the eye, but it involves a number of other considerations. We know that when people say they exercise their own taste in a matter, they are often doing much more than that. Their taste is not always sufficiently strong to impose a choice, and they therefore invoke other faculties, which may be of the most varied kinds to assist them. Then, when we see an apartment filled with atrocious gilt furniture, we must know that the owner's sense of taste is lacking, that the unsightliness of his surroundings does not disturb him, but that he has been prompted to his choice by perhaps a desire for ostentation and display which tickles a mental and not an esthetic sensibility, or by a desire to imitate a setting which he has observed about others of his own kind.

It seems proper, however, for the purposes of this discusson that we admit only a certain sense to the word "taste"; that we consider it to mean a sort of esthetic conscience which tells us instinctively that things are fitting and beautiful or otherwise, just as our moral conscience tells us that actions are good or evil. Now, we must admit that this esthetic conscience exists in a greater or lesser degree among different individuals, and that it varies according to environment, heredity, and many other circumstances, and that, therefore, peoples existing under widely different influences will have in art as divergent sentiments as they have in morals. Hence, this esthetical conscience must be created where it does not exist, as the dumb are taught to speak; it must be aroused where it lies dormant; it must be developept where it is embryonic, for its possession is an added endowment to a race for the greater enjoyment and the fuller ownership of the universe of which man's understanding is so small.

In following out this trend of thought, it has seemed to me that the title of this paper may be misleading, inasmuch as architecture and the decorative arts are the results of influences rather than the active powers creating them. What could be more personal than the surroundings in which men live, the utensils of their daily life, and the houses in which they dwell? The arts which govern the design of these must then be directed by and reflect, even unconsciously, any taste which may exist in the individual; they must have their origin in esthetic desire, primarily, and only in a second stage of development can they stimulate it.

The sense of beauty has no doubt been born in man, engendered by the nature which has surrounded him in the earliest stages of his development. The lakes of Italy, the Isles of Greece, the borders of the Inland Sea, must have been the inspirers of the taste which later produced the Renaissance, the age of Pericles, and the art of Japan. It was long contact with this beautiful scenery, in periods of peace and ease, which planted the seeds of taste to grow, age by age, until an instinctive consciousness of beauty, an added sense to the five which man already possess, was formed perhaps by processes of natural selection, to be expressed later in the volition which produced the works of art.

In this country it has been different. The beauties of nature no doubt existed, tho to a rather less extent than in the world's centers of great artistic expression. The pioneer was not himself an artistic type, and so arduous were the labors which awaited him, so terrible the struggle for existence, that no chance was given to the growth of the art sense. Whatever expressions of the softer side of life came to the surface were directly imported from Europe and showed no sign of national growth. A few of the Colonial planters of the South brought their traditions from England and constructed for themselves mansions reminiscent of those which they had left behind, and English pattern books taught our early artisans the forms which fashion imposed on their kinsmen across the seas. In the sleepy farming communities of New England, never disturbed by the rush of immigration, nor overwrought by business cares, the subconscious desire for beauty produced quaint houses with columned porticos and elegantly spindled staircases, and today their wide streets bordered with weeping elms attest that leisure is the parent of beauty. But elsewhere, business, commerce, manufacture, and hurry were great weeds which choked the growth of the flower. In cities, long straight streets of cheerless brick or brownstone houses arose, and, wherever the railroad takes us, there we find squalor beyond anything outside of China. The consciousness of beauty seems indeed to be utterly absent from these dwellers in communities, and we often have a hopeless feeling that it is perhaps better to leave them so than to awaken in some of them a sense that will be shocked at every moment of their lives.

This, however, would be a mistaken conclusion to reach. Squalor is a thing speedily rectified when the intention is there to rectify it, and the frame shacks of hideous aspect are fortunately as ephemeral as the conditions which caused their erection. Day by day we see the disappearance of buildings in our large cities which we thought with a groan were there to stay, and as each splendid edifice takes its place, as every bowered bungalow or stately mansion arises in our country side, the awakening of the sense of beauty in each one of us becomes stronger. And here we see the influence of the arts of architecture and of decoration.

In our American life we are too much inclined to act vicariously. We push buttons and everything is done for us. We wish to live in a delightful interior, and we push an architect and a decorator. But it is not in this way that great works are produced in any art. A lawyer once told me that it was the great client who created the great lawyer. It is also true of artists. The employer must work with the employed, inspire him with something of himself, so that the finished work may have something that is personal and be not merely a hand-me-down, fitted for any man's needs and for no man's taste. The influence of architecture and of the decorative arts, then, is this: They awaken, as nothing else can, the dormant sense of taste which exists in an apparently tasteless population. They show it a field for the joy of living which it had never guest before. Think for a moment what it is to be gifted with a new sense! Do not our hearts go out with pity to those among us who lack one of our common senses; but this is a sense also! It is brought to us by means of one of the others, it is true; it is subtle and not easily understood, but to him who has it, it brings as much as sight, or taste, or touch.

Architecture and the decorative arts serve this purpose much more keenly than do the purer arts, for they are so closely connected with our intimate life, so much more easily understood, form so much more our atmosphere. Music, or painting, or sculpture, are fragmentary, occasional, in our lives; then, they are almost esoteric, they belong so much to the adepts, to the virtuosi. But your house, your easy chair, the inkstand that you use daily, the library which holds the books you like so well, or the study where dwell your lares and penates! These things are permeated with your thoughts, your atmosphere, and everything which is sacred to your own ideals. The influence of these things is very, very great: influence for a larger, happier life, for patriotism, for ambition to work and have a part in the beauty and grace of life, to help others so that they too may join in the ennobling of the commonplace, and the lesson that, in your own work, tho it be not art, the element of beauty may enter too.

Now, we are all here, I suppose, to consider how we may advance the interests of art education in this country. For the accomplishment of this thing there are two classes of people necessary—those who desire and appreciate the artistic quality in their environment and those who create it. The increase in the first class will naturally lead to an increase in the second following the law of supply and demand, provided that opportunities for technical artistic education be at hand.

In the educational system it seems more difficult and subtle to produce an appreciative class than to produce an executive one. The latter follows naturally, having a very definite stimulus in the demands put upon it. But appreciation is dependent on the existence of taste, on the awakening of a large mass of the people to the fact that they are missing something

which is worth while having—something vague, of which many have never heard before, and which they must be made to understand first thru their reasoning before they will be persuaded to lend their sensibilities. To do this is no easy problem to solve, and I think we shall all agree that it has not been done. If it is a fact that the origin of taste for the beautiful is to be found in the influence of nature in its more lovely forms over primitive man for many centuries, and if its growth in this way has been as slow as the birth of art within recent historical times would point it to be, then the problem of bringing it into being by artificial means, which is before us, would seem a difficult one indeed. How is nature ever to act upon these people who live in towns and never see it unless they are whisked about in a motor car; who are never steeped in it long enough to be imbued in its charm? To our average fellow-countryman, nature is a place of dust and of mosquitoes, of heat, of stony paths, and of poor food. Life is really too short to spend one's hours of leisure in trying to discover the beautiful under such disadvantages. Let us have a compromise and build on a suburban lot where a magnolia bush in spring and a privet hedge in summer, with some window boxes as an added luxury, will, with the aid of art, take the place of the beauties of nature. It is a desirable thing to graft a sense of beauty on the whole population of our country; and we must set about our work and not wait till the cows come home. In short, it is up to us, with as brief a delay possible, now that we know the need of good architecture and its accessories, to educate the people so that they shall produce them, substituting artificial stimuli for those in other ages supplied by nature.

The steps necessary seem to be these: First of all, we must show the people thru their reason, and not yet thru their senses, that fine architecture and decoration exist for others which they too might have, and they must be made to understand the advantage which this means so that they will wish for it. In other words, since the school authorities are handing over to us their pupils, our first task is to show them what the world has produced which is better than what we have, explaining to them the meaning and the message and the desirability of this wealth which others have, making them understand that they will not reach it until they develop their esthetic sense, any more than they can profit by the science of the world before they can learn to read the volumes in which it is stored. Show the child the goal first! and let him come down to the details later. Suppose the goal is the splendid building: inflame his mind with the porticos of the Acropolis, the towers of Notre Dame, and the sculptured and frescoed interiors of Italian palaces, and do not set before him those uncouth casts of noses and fingers and toes which, suggestive as they are to finished artists, are to the unawakened imaginations nothing but amputated monstrosities. Taste is a sense to enable us to enjoy things; therefore exercise it on things beautiful, lest it be hopelessly perverted. In the first place

(I am speaking now of the cultural education for the generality of students and not of the technical instruction for the artist or artisan), stimulate their imaginations by lectures—lectures not high-flown and sentimental about art with the capital “A,” lest they be deceived, but sensible and true; show them in lantern slide the monuments of the world and tell them their stories; explain to them the life which they house and ennoble. So much for his reason but, the next step—the cultivation of taste—is a far more difficult thing to teach, and there is only one way in which we cannot go wrong. It is in the study of nature, both in line, color, and form. After that must come the observation of masterpieces of art. But where can we find them? In photographs, perhaps, but rarely in those dead white casts made from second-rate copies and taken from worn-out molds, which, alone, our schools possess. And then the cromolithographic plates of preposterous German conventionalized ornament, and those detestable Arundel prints which perhaps still are carefully framed and hung in the school-rooms, presumably to persuade the unsuspecting that Ghirlandajo’s frescoes were entirely painted in tones of dirty red and overbrilliant blue! Let us shun these things. They are all very well in a reference library, but surely it is destructive to the taste to tell a child that the Sistine Chapel is the apogee of mural painting and that he must therefore admire a hideous colored print of it which he is shown.

To replace these false gods let us then go back to nature, always nature, in its details and in its *ensemble*; the study of the flower, of the leaf, and of the grass; of the landscape, of the lake, and of the beating surf.

Of course, this matter of arousing a national desire for beauty in our cities is a difficult one. It will not be settled by a few lantern-slide lectures, nor by a few classes in nature-study in our public schools. We have been at it long already, and indeed some progress has been made, but much more than this is needed. I feel that, very largely, you who are here are the guardians of it. You have the power to multiply lectures, to form societies for its propaganda among your students, to introduce it into the many social events which form the most interesting experiences of the school year to the students. The ideas and ideals inculcated in early youth will never altogether be obliterated thru years of work and strife, perhaps often times sordid, thru which many of them will pass. And when the hours of rest and leisure will come (if they ever do, in this our country) they will remember, and the seed will bear its fruit.

But it is the creation of taste in the nation which primes all other things in importance, as far as the production of the beautiful home, the dignified city, and the representative public edifice is concerned. The artist will always appear when there is need for, and appreciation of, his art. Every country gets its deserts, as well in art as in government; and I think that this one has its fully merited share of good architects. The schools for their training have only recently, and not all of them, arrived at a certain

degree of excellence, but those of France have ever been opened to architects and thronged with them. From thence they have brought back the ideas of art which France has ever given to the world: her pure logic of reasoning; her love for the fundamental principles of right in art, as well as in the state; her respect for the liberty of the individual, according to his conscience, and her ever-ready welcome to him who contributes something new to carry on the tide of civilization in which our art of architecture is such an important factor. These architects, returning home, have planted here the artistic standard of France which waved first from our beautiful eighteenth century City Hall, and now unmistakably presides over countless buildings of well-considered utility and studied grace in every part of the land.

EDUCATION FOR AN AGE OF SERVICE

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The youth of the United States, boys and girls of fourteen to eighteen years of age, leave school and go to work at the rate of one million every year. Forty per cent leave at fourteen years; 85 per cent at sixteen years.

At all times more than two million children of the ages of ten to fifteen are at work—one-fifth of all the children of this age in the United States, and one-tenth as many as those who attend our common schools.

With a population of a hundred millions, approximately only half are over ten years of age—fifty-one and one-half millions—and of these, forty-two millions are engaged in gainful occupations.

Of these forty-two millions, a third, or about fourteen millions, are engaged in the field—in farming, forestry, or mining. A larger approximate third, or more than fifteen millions, are engaged in workshop or in store. The remaining lesser third are engaged as follows: in transportation, 6.9 per cent; in public service, 1.2 per cent; in professions, 4.4 per cent; in domestic and personal service, 9.9 per cent; and in clerical occupations, 4.5 per cent.

Children attending school number twenty-one millions. Adults attending school, college or university, exclusive of schools of reform or for defectives, number less than a million—only 334,978 being enrolled in the 567 universities, colleges, and technological schools of the United States, of whom 217,683 are men and 117,295 are women.

It is a situation which presents these fundamental conditions:

One-eleventh of our children of school age are at work without technical training or adequate general education. Less than one-fortieth of our adults are receiving education in our higher schools, colleges, and universities.

To determine the kind of education which will best fit an age of Service, we must first determine what is meant by Service. True human service is the living and working together of all individuals for the good of all. It involves mutual cooperation between man and man. It requires the development of the individual to his utmost capacity together with the development of all society to the utmost degree of human welfare—material, mental, and spiritual. True human service demands that every product of nature and of man, physical, mental, and moral, be put to practical use—to the use of humanity; that all our wealth, all our strength, all our intellect, all our spirituality become merely a means to an end—that end being service. From this point of view we develop religion, not for religion's sake, but for service. We develop law and medicine, not for their sake, but for service. We develop education, not for education's sake, but for service. We develop business, not for business' sake, but for service; the almighty dollar is not the end, but the means.

True service recognizes that the first requisite to living is working; that efficient living comes only from efficient working. The first demand of this age of service, therefore, is that our boys and girls going into life be fitted for useful, efficient employment. This demand is for what is called "vocational training," and its need, considered from the point of view of the worker, of the educator, and of society, is shown in the report of the United States Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education made to Congress, June 1, 1914.

Recommendation of this Commission that the United States as a nation make grants of money for the establishment of vocational instruction in our common schools has not yet been acted upon by Congress. But some individual cities, on their own initiative and out of their own school funds, are making efforts to provide such instruction. The larger part of our common schools however, are still teaching only the purely academic branches.

But what of our colleges and universities—how are they meeting the new conditions of the age of service? To answer this question requires a brief view into the evolution of our higher seats of learning.

Growing out of the new fresh soil of our country, and at the same time out of the traditions of the older countries of Europe, it is quite natural that colleges and universities in the United States should be of a widely diverse character. It is only since about 1880 that an effort has seriously been made to distinguish between collegiate and university education.

In our older universities, especially Harvard, Yale, and William and Mary, three pioneers of Colonial times, the underlying principle was discipline—mental, moral, and religious. Today the disciplinary stage in education is relegated to the school and college and is the requisite introduction to the higher and freer work of the university.

Among the American universities, those of the East still hold closely to the original idea of training the individual as a citizen. Newer universities

of the West aim to be of benefit, not only to the individual and to society thru that individual as a good citizen, but as well to the community as a social unit and to all members of society whether or not they are enroled in the institution. The Wisconsin idea, for instance, growing out of the University of Wisconsin, is that an educational institution, with facilities for research, should be useful to, and used by, the community in which it is established. Thus, a farmer in Wisconsin, who finds some ailment among his cattle, among his crops, or in his own business-management, applies at the university for a diagnosis and procures a remedy.

With the evidence of what is going on in the field of education, it is fair to say that in our higher, as well as in our lower schools, the trend in the United States is toward practicalizing education, not alone for material ends, and not alone for the general welfare of the individual, but for the good of the people as a social unit, for the prosperity of the state and nation, and for the general welfare of humanity.

Summing up, it may be said that all opportunities now offered in the United States for school preparation for a business career are included in these four educational classes:

1. Vocational courses in common schools, which so far are few and far between.
2. Commercial or business colleges of the type exemplified by the Peirce School in Philadelphia.
3. Private endowed schools more or less technical in character, such as the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia, and including correspondence schools of which a great number have grown out of the demand of the public.
4. Business courses in colleges and universities.

And now, giving due credit and honor to these educational institutions which are pioneering in the field of business training, and to common schools for seeking to meet the practical needs of the day, the question may still be asked: Does the educational system in the United States, so far provided in the wisdom of our educators, meet the demand of this age of service in which the cry is: "Let me work and live to my full capacity in cooperation and in harmony with my fellow-men"?

Furthermore, is it possible for educational institutions, removed from the practices of life, to give competent instruction in those practices? Can business practically be taught outside of business? Can service practically be taught outside of service? Or will the education of the future, beyond the primary and secondary grades, be developed hand in hand with the workful life of the individual? Shall we have students in one field and workers in another, or shall we have the student worker? To help people to work and to live together for their common and individual good, is it not necessary to unite labor and education in everything we do?

To all these questions we will find answers in examining the aims and ideals of the American University of Trade and Applied Commerce. This

kind of university aims to fit people to work and to live with one another for mutual service. All human beings are born with certain rights, among them being: (1) The right to a living thru work; (2) the right to education thru personal effort.

The proper mixture of natural living, efficient work, and useful education will bring to the individual health, wealth, and happiness.

Labor, for the purpose of making one's living, is supposed to belong exclusively to the adult period of life. Education is supposed to be acquired during the period of youth.

Modern conditions of society, however, (1) force girls and boys into the necessity of earning their own livelihood, or of assisting in the maintenance of their homes, before the age of maturity, and even before their common school education is complete; (2) demand steadily increasing productivity, efficiency, and earning power in the worker, that there may be means for higher standards of living, shorter working hours, and the use of new leisure.

To meet the first of these conditions, existing for some time, the John Wanamaker Commercial Institute, a body of the store's younger employes organized for educational purposes, was established twenty-five years ago, and is now upon a thoroly organized basis, offering free instruction in common school branches together with elementary business, musical, social, physical, and military training.

Having thus succeeded in merging labor and education into happy living and citizenship for its younger business people, to meet the second condition the John Wanamaker Store established, as part of its obligation to society, the American University of Trade and Applied Commerce, offering to its adult employes the opportunity of continuing their education while earning their own livelihood, so that they may become better individuals, better members of society, and better citizens of the nation.

This advanced step recognizes these fundamental facts: (1) That education belongs not merely to youth, but should continue thruout life. (2) That purely educational institutions do not offer a business course commensurable with the needs of business—perhaps cannot offer such a course because of inability properly to apply in actual practice and life whatever theories and principles of business may be taught in the classroom.

True, universities are doing highly important work in research and investigation, with the aid of science and well-fitted-out laboratories, but is this scientific knowledge being practically applied in the lives and work of the people?

They have courses in agriculture, but how many students go back to the farm and actually apply, in the soil, the knowledge and training they have secured?

They have courses in chemistry, but when the European war cut off certain basic-manufactured products, how quickly and how well did the United States supply the deficiency?

They have courses in business, but how many graduates go into business able to take up the work along with the man trained in business alone?

Again, in matters of trade and commerce, so vital to society, can research work be done best in a university, apart from life, or in places of business, which is life itself?

Abstract science may be studied best in the seclusion of the classroom and laboratory, but where shall we study and formulate the proper application of science to business, if not in business itself?

And where can be taught best such important subjects as production and distribution, upon whose efficiency largely depends the actual cost of living of our people? Business theory may be taught in school, but business practice must be taught in workshop and in mart; only out of living practice is true theory discovered.

The Wanamaker Store is a huge world-wide laboratory of service. Here is merchandise from all parts of the world. Here is art, in the form of merchandise, and science in its manufacture. Here is trade. And here is life, the human element, in the people who sell and the people who buy, presenting problems of economics, of psychology, of ethics, even of civics. Every necessary condition is present for the study and the application of principles and methods of actual living. Here principles are discovered. Here methods are tested and formulated and given to the world. Here they are applied in the daily life of the store.

The higher work of the American University of Trade and Applied Commerce aims to supplement the primary and secondary education of the Institute with such useful and cultural education as will make the man or woman a better individual, a better member of society, a better citizen. It will provide education technical to the job; education for health, for vigor of body and mind; education for thrift and good personal financing; education for higher ethical and social standards of living; and education for culture and wise use of leisure. In four plain words we divide all stages of growth into doing, knowing, growing, living.

Right or wrong, the boy or girl in this age of service is tumbled helter-skelter into life and told to "do the thing that is to be done."

Later comes knowledge of How to do the thing and Why it is being done and in what Way to do it better. Then follows growing in our work. And all the time we are first to live with one another as members of society and citizens of the state.

No classical degrees are awarded. Advancement of the student worker is markt, not by book learning, but by living work, and is rewarded by increase in salary based on increasing earning power, which in turn is based on increasing service value to society.

Examinations are mainly the daily examination of one's usefulness in actual practical service.

No scholarships are provided. There is no need of them in a university where the students are also producing workers; while receiving an education, they are at the same time maintaining themselves or family by means of a fixed and growing wage.

There will be no qualifications for admission other than good health, good character, a willingness and capacity to work, and the requirements of the business.

Women as well as men are welcome; equal opportunity prevails.

From this résumé of the work now being done and planned to be done, it is evident that to understand this new university, educators must revise somewhat their views of the purpose of education and of established methods of imparting instruction. They must rid their minds of traditions and consider this new educational procedure from the point of view of service alone. If this be done, we are confident that the American University of Trade and Applied Commerce will be accorded its proper place in the field of work and education.

The name "University" is chosen not out of conceit nor from a misapprehension of its meaning. Primarily the word applied to any community or corporation regarded under its collective aspect, and in its earliest stages a university was merely a scholastic guild formed probably in the analogy of the early trades guilds. So that a trade body organized for educational purposes has perhaps a prior right to use the name "university" for its educational work. And where is there to be found so large a collection of activities that touch the universe as a whole, as in a great center of work and life, such as is found in this store?

If Herbert Spencer is right in saying that "the great aim of education is to fit men and women to live completely—to teach in what way to treat the body, in what way to treat the mind, in what way to manage our affairs, in what way to bring up a family, in what way to behave as citizens, in what way to utilize all sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all of our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others," then we are right in undertaking this work as part of business, for business embraces all of these activities.

Work is the real basis of health, of wealth, of happiness, of growth, of welfare of the world in general.

Education makes work more efficient, more productive, more ennobling, more satisfying, more spiritual—rendering more service to humanity.

Society establishes modes, manners, habits, and laws of life, based on work and education, and is itself the direct composite beneficiary of improved work and education of its individual members. Society as a whole advances only as the individual advances. The individual advances only as his work and education advance.

To Society will come a higher development of individuals and a closer cooperation, one with another, resulting in a higher average level. Waste—

in natural resources and in labor—will largely be eliminated. Involuntary unemployment will decrease and eventually cease. Idleness of any kind will be recognized as a tax on society—and perhaps be actually taxed. Poverty and crime, the children of idleness, will lessen. Fundamental principles of living and working together will be formulated into practices and made standard for the benefit of all. Production of wealth and its distribution will become more efficient, thus lowering the cost of living. Citizenship will improve. Character will improve. Life in general will become nobler, happier, godlier.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT AID

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There is a tremendous wastage of youth in the United States. With very few exceptions it may be said that American boys and girls leave school at fourteen years of age or earlier and go to work. At least 2,000,000 boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen are working for wages in this country. They are unskilled at that age and unfit for responsibility. Each year 1,000,000 young people are required simply to maintain the ranks of our working population. There are 25,000,000 persons, eighteen years of age and over, in this country engaged in farming, mining, manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, trade and transportation. Of the 14,250,000 engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits, not 1 per cent have had, or at the present time have, any chance to secure adequate industrial training. These figures are brought out by the report of a commission created in January, 1914, by Congress to consider the subject of national aid for vocational education.

The report, which is an exhaustive one, presents unusually interesting data and arguments in support of its recommendations, stating that "an overwhelming public sentiment shows the need for vocational education in this country. The testimony in this behalf comes from every class of citizenship—from the educator, the manufacturer, the trades-unionist, the business man, the social worker, and the philanthropist."

Summarizing its provisions, the bill extends to the states the help of the government in establishing vocational education and in training persons to teach. This is to be done by grants of money and by the establishment of a federal board for vocational education to work with and thru the states in starting this form of education. The purpose of the proposed law is not to enable the federal government to enter the educational field and establish schools, but to extend such aid as will stimulate the different states of the Union to develop the work themselves.

For agricultural teaching the money is to be allotted to the states in the proportion that the rural population of each state bears to the rural popula-

tion of the United States. In the same way the allotments for trade and industrial teaching will be in the proportion which the urban population of each state bears to the total urban population of the United States.

It is clear from the "conditions" laid down that the commission which prepared the bill had no intention of presenting a "pork barrel" measure. For each dollar received from the government the state must expend an equal amount for the same purpose besides meeting all costs of plant-equipment and maintenance. "The controlling purpose of all such education" must be to "fit for useful employment." It must be for less than college grade and designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age who have entered upon trade, industrial, farming, or home-making pursuits. The schools aided in part by the national government must be supported and controlled by the public. Before money for training teachers can be received, each state must show that such training will be given to persons only who have had adequate vocational experience in the line of work which they are preparing to teach. To administer these funds in the states, each legislature is required to designate or create a state board of not fewer than three members. The existing state board of education may be so designated. Thus each state will have its own board and study its local needs, being free to develop its own plans and always taking the initiative in the movement.

To administer the act for the entire country, the bill creates a permanent board for vocational education. This board is to act as a central investigating and publicity agent in the field of vocational education, as well as an administrative body.

The new board is to be a clearing-house for the various governmental departments and bureaus on making studies and publishing data. This work will include studies, investigations, and reports on agriculture and agricultural processes, and requirements upon agricultural workers; trades, industries and apprenticeships, trade and industrial requirements upon industrial workers, and classification of industrial processes and pursuits; commerce and commercial workers; home processes and problems, and requirements upon home workers; and problems of administration of vocational schools and courses in vocational subjects.

The creation of the commission which framed this bill came as the result of six years' effort to secure federal aid for vocational education. Under the leadership, first, of Representative Davis, of Minnesota, and later of Senators Dolliver, of Iowa, and Page, of Vermont, the struggle progressed. Senator Page has been particularly active in urging consideration of the subject and has, in fact, given more time, thought, and hard work to the measure than any other man in Congress.

Altho the Page bill past the Senate at the last Congress, it failed in the House. Meanwhile the Lever bill, which granted federal aid to extension work in agricultural education among farmers, past, and the committee

already referred to was created. The American Federation of Labor has already indicated a deep interest in the measure.

An ingenuous computation is presented by the commission to show the value in dollars and cents which vocational training could have been to the 25,000 persons over eighteen years of age now engaged in farming, trade, and industry. If we assume that a system of vocational education pursued thru years of the past, would have increased the wage-earning capacity of each of these to the extent of ten cents a day, this would have made an increase of wages for the group of \$2,500,000 a day, or \$75,000,000 a year, with all that this would mean to the wealth and life of the nation. This is a very moderate estimate; and the facts would probably show a difference between the earning power of the vocationally trained and the vocationally untrained of 25 cents a day. This would indicate a waste of wages, thru lack of training, amounting to \$6,250,000 everyday, or \$1,875,000 for the year.

In this whole country, according to the investigations made by the commission, are fewer trade schools than exist in the now unfortunate little German kingdom of Bavaria, with a population but little greater than that of New York City.

Until the outbreak of the European war more workers were being trained at public expense in the city of Munich, than in all the larger cities of the United States put together, altho these American cities have a total population of 12,000,000 souls. The increased demand for trained workers is an irresistible urge toward vocational training. The supply is relatively diminishing with the constantly increasing demand upon our industries for more and better goods. The European war and its disastrous results will be certain to emphasize this situation.

The opening of new foreign sources of supply, the depletion of our own stock of virgin raw material, and the deterioration of the quality of cheap labor coming to us from Europe tend to make action imperative to our welfare. In proportion as our resource factor fails, we must increase the efficiency of human labor in the shop as well as on the farm, says the commission.

Trained intelligence only can conserve our forests and our water powers; restore to our depleted land its old fertility; and make it possible for us to maintain our higher standard of living for workers, and yet successfully compete with workshops in lands where lower standards prevail.

More than ten million persons of both sexes over ten years of age are engaged in productive industry. Three and a half millions follow occupations, such as those of the baker, the fireman, the stationary engineer, and the laborer, where the very nature of the work is such as to make the use of art in production either of no consequence or impossible. Another group of about four millions are engaged in some skilled and unskilled occupations,

where usually as operatives they tend machines, turning out a product over whose form and finish the worker has absolutely no control.

You ask, therefore, what relation the passage of the Smith-Hughes bill has to this or these workers. It is simply this: they need to be trained in the appreciation of arts, as intelligent consumers of it, because they everyday do consume it; but no amount of art, however, from the producer's standpoint, is going especially to benefit these particular workers, because they are caught in the grip of the machine.

While modern industry has supplanted the old handicrafts and changed the demands on the worker, it has increased a thousand fold the productiveness of the country, put comforts and luxuries undreamed of within the reach of the purse of the common man, supplied the growing and diversified demands of a rising standard of living, and broadened, and deepened, and enriched the life of all. We cannot, and would not if we could, set back the hands of progress by a return to a more primitive industry. Our task is, while holding on to all the benefits of this industrial age, to give it better standards in production, so that it may make things that are more pleasing to the esthetic sense, as well as useful. In this way we will even make its products more useful, since in the last analysis, "beauty is the right adaptation of things to their use."

Training in the practical arts thru drawing, manual training, pre-vocational training, and household-arts training should uncover the latent interest and talent of the few who have real ability to do original and creative work in the designing and fashioning of material of one kind or another in industry. These have a precious asset which his country not only lacks but has taken particularly no steps to develop. The lack of any plan to train the tastes of our talented boys and girls is the thing which causes us to ship crude raw material, such as wheat and iron ore, to France in order to pay an annual bill of one hundred million dollars for the clothing models she sends us whose value lies in the initiative and the esthetic touch which the French designers and workers have given them.

Therefore the passage of the Smith-Hughes bill will have a far-reaching effect in the enhancement of art's teaching: (1) because all of our workers need to be trained as consumers and users; and any training which increases their earning power makes possible a wider range of consuming; (2) training in the practical arts will have as one of its important means the uncovering of latent talent in the arts as well as in the industries. Vocational training in the arts is bound to spread, as is vocational training in the industries, agriculture, and commerce. Any system of vocational education will be most effective when it rests upon a solid foundation of efficient teaching in the practical arts as elements of a liberal education. The greatest resource of any nation is the undeveloped skill and vocational possibilities of its population. We must work this as industriously as we have worked our water power, our mines, our fields, and our forests; but with less waste

and more intelligence. Vocational training is especially needed to prevent waste of human labor, which is the most destructive form of extravagance of which a nation can be guilty.

With exceptions, excellent indeed, but all too rare, we are letting the city boy and the mechanic's son go it alone. Hence it has come to be that years of a young mechanic's life are wasted in learning how to earn his living, after he has reached the time of life when it is his desire and duty to earn that living. Here is a weakness and a waste that may well alter the place of the United States in the commercial and industrial world.

This is a day when we are talking a great deal about preparedness. Modern military preparedness is not so much a matter of men as of materials. Guns and equipment are more vital. What has made Germany formidable is not so much the size of her armies as the fact that she had 13,000,000 rifles and 56,000 machine guns in her arsenals when the war began. Men to operate the machines and to instruct other men in their operation are essential. This Germany realized.

The Smith-Hughes bill proposes the true preparedness for both war and peace, as it proposes to extend to the boy and girl of less than college grade, opportunities for training in the vocations into which our young people are going at the rate of more than one million a year.

So here we have the United States coming forward with what, at least, is the most ambitious plan for educational advance likely to be carried out anywhere in the world during the immediate future. While Europe is killing off its trained workers, we are preparing to train ours.

ART A VITALIZING FORCE IN EDUCATION

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Art is still regarded by too many as something superfluous—the ornamental fringe of education, a sort of antefix to the temple of civilization that may or may not be added at the will of educators or citizens after the structure is complete. Yet the historian who has delved deepest into the records of the past has not found a time when Art was not. The anthropologist, going still farther back to the time when the shaggy mammoth roamed over the plains, finds the cave-dwellers of Western Europe recording their need of something beyond food, shelter, and clothing by scratching ornaments on the walls of their caves, carving their dagger hilts, and decorating their rude utensils. In the evolution of mankind, every step of the long struggle upward has been recorded in some form of art, and the only authentic history of civilization is that written in the language of art. No nation has ever risen higher than its art. The Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Moors, and all those other vanished peoples of the North and East, are

resurrected and measured only thru that which they impress unconsciously upon the structures in which they lived and worshipped and were buried, in the garments they wore, the things they made and used everyday.

No one who has visited Greece can ever forget the thrill he experiences in approaching Athens, unrivalled in its situation, crowned by the Acropolis, outlined against amethyst mountains, and facing the Aegean. In walking thru its streets one is surprised at almost every turn with the remains of buildings constructed with a wonderful perfection of artistic conception that has never been surpassed. The number of statues in the streets in the glorious old days is said to have equaled the population. Every four years occurred the great Pan-Athenaic procession, a pageant, which for its beauty has probably never been equaled. Athletic contests in which men displayed perfection of development in form, dancing contests which attained an equal standard in rhythmic movement, rhetorical contests exhibiting the possibilities of the language in vocal expression, were a constant source of enjoyment and inspiration. Poetry and the drama had an intimate relation to the life of the people. All the common things of daily life—dress, utensils, every item in the Greek citizen's environment—evidenced what art as the vital breath of a whole people might mean. The mediaeval city is hardly less instructive.

Our age and country will in time be subjected to the historical test. It is well to pause a moment to inquire how we will measure up with the builders of the Parthenon, the men who created the cathedrals, and those who in the time of the Renaissance re-created all Italy. The American city is characterized by the pall of smoke from its factory chimneys, by the huddling together of the hundreds of little dry-goods-box houses in its "soul destroying suburbs." The entrance to the city is often made thru acres of freight yards, rows and racks of tenement houses, where "the wash hangs out all day a-drying." Walk down a street and the unattractive sign-boards which leer at the passer-by by day and blink at him by night; the pretentious and disorderly flaunting of wares in shop windows; the dirty streets flanked by rows of garbage barrels; the monotonous form and discordant coloring of the dwelling houses—all conspire to furnish a measure of our taste as a people. Go inside the houses and they are not much better. Consider the carpets, the wall hangings, the furniture, the pictures, the dishes, the mantel ornaments, the "fancy work," and even the clothing of the occupants, and then ask whether something vital is not lacking in our own standards.

This state of affairs may be due in part, as has often been affirmed, to the traditions inherited from our Puritan forefathers, whose stern belief discounted all beautiful and pleasant things; partly to the rapid material development of the country; and to the necessity for working the water power, the mines, the fields, and the forests to their greatest possibilities in order to satisfy the needs of the rapidly increasing population. But we must also

recall the fact that in our day a race of monsters, more powerful than any which responded to the rubbing of Aladdin's lamp or appeared in the dreams of Prospero, has been called into being—a race as much a feature and expression of this era as were the mammoth and the ichthyosaurus of prehistoric ages. These monsters—the steam engine and the other all-conquering machinery—have substituted for the products of hands and brains things made at terrific speed for every conceivable purpose in this all-demanding age. Building material, furniture, the objects of daily use, tools, everything made in wool, or cotton, or silk, or metal, or glass, or clay, or stone, assume innumerable forms almost without the intervention of a thinking brain, the touch of a skilful hand, or the wooing of a loving spirit. This multiplicity of mechanical devices and processes makes it possible to produce things in such numbers and complexity that quantity has become the end rather than quality. The power that lays hold of, and is satisfied with, such beauty as that manifested in a single rose, is lost. Pleasure is found in abundance rather than in the finer attributes of proportion and line.

No previous civilization has been embarrassed and bewildered by so cumbersome a heritage. A walk down Fifth Avenue will reveal scraps of architectural legacies bequeathed by Greece, Rome, Europe, and the Far East. The new architectural style so eagerly expected of America has been retarded, because the architectural resources of previous periods furnish so many "ready made" styles which we may imitate without loss of time—a qualification greatly appealing to a people who "wants what it wants, and wants it quick." The bewildering background of the arts and crafts produced by all people and all ages, the infinite variety of materials into which these can be translated with fatal facility by machinery which gives a semblance of the form but without any of the spirit of art in which they were conceived, have placed originality and sincerity at a discount. Superabundance of ways and means and materials has had a deadening effect upon individual and public taste. Never did such complex conditions confront the groping human spirit. The struggle for existence, the mad rush for "places in the sun," ease and speed in transportation, sensational amusements, the unrest in politics, religion, and the social world, bewilder and confuse.

Lincoln Colcord writes in "Vision of War":

America, I think you have not shown yourself;
I think you are stronger than you know and weaker than you know;
A people supremely material, I think you are at heart a
people supremely spiritual;
I think the best of you lies latent waiting the word.

Never, I believe, was a country more responsive when that word is spoken. Tho it is the custom to say that the United States is the least artistic nation that ever grew to so great power and wealth, there is much

to evidence an awakening consciousness of the need for that spiritual element of life furnished by art. The growth of this country in that inward and spiritual grace manifested in the outward and visible sign of art is best marked by our world's fairs. The first, the Centennial in 1876, found it without so much as the smell upon its garments of any fires kindled by the torch of art. It was the first time that the crude products of our manufactories had been brought into direct comparison with those of other nations. The experience was humiliating. That it was salutary was proved in 1893—less than twenty years after, when, out of the mud of the flat prairie, the miracle of the White City rose by the shore of Lake Michigan. Every building down to the smallest, and those intended for the humblest utilities, contributed something to the perfection of the whole. The part art may play as the unifying medium of the ideal and practical in city-planning thus demonstrated was without doubt the incentive to the remarkable growth in civic improvement during the last twenty years. Each world's fair since has brought a quickening impulse.

Beside the improvement in our cities manifested and promised by the civic centers, the park systems, the better housing laws, there comes from country places also a demand to know how its people may make an attractive environment in which to live their lives. One state, Minnesota, has answered by supplying plans made by its best architects for attractive and convenient farm homes, by stimulating production in the arts and crafts, and by conserving the skill brought to the state by immigration.

There are many other indications of a growing "love of the beautiful that brings to order the world of the gods." Art museums are being founded everywhere. There are art associations, art clubs, art departments of women's clubs, village-improvement associations in every wide-awake town. There are art commissions and art committees and "boards of beauty" in connection with all sorts of enterprises in city and state. Better still, there is a great and growing desire in the trades to know what to do and how to do it. Dressmakers, milliners, shopkeepers of various kinds, herald every opportunity offered to learn what is right in form and in line as applied in their business. A band of printers was organized to form the North End Union in Boston and procured instructors and lecturers to teach their workmen and other young men the art of printing. Yale University has conferred a degree upon D. B. Updike for his skill in producing beautiful printing. For many years large classes of salesmen in the New York stores have attended evening courses in the principles of art for the furtherance of their business. From the trade has come the demand which has led just now to the establishment of a course in Columbia University leading to a degree in the line of interior decoration.

The economic value of art for the industries of a nation is perhaps best demonstrated by the examples given by France and Germany. France has for 275 years led the world as a producer of articles combining esthetic

and utilitarian value. She has been able to defy the tariff walls of other nations thru her possession of the rarest and surest of all industrial assets, the esthetic taste which multiplies ten, twenty, or a hundred times the value of raw materials.

It is natural that the economic value of art should provide the most forceful appeal for art education in a country having so high a regard for material things, and one that is confronted by such economic conditions as the United States will be called upon to meet at the end of the wars. We are "coming alive" to this necessity for art, and the plea for art education for the sake of our industries goes up in every assembly of educators. Such phrases as the "dollars-and-cents value of art," the "cash value of an art education," are popular. The trend of the day is in the direction of vocational schools, which shall train pupils in the business of making a living.

But besides education for the sake of our industries as necessitated both in production and consumption, and education in the business of making a living, we need education in the art of living a life. "A dollar when held too near the eye will shut out the sun." Too much money was to the Greek mind an excess that rankt with too much food or too much drink.

It would be as undesirable as it would be impossible to repeat the civilization of Greece, complete as it was in its day. Even for the sake of the extraordinary attainment in beauty and skill of work, we would not go back to the middle ages when intellectual activities were cramped and starved, and education really did not touch the upper classes nor the masses of the people. The Renaissance, with its ostentation, worldly display, over-sensuousness, and moral corruption, teaches the danger of looking backward for inspiration and of grafting upon a new age the civilization of a former. All human evolution is from within, and real progress, while not oblivious of the past, must find its stimulus in the present, looking toward the future for its full fruition. Such being the state of affairs, what is to be done about it?

When the word "art" is mentioned, the mind of the average person reverts to painting or statuary, just as everybody in Italy before Dante supposed that literature could only be written in Latin, tho Latin was unintelligible to the common people. Many art schools today teach only those phases of art which have to do with the so-called fine arts, sculpture, picture-making, and ornament. It is only recently that the art museums, the natural conservators of art, have given room to other more numerous and perhaps more universal forms of art. In the great days there was no distinction between fine and industrial art. The painter of the Sistine Madonna did not scorn to design a jewel box. The painter of the Mona Lisa invented the wheelbarrow. Nothing is common, nor mean, in art. Art may appear in a clay bowl fashioned by the untutored Indian as well

as in the form of the Parthenon, the crowning achievement of the highest civilization the world has seen. It is much more vitally embodied in peasant pottery where clay is loved into form, than in royal Worcester vases made to sell. Art, really great art, springs from the people.

National equipment in art cannot come to the United States thru art schools. There are 109 schools of academic art in the United States, with a total enrolment of 6252 students of whom about 1 per cent become professional artists. This is too little leaven to leaven the whole lump. Art cannot become a feature in the life of the nation thru the higher schools of learning. Less than 2 per cent of those who enter the high school go to college. So with any of the technical or secondary schools. They all reach such a pitifully small percentage of the people. The one agency that can reach the mass of the people is the public school. For this reason the solution of the problem is in the hands of the teachers of the public schools. Teachers have the power to bring every child within the influence of art in his environment, and to furnish an opportunity for him to habitually express it in his work. In this way only can art be made an integral element in the life of the nation.

Teachers should insist upon schoolrooms that are of such character that they help in the process of education. The part environment plays in development of character has not been measured, but we know that little can be expected in the way of manners and morals of people born and brought up in the slums of our cities, and in the neglected byways of the country. The schoolroom should furnish the example of that order which is Heaven's first law, and, according to Dr. Ross, the first and all-inclusive principle of art. "Art cannot be taught, it must be caught," is a favorite quotation among art teachers. Each teacher and each room should therefore be a center of power, like a grain of radium throwing off illuminating energy forevermore.

It is the deliberate intent of this paper not to enter into a discussion of courses, but rather to penetrate to the essential element behind all courses. Courses are constantly being published, and will continue to be published, because local conditions must forever be reflected in them. But whatever these courses may be, they are bound to be past thru the alembic of the teacher. Their effect upon the children will be only as rich and influential as the teacher's own personality can make them. The teacher's chief aim, therefore, should be to keep herself responsive and receptive to the finest things life has to offer. She should not allow herself to become indifferent to the significance of constantly recurring details which make up the routine of daily life. She should feel it incumbent upon herself to wear becoming clothing, to use excellent English, to be gracious in manner, to be finely human in her attitude to whatever occurs in the schoolroom, so that, tho the children may forget all her formal instruction, they shall never escape the influence of her convincing personality.

Teachers of the manual arts, teachers of domestic science, and of home economics have an exceptional opportunity. Securing esthetic expression by means of the commonplace objects which circulate in daily life is like achieving health thru vitalizing the blood. It means reaching the fountain at its source and charging it with a potency which makes it overflow into unforeseen channels of blessing day after day and thruout life. We are sometimes inclined to plead our limitations in equipment and time as an excuse for our inefficiency. But we forget that our real limitations are within, that, having the vision, every commonplace thing and occasion may become the vehicle for artistic expression—the seeming trivial projects of the elementary courses in manual training and domestic art not excepted. The laws of order, unity, harmony, and balance are universally applicable, from the making of a flower stick to the building of a sideboard, and from the making of a washcloth to the completion of a trousseau or the furnishing of a whole house. In the light of history, philosophy, and the stubborn facts of modern life, we cannot escape the conclusion that art will become a vitalizing force in education only when it becomes a vitalizing force in life. And that means, in the last analysis, that it will become a vitalizing force in the schoolroom only when it is that in the life of the teacher.

ART EDUCATION FOR HOUSE FURNISHING

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Education for any profession may be roughly divided into two parts—general instruction in fundamentals and special training in advanst studies and in the practical details of one's life-work. Special training was formerly considered essential only in such professions as the ministry, law, and medicine. Today vocational instruction is recognized to be a necessary element of practically every business. In fact, the present danger is often that the specialized work will be begun too early, to the detriment of the basic training in fundamentals. It is a crime to start school children specializing in their life-work; it is unfortunate to narrow the courses in high schools; and even in the universities it is undesirable to specialize exclusively on subjects which are to monopolize one's attention in after life.

This is especially true in education for house-furnishing, which must be begun upon a solid foundation of general knowledge. A certain amount of mathematics is necessary to quickly sense dimensions; languages, including the classic, are invaluable to the understanding of the literature that has so constantly inspired art; history must be deeply studied to understand the influences and personalities that have found expression in the art objects of the past; and psychology is an essential study in preparation for expressing character in the house-furnishing of today. Knowledge

of tools and the acquisition of a certain amount of manual dexterity should also be a required part of every pupil's education.

Besides these other basic studies, every child should be trained in the fundamental principles of art, such as balance, movement, emphasis, space-division, and the mixing and meaning of color. Every boy knows how a seesaw works. It is therefore simple to teach him the application of the same principle to the balance arrangement of a pattern or the proper placing of furniture in a room. Then go a step farther and show him that colors to balance in harmony must be similar in intensity and area. If dissimilar, the intensity must vary in inverse proportion to the area.

Movement is that principle of arrangement thru which the eye is led from one point to another. This destroys rest. A child can easily learn what makes a pattern or a room restful or restless. He should also be taught emphasis and how attention can be called to such things as are important in each composition, and to these in the order of their importance. And every child's eye should be trained to an instant appreciation of proper space-division and sequence. He should be taught that adjoining spaces of the same size, or those one-half or one-third the size of their neighbors, are not pleasing; that the happy mean lies between the half and the third; that spaces successively increasing or diminishing in size are not as interesting an arrangement as a more varied distribution; in short, that in art as elsewhere the obvious is uninteresting and the subtle attractive.

So far I have spoken only of the fundamental principles of art which every man and woman should know, whether they are entering the profession of house-furnishing or not. I do not maintain that they are generally known today, even by the members of this profession. We have lived too long under the theory that art instruction is proper for just three classes: (1) wealthy possible patrons and especially patronesses of the fine arts; (2) aspiring painters and sculptors; and (3) the poor children of the slums. It is an absurd theory of course. The first class are very few in number, and they establish an extravagant idea of art beyond the possibilities of the third group. Meanwhile the middle group of near-artists have no clientèle for their products.

As a matter-of-fact, the people who have most to do with the distribution of art objects and the furnishing of homes are the salesmen in the stores, yet there is scarcely an art school in this country which condescends to conduct a practical course in art for salesmen. Across the entrance to the Royal Academy in London was written these words: "Art and Commerce Promoted." But the Royal Academy never dreamed of inaugurating practical art instruction for those engaged in ordinary art trades. I plead most earnestly that this great National Education Association will make it possible for every man and every woman behind the counters in the stores to obtain, preferably in the evenings, a practical education in the principles of art which underlie their business. Art is art just as truly in the covering

of a chair and in the lighting of a room as it is in a painting by Rembrandt or in the lines of a Greek vase. The art may differ in degree, but the basic principles are the same. And these basic principles must be taught at once to those who guide the buying public. The manufacturer produces what the buyers order, and the buyers in turn order what the salesmen can sell. The salesmen cannot intelligently push the sale of the really artistic unless they themselves understand why it is the best. Educate the salesmen in the why of art, and the future will immediately become much brighter.

Upon the broad and strong foundation of a liberal education a specialized knowledge of house-furnishing may be built up. This specialized knowledge consists of three things: practical experience in the technical details of the profession; advanced instruction in lines and color; and the lifelong study of character-environs. Please note that the first requisite is practical experience. This can only be acquired in an apprenticeship in everyday chores, an occupation most distasteful to the average American. We all desire to skip over the scales and five-finger exercises and to start at once playing pieces. This natural tendency has been greatly encouraged by art schools, which far too often say to prospective pupils: "Come to us and learn about lines and colors, and how to paint pretty pictures of rooms and furniture; then in a year or two you can go forth experts, fully qualified to advise in all matters of house-furnishing." This is a most pernicious fallacy; misleading the pupils, and ruinous to an unsuspecting public. If the salesman does not know the why of art, the art-school graduate certainly is equally ignorant of the how of house-furnishing.

You may have remarked that nothing has been said about "period furnishing." So much buncombe has been spread abroad under this title that it would be well to forget it altogether and start all over again. It is not that I do not revere historic masterpieces; it is not that I fail to appreciate the skill of the great cabinet-makers of the eighteenth century. I simply urge that the work of the past be intelligently used for the inspiration of the present and not blindly worshipped as a fetish.

Consider for a few minutes the so-called French periods. They are the best known examples of the expression in house-furnishing of dominant personalities. Louis XIV sought to impress the nation with the grandeur of the Court. "Let them look" was his motto. Louis XV was under the sway of mistresses. The Boudoir became more important than the Grand Salon. Irregular curves and occult balance were significant features of the decoration. Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette were luxurious children; and expensive simplicity and delicate flowers became the vogue. Of course such characters were powerless against the French Revolution, so they were quickly replaced by Napoleon, the set figure.

Now, what is the significance of these periods today? We cannot reproduce these rooms exactly in this country with its different climate

and manner of life, introducing in them electric light, radiators, and other modern conveniences or inconveniences.

Consider the great English cabinet-makers of the eighteenth century—Chippendale, Hepplewhite, and Sheraton—who are now held responsible for so many models of furniture of varying artistic merit. These master craftsmen very rarely, if ever, designed and furnished rooms and all that went therein. Almost all their work consisted of individual pieces to be used along with the other furniture. In exactly the same way we can use these models in our homes today, if they are in harmony with the other pieces. If they are not, they are most undesirable, no matter how historically accurate the reproduction may be.

There is an interesting significance in the craze for the Chinese through which we are now passing. During the boom times of 1905 and 1906 rich reds and the glories of French palaces were the fashion. Then came the financial crisis of 1907 and 1908 and dull browns were called for. As times became better more joyful hues were desired, and blues and gold became popular. The loot of Peking brought a lot of Chinese materials to this country and at the same time the Georgian styles of furniture became the vogue, and the Georgian styles were strongly influenced by the opening of intercourse with China. All these facts—the demand for blues and golds found best in Chinese rugs and hangings, their harmony with the Georgian styles, and the perennial interest in the novel—made the Chinese craze inevitable. We are very grateful for the introduction of this marvelous art, with its beautiful blue and yellow color harmonies, its sense of movement similar to that of the French, and its symbolism as significant as the Gothic.

The art of all nations and of all time is full of inspiration for the art of today. It is an unfailing library for the trained mind. That is the reason for despising the narrow worship of a very restricted group of historic examples. The present fetish of period rooms and historic furniture is worse than a blunder. It is a great moral and social danger. A man is successful in business and accumulates a fortune rapidly. A natural result is the building of a large new house. He is told that the rooms must be exact copies of historic examples and must be filled with so-called antique furniture or accurate reproductions thereof, no matter how uncomfortable or inconvenient. In such an environment the family can never feel at home, and consequently they keep away as much as possible. The result is the destruction of home ties and the breaking-up of the family life.

The whole trouble comes from a false conception of the profession of house-furnishing. As Browning puts it: "The common problem, yours, mine, everybody's, is not to fancy what were fair, providing it could be, but finding first what may be, make that fair according to our means." The interior decorator who merely fancies what he himself considers fair, and makes another pay for it and live in it, no matter how uncomfortable

or ill-adapted to modern use it may be, commits a crime against society. The real task is to environ character. First find what kind of a home the family enjoys, what colorings show them at their best, what conveniences are desirable, and how much the budget can fairly stand, then make the most artistic environment possible for that family's life. It is a tremendous task requiring lifelong study. This is the reason for the emphasis laid on the necessity for a broad and sound fundamental education. You must be able to comprehend the life of the family, and when you are creating an environment you must know from the experience of the past how proportions and motives and colors have been used to express character. You must know the practical means and materials available for the construction of this environment, the mathematical solution of its problems, not least of all the accurate addition of the cost.

I have emphasized the artistic furnishing of individual homes by thoroly trained specialists, for we must begin with the home in creating a higher artistic standard, and then there will inevitably follow an insistent demand for better public buildings.

I realize that I have merely suggested a few lines of thought. I have not attempted, by any means, to cover the subject assigned to me, but I trust that enough has been said so that you will agree with me that expert house-furnishing is a learned profession, and the art education for it a lifelong study. It has all the dreams of the poet, the research of the scientist, the skill of the artisan, and the practical common-sense that is divine.

THE DOMAIN OF ART EDUCATION

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In popular speech "art" means painting and "artist" a painter. This narrowing of the term would be harmless, like the expression "rising" and "setting" of the sun, if it were consciously recognized; but unrecognized, as it generally is, it has narrowed our conception of art and vitiated our thinking on art education. The domain of art education must be as broad as the domain of art; ideally it ought to cover, even in the public schools, the whole field of art; in fact, however, only a portion of the field is now available.

Art, like science, is an interpretation and expression of the meaning of things and of life. Science interprets life in terms of abstract ideas and expresses them in abstract propositions address to the reason, while art interprets it in the form of concrete ideals aglow with feeling and expresses them in forms perceivable by the senses and address to the imagination and the emotions. In science the mode of conception and of expression is abstract; in art it is concrete.

As expression, the domain of art covers the entire field of expression. We may express our ideals or conceptions in material forms like stone and bronze, and this gives us the arts of architecture and of sculpture; we may express them in material forms which also serve the purposes of practical use, and this gives us industrial art; we may express them in color, in light and shade and in perspective, and this gives us painting and related arts; we may express them in tone and rhythm, and this gives us the art of music; we may express them in oral language in artistic form, and this gives us oratory and the histrionic art; we may express them in artistic form in written language, and this gives us the art of literature.

Of these arts, four are now available in all good public schools. These four are: music, literature, drawing, and the manual arts. Architecture, sculpture, and oratory are available only in part thru their relation to drawing, modeling, and literature.

This limited field of art education, now available in schools, is, after all, much broader than is at present recognized by the teachers of drawing in the schools. Art means even today to most of them design and color work, but nothing more. This is all that the "art department" in public schools means; drawing teachers are "art teachers"; supervisors of drawing are "directors of art education"; and when they assemble in convention they call it a meeting of the "Art Teachers' Association." Even this very "Art Department" of the National Education Association embraces today only two groups of art teachers—drawing teachers and manual-training teachers. All this shows how the popular use of the words "art" and "artist" respectively as painting and painter have, as above stated, limited our conception of art and vitiated our thinking on art education as a pedagogical problem.

Music appeals to a stronger and more universal art instinct than painting. Here in New York there are many people who avoid the two pay-days a week when admission to the Metropolitan Art Museum costs twenty-five cents who do not hesitate to pay from three to five dollars for a seat at the Metropolitan Opera House to hear a favorite opera. And yet we have never taken account of this in our discussions of the general problem of art education.

Literature, in the restricted sense, is art, and should always be taught as art. That it is not so conceived by teachers, and not so taught in most schools, only proves how far we have gone astray in our thinking on art education. Literature as art, must be made to appeal to the emotions thru the imagination. The teaching, at least, in elementary and secondary schools must stay in the concrete. The work of literary art, be it prose or poetry, must be presented to the minds of the pupils in large sections, each forming a unity, so that the total impression may not be lost because of excessive dwelling upon details. Moreover, the most effective interpretation of a work of literary art is not minute analysis nor the study of

footnotes, but the artistic oral reading of it to the class, and by the class, with a minimum of comment.

Now, the teaching in most schools, especially in high schools, is almost the direct opposite of this. Literature is taught more by the method of science-teaching than by the method of art instruction; it is analyzed almost to shreds; it is presented in short sections, often devoid of unity, and a total impression is never gained. We never examine teachers of literature in oral reading when we engage them, and yet to such a teacher the ability to read effectively is quite as essential as the degree of doctor of philosophy. Analysis and literary criticism belong to the upper years of the college and to the university, after the ability to appreciate art has been developed, and not to the high school. For purposes of appreciation such analysis is ineffective. We can not get the meaning of "sorrow" by a chemical analysis of tears and a study of the physiological mechanism of the sigh. Marble does not differ chemically from common limestone, and tears are chiefly salt and water.

It is obvious from the foregoing that while all specific problems in the teaching of drawing can be settled by drawing teachers, the broader aspects of art education as a whole can be intelligently understood only when viewed from the standpoint of the four arts now available in schools; and that for the purpose of such discussion we need a convention composed, not merely of drawing teachers, but of teachers of music, of literature, and of the manual and industrial arts as well. Such a meeting has never been held; I am not at all sure that it has ever been thought of; but until we discuss art education in this broad way we shall be groping in the dark as to some of its fundamental problems.

Several practical corollaries may be briefly deduced from the foregoing:

1. Children's esthetic nature may be cultivated by any one or by several of the arts now taught in public schools. Drawing is not the only art-study which accomplishes this. The child's esthetic nature is best developed by a study of the art in which he is most gifted.

2. While the elementary stages of all four arts may be profitably studied by all pupils of the elementary schools, in secondary schools, art, as a serious study, must be elective, as here the purpose is not solely appreciation but production as well.

3. We have made music, drawing, and industrial arts elective, but it seems to me it naturally follows that literature as art, should also be made elective. This has never been done; and I find it always shocks my classes in education in the university when I suggest it. But when you look at it in an unbiased way, literature should be treated in education like the other great arts. It should be seriously studied by those only whose art instinct belongs to the literary type. The taste for poetry and for literary prose is not as general as the taste for music, and hardly as general as the taste for painting and industrial art. In fact, many well-educated persons who had

studied literature in school do not care for it. To demand such a taste of all seems as unreasonable as to demand of all a taste for music or for painting. The present compulsory study of literature in all schools is the result of tradition and convention, and illustrates to what an extent our thinking, not only on art education, but on education in general, is still fettered by custom and tradition.

To say that literature should not be made compulsory in secondary schools is not to say that the taste for books and reading for information should not be cultivated in all. The taste for literature is cultivated by the study of literature; the love of reading for information is cultivated by the whole curriculum.

ART TEACHING VS. PRACTICAL LIFE

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There is such a difference of opinion in the minds of our experts in art as to what constitutes real art; and, as we are still so far from an accepted definition of the practical in life, a satisfactory discussion of our topic is well-nigh impossible. "Art for art's sake," whatever that may mean, is still as rigidly adhered to by many artists and critics, as is the idea of formal discipline by our "old-timers." And it is, of course, true that many people who chatter about the art instinct, and esthetic feeling, and the finer sensibilities, and balance, and harmony, and rhythm, would be as out of place in an atmosphere of taste and refinement as a bull in a china shop. These people talk art because their neighbor talks art; and why should they be less progressive than their neighbor, to be sure?

Everything freakish, and some things that were good, were brought together at the Panama-Pacific Exposition in the annex to the Fine Arts Palace. Here, the Futurists displayed their wares. The Cubists kept here perpetual holiday. Among the good things there was a wealth of daubs and splashes, the like of which was never before seen in the heavens above nor in the earth beneath. Near-artists would gather in groups and point out certain bits of line or color that, with a mighty stretch of the imagination and the closing of one eye, could be taken or mistaken for a face, or nude figure, or a coalshed, or a tree growing upside down in a desert land, or a river of water running up hill.

On one occasion a group of these enthusiastic moderns in art-criticism were going into raptures before a canvas which meant absolutely nothing to any one save the originator, and there is some doubt as to just how much it meant to him. Not to be outdone, each member of the group was in turn going his associates "one better." A lady with more than the average appreciation for the beautiful and no little knowledge of both art-teaching and practical life came by and heard the outbursts. Being something of a

humorist, she turned to her companions and said as she directed their attention to the art object, "Really, these things are not so bad. You see the people who do them are not at all dangerous. They are not kept in solitary confinement, but are allowed their freedom and do this work as a diversion. It keeps their minds occupied and off their troubles." Needless to say, the near-artists nearly fainted.

The popular conception of art is that of an intangible something attaching to painting and sculpture. In the minds of some, the fields of music and of letters are of the arts. We also hear of the vaudeville artist, the baseball artist, the tonsorial artist. There is bound up in the more restricted meaning of art the idea of great cost, of luxury—something that can be acquired only by the wealthy, or selected and appreciated by the specially gifted.

The "higher criticism" in art is largely a matter of bluff. Mr. Cortissoz in his essay on "Art and Common Sense" characterizes much of the talk of artists and critics alike as "oracular jargon," and the "expert" attempt to "detach their subject from common understanding" as bigotry and superstition. Art is a natural expression and ceases to be art when affectation sets in. The art quality may be applied in practically every phase of human life and experience. We must get away from the idea that art is drawing, or sculpture, or painting, or decoration, or jewelry, or woodwork. The art quality may be cultivated in all, and the real art quality is of practical use in our everyday life. In this connection note a sentence or two from De Garmo's *Esthetic Education*:

Our present esthetic teaching is defective in several particulars: (1) in that it is left to specialists alone; (2) because, in consequence of this fact, it covers only a part of the world that is beautiful; and (3) because it tends to lead the pupil to look for beauty only at second-hand, as in pictures of things rather than in the things themselves.

While, therefore, we must have special teachers of art, as we have special teachers of English, we shall find art-teaching narrow and restricted indeed, unless all teachers teach art as all should teach English. And, unless those in the grip of the school do learn to look for beauty in things themselves rather than in the pictures of things simply, we cannot hope to hitch art to practical life.

To begin with, the best art-teaching in the world, so far as projecting itself with the pupil into the channels of practical life is concerned, is that unconscious instruction that soaks in from contact with daily surroundings. Not one schoolroom in a score makes any pretence toward the artistic; not one in a hundred succeeds in the attempt. In the majority of instances no attention has been given to the color of the walls. There are no pictures whatever; or, those that repose upon the walls are as likely to detract as they are to add to the beauty of the surroundings. There may be an immense portrait of Lincoln or Longfellow, with a border of white as broad as an opened spelling book. A Perry Picture or two may be pinned to the wall, or fastened with a gummed label or a drop of paste. Crowning

the whole may be a reproduction of the Roman Forum, of Balboa discovering the Pacific Ocean, or of Washington crossing the Delaware, strung up so high above the teacher's desk that only those on the last row of seats can see it without straining neck muscles or distorting the eyes. And the frames are probably in no manner fitted to the pictures, either as to material, width, or form.

What is needed is a little forethought on the part of the superintendent or principal, less politics dominating the actions of a school-board member, some common-sense blended with imagination in the make-up of the architect, a willingness to cooperate and do an honest job as the determining factor in the contractor's creed; and tact, judgment, and determination—the actuating motives in the teacher. This combination would bring us schoolrooms not box-shaped, with once-white walls blackened and crackt with age, alternating with slices of greasy blackboard, and with windows on three sides. We should have instead rooms with acceptable color schemes, with a few pictures, selected in conformity to the age and development of the pupils, a bit of statuary, a vase of flowers, a potted plant or fern, or other greenery, a window box, perhaps, and furniture in keeping with the purpose of the place, namely, that of a livable schoolroom where boys and girls are passing some of their beginning years of a practical life. And so far as cost is concerned, the dear public will feel no extra drain upon its pocketbook.

A delicate subject is that of the personal appearance of the teacher. A man of my acquaintance spent considerable time moralizing to his class on the value of controlling the temper, and followed this shortly by throwing a convenient piece of timber across the shop at the head of a boy whose actions displeased him. Actions, attitude, and appearance are the best teachers. The best art-teaching cannot be done by one who sports a color scheme that comes into collision with itself and with everything else in the surrounding landscape. There is no excuse for display of lack of taste in the dress of a teacher, and it is worse than useless to ask children to be neat and tidy under such conditions. The first and most telling impression made by the teacher upon superintendent or board member while seeking a position is that of appearance. A teacher—man or woman—should dress in conformity to the duties of teacher. Color schemes that clash, soiled or spotted garments, untidy shoes, ill-fitting coats, stripes that speak eloquently of the ward politician, do not lend themselves to the inculcating of the art instinct. It not unfrequently is the case that those who spend most money on elaborate dress show results the least satisfactory.

Taste in dress and in the arrangement of the schoolroom may readily spread so as to transform an entire community. The home must take its cue from the school. Art-teaching must have a relation to practical life. With proper art-teaching we shall have fewer men wearing loud garments, watch fobs as large as the watch itself, and coat and vest as inartistically

decorated with lodge and fraternity emblems as is the uniform of a European court official with braid and buttons. We shall have fewer women displaying as many expensive but vulgar rings as their fingers of both hands can possibly hold. The home will discard garish, spindle-legged furniture; useless bric-a-brac, fit only to collect dust; what-nots and shelves whereon repose all sorts of useless and antiquated objects; pictures and chromos that have come down from parlor to living room, from dining-room to bedroom; and we shall have some harmony in the lay-out of flower beds and in the colors used inside and outside of houses.

And cost! These things spoken of as desirable need cost no more than the ugly ones. It is largely a question of teaching, of training, of choosing the right thing rather than the wrong thing. Art-teaching from this point of view must have its effect upon practical life. A practical life is an effective and an efficient life. Any life is made more effective and efficient that sees the beauty in bird and brook, forest and field; in the delicate flower and in the restless ocean; in the rainbow tint and in the desert waste. Boxes, and pictures, and furniture, and dishes for the table, and linens and draperies, and lawns and gardens and tools, and houses and railroad cars, and hats and gloves and shoes, and jewelry—these and all else that enter into practical life may be influenst by art-teaching.

Let it be said therefore that no particular thing—picture, sculpture, jewelry—has a corner on art. Art is something very different from these things. The art quality, the esthetic sense, as we have discust it, can be seen in the arrangement of the books upon the table, the type page and margins, the design in the ends of the table cover, the finish, the form, the construction, the material of the table itself. It can be seen in the selection, the framing, the hanging of the pictures, the pattern and form of the rugs upon the floor, the tree-bordered walk, the shop-window display, the garments worn upon the street and in the home.

We are then not primarily to produce artists thru art-teaching in school. We are not to single out a few delicate, high-strung, sentimental youths and maidens, and make them the beneficiaries in a cut-and-dried plan of art instruction. We are rather to expose everyone to this art influence, with the thoro knowledge that the results will be according to individual tastes, abilities, desires, capacities, efforts. This kind of art-teaching must become general.

But to become operative in practical life it must be possesst by those who are of the practical life, who are doing things in practical life. The art quality in the individual must mean more than the ability to produce a masterpiece, or to appreciate a work of art. It must result in the selection of good and substantial things; it must find its application to all phases of life by all people all the time; it must be lived.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MUSEUMS AND SCHOOLS

As will be noted from the minutes, the session held in the lecture hall of the Metropolitan Museum of Art was given over to a discussion of the relationship existing between museums and schools and its possibility for future development. The following extracts are taken from the papers which were presented.

PAUL M. REA, secretary, American Association of Museums.—The lesson of history with regard to this problem is especially concerned with an explanation of the curious condition in which we find museums today. This condition may best be illustrated by thinking of the replies you would receive if you stopt a score of people on the avenue and askt them to tell you what they think of museums. I am afraid their replies would show little interest and less knowledge, for it is undoubtedly true that there is a great popular lethargy with regard to museums and a failure to appreciate their significance as vital institutions. They are thought of as rather cold and dreary places. In contrast, however, to this widely prevalent opinion there is to be found in a limited number of cities and towns where active museums have been at work a great popular enthusiam over museums, and it is to find the explanation for these two opposite points of view that I am going to ask you to look back into the history of museums. Why is it that so many of our people entirely misconceive the nature of museums, while the relatively few who do understand them are filled with enthusiasm over their possibilities of educational and social service?

There are nominally about 600 museums in the United States. Of these, 35 per cent look to societies and associations for financial support. A large proportion of these museums are devoted to history and are owned by small historical societies, which are numerous thruout the country, altho they usually have very limited activity. These museums as a class have hardly advanst beyond the stage of curio collections. This is the lowest plane of museum-organization, and it is museums of this type that are largely responsible for giving to the word "museum" the sinister significance which it has in the minds of so many people.

The possibilities of historical museums have been little appreciated, yet their field is almost boundless. What can be done is indicated by the excellent work already accomplisht in a few museums. Reproductions of Colonial rooms, representing accurately in every detail the homes of our ancestors, make museum exhibits interesting to every visitor. Such exhibits preserve a permanent record of past conditions and lend to the study of history a fascination that can be obtained in no other way. Such rooms can be found in the Essex Institute at Salem, Massachusetts, in the Milwaukee Public Museum, and in the Oakland Public Museum. Even when the money necessary for the construction of period rooms is not available, much may be accomplisht by careful arrangement of objects which

illustrate the life of past times. Thus the small historical museum in Nantucket succeeds, at very small expense, in telling a vivid and fascinating story of the life of Nantucket in the old whaling days.

I am confident that within a comparatively few years we shall see a great development of museum work in history. Boston is now planning a great celebration in commemoration of the tri-centennial of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth. There will be special features of a temporary character, but all Boston is trying to find the best permanent memorial of this occasion.

Picture groups, however, fulfil only a part of the function of the museum. There should be another division in which larger series of objects illustrate the development of furniture, of transportation, of manufactures, etc. Arranged in chronological series, with carefully prepared labels, these exhibits would have not only historical significance but immediate application in suggesting designs for present-day industries.

Still another section of this museum might to advantage be devoted to photographs illustrating every conceivable phase of New England's history, all of standard size, and cataloged with such full cross-references that any subject could be found immediately. Duplicate photographs, and in many cases lantern slides, could be lent to churches, schools, clubs, and other organizations, and printed lectures telling the story of New England's history might be circulated thruout Massachusetts and neighboring states. The most interesting subjects could be put on post-cards and offered for sale.

Thirty-eight per cent of our museums are supported by colleges and universities. A large proportion of college museums are devoted to natural science. Their collections, while usually free from curios, tend to systematic series of considerable value to specialists, but of rather a dreary character for the general public.

About 7 per cent of our museums are maintained by private individuals or by endowment from single individuals. Some of these are the pet hobbies of wealthy men. When such a man dies he often endows the museum, with a provision that it shall be kept as nearly as possible just as he left it. These museums are in the nature of tombstones and are of little use to the public.

Four per cent of our museums derive their support from state governments. All museums of this type have considerable difficulty in performing significant public service from the fact that state capitals are frequently not the largest cities in the state and because it is difficult for the museum to reach the people outside the capital. State museums, therefore, have not yet become a large factor in educational work.

About 15 per cent of our museums are what may be best termed "public museums." They afford a marked contrast in every particular to those which have been reviewed above, and to them is due that enthusiasm for museums

which has been noted in a limited number of cities and towns. That these museums are rendering productive service in proportion to the investments they represent is shown by their steady increase in numbers and in wealth. Indeed, public museums are the leaven of the whole situation and are our first truly democratic museums.

The Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences since 1872 has carried on an increasingly extensive work with the public school of Buffalo, and this has been a regular part of the curriculum since 1905.

The Davenport Academy of Sciences undertook intensive work with the public schools as early as 1877 and continued it very successfully until 1889, when the removal of the curator caused a temporary suspension. The work was resumed in 1902 and is still carried on.

The Commercial Museum in Philadelphia has done a remarkable work thruout the state of Pennsylvania. Since 1904 it has received state appropriations which have enabled it to place over 1200 exhibits in the schools of the state, reaching annually over 75,000 pupils. Lectures have also been prepared on various subjects supplementing the work of the public schools and these, with lanterns and illustrative lantern slides, are circulated thruout the state.

In St. Louis the exposition of 1904 led to the establishment of an educational museum which is unique because of the fact that it is maintained directly by the school board. The great service which this museum is rendering to the schools of St. Louis might well be the subject of discussion for a whole morning.

The Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, is the first museum to receive a large endowment especially for extension work with the public schools. In December, 1911, N. W. Harris gave to the Field Museum an endowment of \$250,000 for this purpose. The work has been organized on an elaborate scale and is gradually being correlated with the curriculum of the schools.

The Toledo Museum of Art is a comparatively new museum which has made up for its lack of great collections of priceless objects by using everything it has to serve the largest possible number of people in Toledo. The work of this institution is an inspiration to any educator or to anyone interested in social service.

The Milwaukee Public Museum is the largest of the strictly municipal museums supported entirely by city appropriations, and maintains very active and successful work with the public schools.

In addition to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston and the Worcester Art Museum are showing the wonderful possibilities of making history and geography living subjects to public-school students thru the aid of museum collections. Many teachers in these cities say that without the museum they could not begin to teach history as they wish to. If time permitted this list could be greatly extended.

In all of the educational activities of museums indicated above the fundamental idea is visual instruction. You have only to glance at one of the traveling exhibits sent out by any of these museums to get a story so vivid that it will stay in mind the rest of your life. The value of object teaching is only beginning to be fully appreciated. The vast resources of museums both in material and in knowledge need to be mobilized as a part of our educational system. What is now needed is a nation-wide appreciation of the value of visual instruction as afforded by museums. This appreciation should begin with those professionally interested in education.

I would therefore leave with you in closing but two suggestions: first, that educators should acquaint themselves more intimately with the educational work already accomplished by museums, and secondly, that closer administrative relations between school and museums will be of mutual advantage.

ANNA B. GALLUP, curator, Children's Museum, Brooklyn.—I think there is no formal relation existing between children's museums and the schools, but there has developed between these institutions a more vital relation than can ever be put on paper by school or museum officials—a relation that the children have established by visiting the museums and by showing their principals and teachers how much information they have gained thru their museum experiences.

Teachers who prepared nature lessons with great care found that the facts they had intended to present were already in the possession of their eager pupils who, fresh from the experiences of the museum, were not disposed to listen to the statements of teachers without also contributing from their own respective funds of information.

Today the Children's Museum in Brooklyn ministers to nearly 200,000 visitors annually, about 20,000 of whom regularly attend the museum lectures. Everyday the ringing telephone conveys some teacher's request for the privilege of bringing a class to the museum to see the collections and to hear a lecture. This attendance is wholly voluntary on the part of the public.

I think the children are attracted to the museum and interested in its activities largely because of its homelike character. It is indeed a second home to many children—a home where they receive much attention, where they have access to the treasures of the museum, and where there is a library in which they can read about every object that arouses their interest.

The museum helps the teachers in a variety of ways. As many teachers have said, "It is the one institution that awakens the minds of our pupils to an interest in new subjects of thought." Many children who live near the corner grocery or delicatessen store would never see anything beyond these places were it not for their trips to the Children's Museum. Very often teachers who experience difficulty in arousing the enthusiasm of the

pupils for school studies find that after a visit to the museum the children begin to show a decided, persistent interest in natural history, geography, and history.

The Children's Museum also recognizes the individuality of the child and, in offering him the special assistance adapted to his needs, supplements the work of the teachers who are first by circumstances to deal with large numbers of children.

Thru the Children's Museum boys and girls have become interested in lines of study which they have subsequently followed for long periods of time. One youngster, who practically lived in the museum during his spare time, devoting his attention to natural history, was given a year's credit in biology at Columbia University in recognition of what he had absorbed in the Children's Museum without any conscious effort. Other children have been helped over those critical periods in their lives when, tired of school, at odds with their teachers, and otherwise disaffected, they wish to leave school and go to work.

Children's museums at present are small institutions. The Brooklyn Children's Museum was the first and, with the exception of the Children's Museum in Boston, is the only museum maintained for children. But educators from various countries have become interested in the principles of education that children's museums are trying to work out. One investigator from Russia, after making two separate visits to the Brooklyn institution at an interval of two years, published his observations of its activities in a book which was printed in five different languages of Europe. Since that time investigators from nine European countries, Japan, Java, Australia, and South America have returned to their homes with reports of the work of the children's museum.

THE ART INSTINCT UNIVERSAL

FLORENCE E. ELLIS, FORMERLY SUPERVISOR OF ART, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The impression that art instinct is possessed by only the talented few is disappearing. That it was universal among primitive people and the older nations is understood. It is just as universal in America today. Let me illustrate:

At the recent Panama-Pacific International Exposition, I was six months in the school-art exhibits in the Palace of Education, and daily heard the comments of the throngs as they viewed the art display. The mothers invariably exclaimed, "I did not have this in school, but how delightful that my children can have it!" The attitude of the men as to the need of art was a revelation. Those in shops, offices, and newspaper establishments particularly would fairly insist on information as to where they could get help in art. Great artists may be rare, but art instinct—the love of beauty and the desire to express it—is the possession of all.

Art must be used, in order to grow, and there must be art environment for its fullest development. As we know, in the early history of our country there was little time for esthetic training; utensils and house-furnishings came from Europe, and later could be purchast from cheap manufactories at home, consequently art and the handicrafts were rarely practist.

Notwithstanding neglect, there is no soul so dead but in it is a spark, at least, of art feeling. The wish to see beauty, to create, or own it, is manifested in many and diverse ways. It may be in the enjoyment of good pictures, a well-planned garden, fine furniture, dress, a beautiful home, or in myriads of other ways.

I was told by one who often visits the juvenile courts of Chicago that most of the young girls there are brought thru taking something they think beautiful. A girl who had taken a little doll, when questioned, said she had always so longed for a pretty doll and could not have one that she decided her little sister should have one even if she had to steal it for her. She had stolen the doll that the little sister might be made happy. Another girl was there for taking a few samples of lace two or three inches in length. They were of no practical use, but were so attractive she felt she must have them. A lady I knew always had flowers on the table and less food, when she could not afford both. In the poorest shanty there is a geranium in the window, a few plants at the front door.

A man who was buying a home was choosing between two places. There was no appreciable difference in the houses, nor in the grounds, otherwise than that on one was a beautiful tree. He paid one thousand dollars more for the place with the tree, remarking it was so much more homelike and attractive. Unconsciously he gave a thousand dollars for a beautiful tree.

A real estate dealer states that he plants shrubs about three years before he wishes to sell a place and that he realizes 25 per cent profit by so doing; besides, the attractive effect decides the sale. Similar examples could be cited indefinitely.

The art instinct is placed in the soul of everyone by an all-wise Creator. Why is this? There must be a purpose. Is it not for enjoyment and uplift; a stimulus for greater effort and excellence? It brings an awakening to undiscovered powers in one's nature. It brings hope and satisfaction. It grips the heart with a great purpose, and gives ardor and endurance for its accomplishment.

A few educators have recently been advocating the teaching of art in the schools for appreciation only, to the end that people may buy judiciously. In contrast, consider the schools of Germany and other European countries. There, pupils showing ability in the arts are taken under the special care of the government and carefully educated along the lines of their greatest ability, and that at the government's expense, when necessary. In every large city is a government industrial-arts school. Those countries are educating producers; we are buying their products.

We devote a few minutes a day in the elementary schools to art; and when finances are low, or for other reasons, it is often dropt. I have heard teachers say, "You will be deprived of art until your grade in the essential subjects is made." Recently, I visited two high schools where drawing had been dropt because of lack of room. Is this partly, I wonder, because the work we give does not sufficiently meet life's needs?

Oh, what a waste is there of ability of incomparable value to the individual and to the nation! But, since the time when a child was reprimanded if found drawing; and, again, when art having gained a place in the curriculum counted nothing toward promotion; and yet, again, when it first received credits, and teachers cried it would disorganize the schools because pupils poor in arithmetic were thus promoted, a great change has come. Wreckage of happiness, of aspirations, of ambition, revealed that arithmetic as a basis of promotion was not justice to all children. Now, with the newer systems of education, departmental work, and other improvements there is a possibility of work in different grades as the make-up of the child may demand—fifth-grade arithmetic, seventh-grade language, sixth-grade drawing, or otherwise, as the case may be. Children need not much longer be first into the same mold and consigned to mediocrity. Let us hope that no longer will they be humiliated and kept back in all subjects, and discouraged until they leave school, because poor in a few studies. How much better to crystallize market tendencies than to emphasize that which a child can never do only in the most indifferent manner! May the schools equip for the ends the child's spirit craves, and not dwarf his best instincts and embitter his life!

A teacher on the Pacific Coast told me of a boy in her classes who had been first from the public schools because deficient in his general work. His parents then sent him to a private school and the same was about to happen, when, having noticed his drawing, she begged that he be placed in an art school. Today he is one of the most noted cartoonists of the country. Similar cases are not at all uncommon.

Secretary Lane of the Department of the Interior states in a recent bulletin that on the 600,000 teachers who are training the 21,000,000 children in the schools of the United States depends every phase of production from art to industry; that on them depends the making of the nation of the morrow. He makes an appeal on behalf of the National Bureau of Education that it be made "a national clearing-house on which all the schools could draw for knowledge now owned and utilized by the few." Nothing could improve more rapidly and effectively the teaching of the arts. Art teachers in the schools need this help, and some need it tremendously and are asking for it.

The school and likewise the home, and the store, and the library, and the museum, and the art commission are educational factors, all of which must be utilized if we become an art-discerning people. For the accomplish-

ment of such a result art must be a part of the life of the people and of every part of it even to the maid's room. I know a home where the maid has as pleasant a room and as daintily furnished as any in the house. Do you doubt that she has better taste, that the table is better set, that the whole house is more pleasingly kept in consequence?

In the commercial world art is especially important in cultivating public taste. The commercial world is becoming a great educational power. The clerk in the store advises how the home shall be decorated and furnished, and with what the people shall be clothed. He decides the choice in the majority of cases, in wall paper, rugs, curtains, and so on. The largest stores, in increasing numbers, have educational supervisors and this educational phase of commercial work as it grows will compel the manufacturer to have art quality in his products or they cannot gain entrance to the store, and consequently not to the home. Encouraging, also is the increase in art commissions. Supervisors of the arts in furthering the formation of such commissions can do most constructive work. Art commissions are needed everywhere, however large or small the city. At the Arts Convention held recently in Springfield, Massachusetts, all were impressed with the municipal buildings. I recall a high-school building of unusual charm within and without. It brought to mind images of other buildings where the business-manager of the Board of Education decided such matters largely and defaced (you could not call it decorated) the walls with the brightest colors imaginable, explaining that it was economy; that bright colors did not become dull and dirty-looking so quickly. May the time come, and quickly, when there will be art training sufficient to prevent such ruthless destroying of the art sensibilities of children, to say nothing of their nervous systems! How often is the practical person, the most impractical!

There is a business house in London, employing fifteen hundred people, which is doing a remarkable work. Scarcely a day passes that a superintendent does not say to an employe, "You have gotten out of this work all you can get out of it; there is nothing more ahead for you in it and we want to find a place for you where you can grow as you have been growing this last year." They then give him another part of the work where he can learn further. One might think a business thus conducted would not succeed—keeping a person doing one kind of work only until he can do it perfectly—but it has proved otherwise. Imagine how alive and alert those employes are! The ambitious boys and girls of the whole of London are eager to get into that shop, and even try to get in for nothing.

If such a spirit of continual growth were general everywhere, if there were a striving to be always improving and progressing, the work of the world would be better done, and there would be joyful living and contentment instead of a daily grind of drudgery. Is it not possible to get more of this ambition and hope into work and especially into vocational training?

May not those boys and girls, also, have a little vision of beauty, have a vocation to grow in, and be happy in, as well as to gain a living by?

In conclusion, all I have said is summed up in one sentence, namely: The art instinct is universal, and its development is necessary to the individual, for the highest aspiration, achievement, and satisfaction; and to the nation, for its commerce and continued prosperity.

THE ESSENTIALS IN MAKING ART PRACTICAL

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I surmise that much the larger part of this audience is made up of teachers of art, whose lives and work are related to great industrial communities. For such an audience and in this year of grace the "old unhappy far-off things and battles long ago" have almost, if not entirely, been forgotten. The need of argument for art in education with which the older teachers began their service has, in this fortunate and busy part of the world, given place to eager discussion as to more direct and better teaching. I hope that you realize that you are fortunate.

Art, as a subject of practical appeal, can scarcely be said to exist outside great manufacturing cities and intensive civilization. The isolation of small cities like that of individuals in rural communities reduces to the vanishing point interest in world-standards of beauty, since the forces which stimulate such ideals touch rural life so remotely. The friction of mind on mind, competition, the contact of shoulders in the press, the investment of money in the venture of producing beautiful wares, all these are needed spurs in the life of successful art-production.

The country has advantages as a place of residence, but it has its dangers as well for those who cannot take the world with them in the form of experience and mental equipment. The trolley and the rural delivery have more to do with successful art-teaching than at first appears. Let your mind's eye traverse for a moment the immense section we call the South. You will see it as a land of agricultural interests, without great cities. There are, as a matter of fact, a few cities which approach greatness, but in all this tremendous area there is little manufacture which calls for art. Some here present may have to do with art-teaching in rural communities; if so, they have felt the pressure of this problem which faces all teachers in the South and Southwest.

But look for a moment at the other side. Intensive civilization tends to destroy individuality and fosters self-repression. The psychologist "views with alarm" the approach of apathy and waning enthusiasm. The dweller in great cities may be in as much danger as the countryman. For both, a means must be found, thru which emotion may find expression, free

and unashamed. To make art a practical subject in any large sense, the first step must be towards freeing the spirit. Where loneliness has thrown the individual much upon himself, a first aid to ingrowing emotions has been suggested in music with dancing, the drama, and pageantry. Anything seems promising which will break down sluggish apathy and materialism; The ancient Greeks introduced music to soften the natures of the hill tribes. The tea ceremonial brought refinement to the rude Japanese of earlier days.

When I was a boy, the New England town in which I lived had laid the dead hand of Puritanism on all natural emotions and their equally natural expression. No more formidable obstacle to art could have been devised. I suppose that the Puritan's dread of the "natural Adam" has been modified in forty years, but there may be a trace of it still lingering in the back districts. I recall that in the art school of that day there was no class exercise which called for spontaneous expression of feeling, no sympathetic encouragement towards the unfolding of the inner life. In consequence, to this day I am unable to paint a picture unless I have before me chapter and verse from life and nature.

The class which grew out of my discovery, and which I guided with the elation felt, I am sure, by Orville Wright in guiding his first flying machine, is the most vital work of the art school, for it is the exercise of those faculties in the young which unlock the spirit and gives it power to discern and express vital things. The essential thing in art-teaching, as it seems to me, is to find out the man where he lives; discover the seat of his emotions; teach him that painstaking and definite scholarship is not at variance with imagination and feeling; on the contrary, that swift and comprehensive sympathy is the intangible guide which finds the motive in art to which the community responds and in its recognition gives the cachet of success to his endeavor. I am the more impressed with the importance of this idea for the art-teacher when I reflect on the magnitude of this land, its climatic and geographical divisions, and the life which each section must, mainly, live to itself.

I am coming presently to that aspect of art-teaching which is obviously practical and for that reason arouses very pleasant discussion, but I hope for your forgiveness if I seem to dwell on this phase of the artistic problem, for, in truth, I believe it to be of primary, of deepest, and of most pressing importance. I have recently studied great masses of art-school productions and while my admiration went out to the high level of skill—really impressive skill in many departments—I was deprest to see so large a part of it concerned with the superficial and mechanical and so little apparent concern as to what it was all about.

I know that I seem to be wandering from the subject to which I was appointed to speak, which is the practical aspect of art-teaching, but I protest that no more practical question comes before the manufacturer

for answer than how to secure originality in his wares. His need is urgent. Examine the stock of "art goods" in any commercial establishment and we shall all agree that the rarest thing to find is the happy touch which illumines the dismal waste of commonplace. Is it not true that the way to freshness of vision is by nature's paths? And is not the national temperament and point of view, which we all share, the guide we ought to follow? I see American children encouraged to compose Dutch motives in which figure windmills, and children in wooden shoes and quaint headdresses. These same children know nothing of the working of a windmill of the Dutch type; have never worn wooden shoes, etc. What purpose then do these Dutch inventions serve but to divorce art from life? I venture to believe that they hinder rather than help.

Also, I see designs in the exhibitions of many schools, for example, carpet-weaving. On examination it will be found that the school contains no loom and that the passage of the shuttle forward and back in its relation to the warp has not been considered. I see designs for stained glass, in which the possibilities of the material with reference to the diamond scratch and fracture have no part, and I ask to what end? If I follow up the inquiry I find there is no end. It merely fades away. The pupil spends some years in investment, only to find that general taste and unrelated skill have small place in the practical world. Specific, related, definite application of art to the purpose of the idea or craft in hand is the type of instruction that will effectively help American industries or American art.

The essentials by which a practical form of art may be developed seem to me to consist, (1) in a well established viewpoint that shall direct what follows, as the mariner's compass directs the vessel; (2) the harnessing of the energies of the art school to the nearest job that offers. The art school must connect its teaching with practice, or it will be politely ignored, and properly so. The ideal school of art was the studio shop of the fifteenth-century Renaissance. There the apprentice learned as he did the work. When his apprenticeship was over he was qualified to have a shop of his own. Failing the exact parallel in modern opportunity, we will come as near it as possible by soliciting commissions that can be carried out by students, and by requiring them to meet every specification in a workman-like way. The cash return is a stimulus to care and industry beyond computation.

In my own class of advanced designers there are often three or four new commissions at each sitting written on the blackboard with full specifications, and the price agreed upon. The first half-hour will be spent in thinking out and projecting an idea. The teacher criticizes the ideas, and each proceeds to work. The teacher is in constant touch with the class, giving technical advice and help. If more than one are trying the same project, the most successful finished work is awarded the commission. By this simple

means a wide variety of experience comes to the class—designs for book covers, book decorations, book plates, society pins, electric signs, advertising posters, designs for decorating rooms, iron gates, china, etc.

It is astonishing what numbers of commissions come by mail and by telephone, but the final value lies in the fact that it is apprentice practise in real work, for which real money is ready to be paid over. The drudgery and perfunctory routine of class problems is entirely eliminated. Moreover, if the instructor is not informed as to the latest technical usage, the matter does not stop there as a formal problem might, but it is taken by the student to some workshop where the latest thing is learned, and the design based upon it.

The art school which earnestly seeks to be genuinely useful to the community which supports it soon grows into a place of consideration; problems are brought to it too delicate and important for the artisan; gradually its staff of students and teachers are held in respect as being able to do a needed work. In this way the educational idea is also served, for it becomes apparent that art and manufacture must be friends. When a young artist stands on a staging, carrying out a mural decoration; paints a lunette of titles over the entrance of a theater; bends over her bench in a jewelry establishment as I have seen them do, in the eyes of a community which is being educated without its knowledge or consent, it is an object lesson of great potency.

There are times and places where the school may go further. If a survey of the local possibilities for absorbing the trained art-students' work shows little or no promise, then I should say, start something and stay with it until it meets with public support.

In my experience a silversmith shop is able to support students thru their years of study, and gives them a vocation thereafter, with comfortable livelihood. This is true of bookbinding, pottery, and embroidery. There is, of course, nothing new in all this. Schools are doing it everywhere. However, in the Newcomb School of Art, one further step has been taken, which might be undesirable in a great industrial city, but which appeared logical and necessary under the very unfavorable conditions which surrounded this school. A sale department evolved, which now presents much of the character of a full-fledged business enterprise. It has the advantage of bringing patron and worker together. This promotes acquaintanceship, and gradually establishes relations which ripen into regular patronage. This necessary publicity and favorable relations with patrons are the hardest things for a young artist to win. Ordinarily it takes years, or is not accomplished at all.

I believe this to be an important service to the young artist, worth some trouble. The idea is closely related to that of the arts and crafts shops, maintained in so many places, but it differs in that it handles only the work of its own people.

The shops are adjacent to the sale room and visitors are freely welcome to go where they please. Thus, contact with the worker and interest in the process develops appreciation and sympathy with the purpose behind it all. When I recall the school of art, forty years ago, with its myopic absorption in drawing and painting from life, and the condition of American art in general that was its corollary, and contrast it with the art school of today and with the really remarkable improvement that has transformed art in general, I can easily persuade myself that we are at least facing in the right direction in our school-management.

DIFFERENTIATION IN ART TRAINING TO SUIT INDIVIDUAL PUPIL'S NEEDS

ROYAL B. FARNUM, STATE SPECIALIST IN ART EDUCATION, ALBANY, N.Y.

Present methods in education fall far short of the ideal. In fact, they are so antiquated that many educators would scrap them entirely and begin anew. The truth of the first statement is apparent, but just where and how the extremist would begin has yet to be explained. Meanwhile many forms of pedagogical training have been instituted to relieve the situation. The general method of procedure, however, has remained practically the same, with one striking exception: the kindergarten has cut loose from traditional methods and is solving the educational problem in its own way. At this end of the school line, differentiation to meet the needs of the pupil is actually practised. One may hear such suggestions as these: "Barbara leads beautifully, therefore, let us have her for our leader in this game"; "Betty dances gracefully, see if you can't follow her steps"; "Paul can tell stories so well, let us all listen." Thus the individual is led to take conscious pride in his ability, and his peculiar talent is carefully nurtured.

The early methods of teaching had for their purpose the storing of information and knowledge gained from books. As contrasted with this aim, we have the ideal purpose of so organizing both mind and body that initiative, independent thinking, and mastery of the individual, his acts and his environment, shall result. Examples of these types of education are found today at the extreme ends of the so-called school training, namely, the college on one hand and the kindergarten on the other. The college still seeks to fill the brain of the individual with specific information; the kindergarten provides every opportunity for the right training of the senses, individual aid, and the practical application of the reasoning powers.

Between these two extremes—the college and the kindergarten—we have the primary grades, the grammar grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school. And as progress is made away from the kindergarten toward the college, less attention is devoted to the individual and more to the

course of study. This is contrary to the natural growth of the child whose personal and individual characteristics and traits crystallize as he gains in years. If ever attention is to be paid to the individual, if ever a differentiation in training is to be recognized, it certainly should come in the more advanced schools. As a matter of fact, it should never be lost sight of.

It is strange that the enlightened work of the kindergarten has had no influence higher up. Instead, it has been the college which has changed conditions below it to meet its own spirit and thought. Consequently information-getting, book knowledge, memory-training, are still the backbone of the upper grades and high schools. To quote Ernesto Nelson, "The curriculum, the textbook, the examination paper are the most important pieces of the educational machinery."

The thread-bare statement that "education is a preparation for life" undoubtedly means that this preparation is for each individual. Unfortunately, actual practice has dealt only with groups, and there has been practically no individual preparation. In reality, every pupil should be given the opportunity to develop within the limit of his individual capacity. Mere book learning and a fine memory will not do. Various forms of activity which will develop such qualities (as yet in the category of the untried) as love of work, quickness of perception, ability to plan, ability to observe, power to record, ability to discriminate, power to invent, originality of procedure, and independence and initiative must become the major plan of the child's education, and with such power, the book information and much more will become his by his own directed will. Successful accomplishment along these lines only should be the test of the child's ability and should, moreover, be the only factor considered for promotion, or for duration in school.

At present the free action of a conscientious teacher is blocked by dogma, outlines, schedules, and examinations. A man or woman of insight and discernment noting certain characteristics of an individual must avoid their development if such a course does not fall within the prescribed outline. The opportunity is lost and the precious element of greater possibilities, even of greatness, is forever lost. There are many, many such flames seeking expression and recognition which are snuffed out by so-called education. Some teachers, of course, break the rules and recognize the pupils.

The frightful waste indicated by the fact that from 80 to 95 per cent of the pupils entering the primary grades never graduate from the high school clearly shows that at present our schools are not adapted to the needs of the individual.

What is true of education in general is true also of special subjects. For many years the art and manual-training teachers have been so eager in their efforts to present a series of studies in various mediums and tool processes, looking toward a development of unapplied knowledge, that they have completely lost sight of the pupil.

Turning back but a few years in the history of our art and manual education, we find lessons, exercises, and outlines seeking to fulfil the requirements of a course of study based upon a series of models. Borders, historic ornament, perspective and object-drawing, planed blocks of wood, joints, sleeve boards, and coat-hangers have been given to all with utter disregard for the character of the community or the individual. New things had been introduced because someone had offered them with some degree of success. But the new things were adopted bodily and transplanted without regard for the new conditions.

The common procedure of the community or the individual is first to do the thing which someone else did, in just the same way. And, in turn, when that community or individual discovers or evolves a new thing, the same tendency leads others to copy both the idea and its operation. Thus you may find in Ohio a strictly New England town, but lacking the New England environment; so we brought sloyd from Naas and established it in a foreign soil without consideration for a different people; and so we find in the art field so many institutions which are stamped "Teachers College," "Art Institute," or "School of Fine Arts."

The wise physician never prescribes without first understanding the condition of the patient. But our earnest supervisor will offer wherever she lands, the same story she learned at school. I recall vividly the answer returned to me when I questioned the advisability of offering a certain kind of work in a certain way to a normal high school. "But how can one do otherwise," the teacher answered, with a tone of finality, "after having studied with Mrs. Green?" Here, she implied, was the panacea for all pupils wherever they may be, for that was what Mrs. Green and the school taught.

For many years art education in the state of New York had been first introduced to the pupils in just this way. State syllabuses in drawing for elementary and secondary schools were published at intervals of five years. Based upon these outlines, state examination papers were issued twice a year, and the suffering individual, no matter what the ache or pain, was tested, not on his native abilities but on his knowledge of the syllabus as interpreted by his teacher. When great numbers gave the same answer in the same way, the syllabus was acclaimed a success. When individuals showed real intelligence and treated the question in a distinctive way, they were failed and were given the prescribed dose for another term.

Continued results under this wholesale treatment failed to record progress. Changes made in the syllabuses introduced new problems added in exactly the same way that outside supervisors were teaching them. This brought even more retarded progress, for it meant more information to remember in order to pass the dreaded test.

It was imperative that steps should be taken to relieve the situation. Why, in the first place, should a school in an industrial community be com-

pelled to pass the same examination as a school in a farming district? Here was the crux of the whole problem. No differentiation of work had been permitted to suit the communities' needs.

The situation just cited is, no doubt, peculiar to the Empire State, but it is indicative of what happens in cities themselves where there are many grade schools and two or more high schools. Too often allowance is not made for each school's environment and its own peculiar conditions. The same set of problems will never do in our cosmopolitan municipalities. The Polish district presents very different conditions from the Hebrew, the Italian, the Negro, and the Yankee districts. As the conditions are different, so the demands for art training are correspondingly different, and every effort should be made to meet these demands.

Reference again to the state of New York may serve as an illustration in point. To alleviate the plight in which art education found itself it was necessary to take heroic measures. The number of examinations was therefore reduced from nine to three. Schools were now permitted to offer advanced courses to suit their local needs, subject to state approval. Each of the one thousand or more high schools might offer any one of a number of courses according to the demand of the community, and the facilities for handling the subjects. The syllabus was again revised and the so-called elementary design in the high school was grouped under four centers; the commercial center, the industrial center, the home center, and the personal center. Thus a school had a much wider latitude in which to work, and might adapt its art-teaching to an apparent need.

This solution of a state's problem where state credits are earned is again similar to the cities' problem where the school credit only is required. Differentiated courses for the different schools in a city is no less essential than differentiated courses for the schools of a state. In two years marked progress in the state work is apparent. In place of nine different courses, including mechanical drawing, previously offered, there are now twenty-six different courses, including such subjects as charcoal drawing, water-color painting, sketching, costume design, metal and jewelry design, landscape design, ceramics, bookbinding, history of art, etc., with practical applications in the different mediums.

What is true with regard to art education in states and cities is no less true with regard to schools and pupils. The individual pupils have their own environments, and more, they are growing personalities with distinctive characteristics and with native abilities. How much more imperative it is, then, that we should differentiate their training to suit their special needs.

The present system is like that old state syllabus. All pupils get the same thing tapt off with the same test. One may go into almost any school-room and find, if it be the month for that work, forty pumpkin borders from forty different children, each border having the same number of silhouette

pumpkins drawn, the same size, in the same way, upon panels of the same kind of paper; and each paper measuring exactly three by nine inches. Next week, of course, we may find autumn leaves or black cats, but the sameness is there. Some teachers, it is true, can make drudgery a delight, which often saves the child. But that outline must be followed, at any cost, and in spite of what the youngsters actually need. One may say that the picture is overdrawn, but an analysis of the course of study itself will show how the individual is left out. The average outline for the elementary grades is divided for each year, into the same number of parts, under similar heads. It is a four ring circus. Simultaneously in each grade there is the fall nature-drawing, then the holiday construction, followed by the winter illustration and object-drawing, and ending in spring nature and design. Each autumn Tommy is brought back to his fall nature with a surprised jolt. Where had he seen these things before! Years ago, surely. It is so with each of the other topics. There is no continuity of work. Between each jolt it is one long, long intermission. Meantime, if Tommy shows ability in construction, even originality, his enthusiasm is quenched when the outline demands that he play in the next ring. Is it little wonder that some Tommies rebel, that they are real terrors, and that others are called dull?

Every art teacher has the opportunity for making some individual great. Differentiation in the training is all that is required. To accomplish this, every art course should be elastic. Principles and elements of beauty will remain the same, but the outlet for their expression may vary with the individual. It is necessary, then, that a teacher be familiar with many mediums and their applications. Pupils should be studied, and their native characteristics encouraged.

In the grades a departmental teacher should foster the early tendencies of the individual. As he progresses, one of two courses should be pursued: if he shows technical ability, this side should receive emphasis; if he lacks special talent, a good eye- and hand-training should be followed by emphasis on the side of appreciation.

The talented one should be carefully watched for creative tendencies. Is his interest in drawing, designing, painting, modeling, or other constructive work? Again his special aptitudes and interests should be encouraged, without neglect, of course, to proper execution, and as he proceeds full sway should be allowed his greatest gift. His high-school course thus becomes prevocational, and he is readily able to choose his future course in the normal or professional art school.

I realize that there are physical drawbacks to these ideal statements, not the least of which is the problem of the large class. But schools are not factories (or they should not be) and factory methods should not predominate. It is by striving for the ideal that we approach it. And differentiated art training to suit the individual pupil's needs is an ideal to be striven for.

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—EDWARD RYNEARSON, principal, Fifth Avenue High School Pittsburgh, Pa.

Vice-President—EMMA J. BRECK, head of English department, The University School,
Oakland, Cal.

Secretary—WALTER J. BEGGS, teacher of Latin, Johnson High School St. Paul, Minn.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The meeting was called to order in the auditorium of the Washington Irving High School at 9:30 A.M. by President Edward Ryneerson.

The following program was presented:

"Socialization of the High School"—Edward Ryneerson, principal, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Making the High School Democratic"—Thomas W. Churchill, former president, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Our Old Friend, the Examination"—William McAndrew, associate superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

Discussion: John C. Hildt, associate professor of history, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; W. D. Lewis, principal, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.; Charles F. Wheelock, assistant commissioner for secondary education, Albany, N.Y.

"What High-School Subjects Are of Most Worth?"—Cheesman A. Herrick, president, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

A Summary of the Program—J. Stanley Brown, superintendent, Township High School, Joliet, Ill.

The president appointed the following Committee on Nominations:

Milo H. Stewart, principal, Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

Sophia Ellis, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

C. P. Briggs, principal of High School, Rockford, Ill.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Library Department, Emma J. Breck, vice-president, presiding.

The following program was presented:

"The Library in the Modern High School"—William M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Need for an Aggressive Campaign for Better High-School Libraries"—Charles Hughes Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

"The Relation of the High-School Library to Vocational and Technical Courses"—Walter D. Hood, principal, The Gilbert School, Winsted, Conn.

"Library Administration"—Mary Sullivan, department of English, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Following the program, in five-minute talks, it was explained "How Teachers Use the Library in Different Departments and Its Value in Their Work":

"English"—James F. Hosis, secretary, National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"German"—Lydia M. Schmidt, German department, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

"French"—William L. Milwetzky, French department, Barringer High School, Newark, N.J.

"Commercial Subjects"—Arthur M. Wolfson, principal, Julia Richman High School, New York, N.Y.

C. C. Certain, chairman, Committee on Problems of High-School Libraries, presented the report of the committee, following which the department placed itself on record as indorsing:

1. Larger and better-equipt library reading-rooms within high school.
2. A better selection of books.
3. Annual and adequate appropriations for maintenance.
4. Trained librarians in charge of high-school libraries.
5. Libraries kept open all the school day.

C. C. Certain presented his resignation as chairman and Charles Hughes Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., was appointed chairman for the ensuing year.

THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The department met in joint session with the National Council of Teachers of English, President Rynearson presiding.

The following program was presented:

Topic: The Report of the Committee of Thirty on the Reorganization of High-School English

"The Purpose, Scope, and Main Features of the Report"—James F. Hosc, head of the department of English, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"Literature in the Junior and Senior High School"—Emma J. Breck, head of the department of English, University High School, Oakland, Cal.

"Composition in the Junior and Senior High School"—Benjamin A. Heydrick, head of the department of English, High School of Commerce, New York, N.Y.

A brief summary of the forthcoming report is printed. The papers read will appear in the full report.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by President Rynearson, who appointed M. R. McDaniel, principal, Oak Park Township High School, Oak Park, Ill., secretary.

The following program was presented:

"Report from Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education"—Clarence D. Kingsley, state high-school inspector, Boston, Mass., chairman.

"High-School Administration in Its Relation to Vocational Education"—M. H. Stuart, principal, Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

"The Reorganized High School"—John M. Mills, superintendent of schools, Ogden, Utah.

"Military Training in the High School: Why and How?"—W. S. Small, principal, Eastern High School, Washington, D.C.

Mr. Kingsley's report was in the form of a statement concerning the "Main Objectives of Secondary Education" and will appear in the report of the Commission on Secondary Education.

The Committee on Nominations recommended the following officers and they were unanimously elected:

President—Emma J. Breck, head of English Department, University High School, Oakland, Cal.

Vice-President—M. R. McDaniel, principal, Oak Park Township High School, Oak Park, Ill.

Secretary—Jeanette Taylor, teacher, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

WALTER J. BEGGS, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

SOCIALIZATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

EDWARD RYNEARSON, PRINCIPAL, FIFTH AVENUE HIGH SCHOOL,
PITTSBURGH, PA.

By this subject I mean adjusting the high school to the needs of society and of the community; making the subjects of a high-school course such as open a direct approach to life. I do not mean by the term that the high schools should be cocoons and bee cells from which will emerge the butterflies and drones of society. Schools have arisen because of the needs of society. This is true, not only of public schools, but also of our commercial colleges (so called), special schools, and technical and classical colleges. The Latin-grammar school, which prepared for college in an age when Latin was the language in which many nations recorded their legal, scientific, theological, and literary contributions, past out of existence because laws and treatises are no longer written in Latin; the academy, which was a finishing school for boys and which offered a wider range of subjects than the Latin-grammar school, either merged into free public high schools or became distinguished as schools preparatory for colleges.

The public high school came into existence because there was a need for education in addition to that offered in the elementary school. The Latin-grammar school was not free, its curriculum was not practical, and it did not articulate closely with the elementary schools. The academy was controlled by a corporation and was expensive. In 1870 there were only 160 free high schools in this country; ten years ago there were 8000; today there are more than 14,000. Does not this indicate clearly that the public high school is an institution arising out of the increasing needs of society?

The high school is supported by the taxes of the whole people; it educates the children of the whole people; it must therefore provide for an adequate and proper education of the children of the whole people—of those who enter the industrial pursuits as well as of those who enter the so-called learned professions.

To arouse and develop the worthy potentialities of each pupil until he becomes an actuality is one of the problems of the high school that has only recently received its share of attention from educators. The elementary school has been more or less successful in making the three R's more practical, and in adding some subjects that will connect with the home or with industrial pursuits, such as domestic science, art, manual training, etc. Colleges and technical schools have specialized to meet the needs of men and women. After the readjustment below and above the high school, the secondary-school problems have come upon us like an avalanche.

Industrial and financial conditions have changed greatly; professional requirements have increased many fold; society interests and relations are becoming more and more complex and exacting; the government, which formerly protected the individual in the exercise of his legal rights, has changed its function to protecting him in the exercise of his human rights. With these rapidly changing conditions on every side, can we satisfy our consciences by offering courses of study suitable to mediaeval times?

When you consider that the adolescent period is the time when the men-to-be are trying out their different powers, forming their habits of thinking and doing and assuming their attitudes toward social, political, ethical, and religious questions, you will agree with Wellington and Gladstone that the high school is the strategic stronghold in the endeavor to make efficient men and women. Every student of secondary education who appreciates his opportunity for contributing his mite toward making the high school fulfil its great mission can hear the words of Mordecai to Esther, "Who knoweth whether thou art come to the kingdom for such a time as this?"

The high school must not neglect the 5 per cent who are preparing for college, as those furnish a high percentage of the leaders of the "masses" in public and private life. On the other hand, we must not forget that the educational standard of the community or state in a democracy is based upon mass-education, and not upon class-education, as is found in a monarchy. The stability of a republic rests on the level of the morality and intelligence of all its people.

The colleges should soon recognize that they have a duty to society as well as to the individual. They should appreciate that the requirements for admission to college are no higher than those for citizenship in the best sense; that is, when it is possible for a boy to choose from the high-school course those subjects which will enable him to do a man's work in the shop or store, and thereby be incapacitated for admission to college, there is something radically wrong with the college-entrance requirements. The college owes recognition and inspiration to the high schools that seek to serve community needs. Davis says:

If mental discipline be the desideratum for admission to college, may not subject-matter that has a rich content for practical life also be made to furnish as desirable and as satisfactory mental discipline as do the traditional subjects, the social utilities of which have been largely lost?

The course of study has always been, and will always be, the battle ground in every progressive school. What subjects shall be required, what kind of electives and how many shall be offered, and how they shall be selected are some of the many questions that are ever present. That the course of study must be changed to meet changing conditions is evident to everyone who in this day of electric light has discarded the tallow candle. What a high school should offer depends on so many factors that

its place in the great system of education is constantly in process of evolution. Hence no program of studies in time, nor in character, can be fixt with any degree of permanency. Certain subjects include, according to Bagley, "the priceless elements of the heritage of race experience." These should be found in every course of study because they afford a community of ideas that are necessary in a democracy.

Stout, in the preface of his recent book, says:

Reorganization is demanded and it should result in both progress and stability. Traditions should not be allowed to stand in the way of necessary readjustments, nor should the glamour of things new lead us to engage in hasty and ill-advised experiments.

The course of study should assist a great majority of pupils in self-discovery. This is the great advantage of the cosmopolitan high school. Frequently some pupil's course is changed during the semester, and at the end many changes are made. Some time ago the teacher of mechanical drawing and shop work told me that one of the boys would waste his time if he continued to prepare for engineering. The boy is now taking another course and is doing good work. Two girls who failed to get shorthand after trying it twice were transferred to another course. All the senses, seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, and feeling, must be developpt to the capacity of each. Memory-training only does not develop the whole child. As Dr. Eliot has recently pointed out:

Mental action and reaction is strongest when eyes, ears, and hands, and the whole nervous system, the memory, and the discriminating judgment are at work together. The changes which ought to be made immediately in the programs of American secondary schools, in order to correct the glaring deficiencies of the present programs, are chiefly: the introduction of more hand, ear, and eye work—such as drawing, carpentry, turning, music, sewing, and cooking, and the giving of much more time to the sciences of observation—chemistry, physics, biology, and geography—not political, but geographical and ethnographical geography.

The curricula should be planned for the whole boy and girl and should be taught by all-round, vitalized, and vitalizing teachers. The subject offered to each pupil should "provide two sorts of education—one to fit him to work, and the other to fit him to live." When the pupil has completed his course, his certificate should give prominence to the physical attainments as well as to the intellectual. Hence, the course must be well balanst. "The body is not one member, but many. The eye cannot say unto the hand, I have no need of thee; nor again the head to the feet, I have no need of you. Nay, much more those members of the body which seem to be more feeble, are necessary." Doesn't this sound as tho Paul would have approved liberal and vocational education, if he were writing to the Corinthians today?

The curricula for the early years of the high school which, according to the six-six plan are the seventh and eighth grades, should not only contain the worthy traditional subjects, but should also offer subjects that appeal

to the motor and constructive interests and powers of the pupils, and that may be more or less vocational in character. The course should be flexible enough to meet the reasonable choices of the pupils and yet this flexibility should not lead to "elective chaos," since immature pupils may confuse liberty and license. One valid objection to elective studies is that pupils in our high schools specialize too early or scatter their efforts by picking out the easy subjects or the lenient teachers. Most pupils are not qualified to select the best curricula.

The wise school administrator recognizes the great changes that are taking place in the industrial and business world, and stresses the education that has developed many of the higher nerve centers and organized many groups of ideas which will enable the man to adapt himself to changing conditions. One great objection to over-specialization before seventeen years of age is that only a few of the nerve centers are called into action; the pupil is trained or skilled for so few operations that when changes come in the factory or business he loses his position because he has no power of adapting himself. Dean Leete, of the Carnegie Institute of Technology, said in faculty meeting: "You can't build an intensive knowledge of one thing upon extensive ignorance of all things."

The cosmopolitan high school may be the great melting-pot of our cities. To segregate those who are going to college from those who are preparing for the industrial or commercial life may engender snobbishness and may lead to social division on a false basis of education or vocation. We should not transplant the stratified society of Europe into democratic United States. Pupils of high-school age should develop sympathy and respect for phases and conditions of life other than their own. This is more easily accomplished where all classes meet on a common basis in the recitation rooms and on the playground. The tolerance of the viewpoints of the college preparatory and industrial pupils on the part of the commercial pupil better prepares him to enter the business world where he must respect the views of his various patrons. The cosmopolitan high school has greater possibilities of generating power that will make for higher manhood than has the special school.

All the so-called outside activities of the high school, when properly guided and guarded, are tributaries to the great, broad current of culture and knowledge. These activities should be made the basis of organizations where the relations of the individual to society and of society to the individual may be learned at first hand. These organizations should be self-directed as far as the pupil is concerned, but at the same time guided by the wise teacher both to control any individual who may be a menace to the organization and to give such aid as may be given by a master hand.

The social needs of the high-school pupil are so important that they should be included, not only in the subject-matter of the studies and in the selection of teachers for the course, but also in the plans of the schoolhouse.

While the social life of the school may not be concerned primarily with evening parties in the school building or elsewhere, yet these will not be ignored by those teachers and principals who appreciate the tremendous dynamic force of the social impulses of the high-school boy and girl. Neglected, the social life may ruin body and soul; controlled and guided, its possibilities for the good of the individual and the community are immeasurable. This means that the social life is only a part of the school and that it must never detract from the serious business of study.

The hours outside of school, the leisure of men and women, demand more than passing notice. To assume a negative attitude on the question of one's avocation is often to destroy one's efficiency in his vocation. To shorten the hours of labor without enriching the life of the laborer is to give him more hours in which to lower his vitality and morals. The hours of leisure cause more criminals and loafers than do the hours of labor. Shall the hours of leisure promote enlightenment, culture, and progress, or promote degeneracy, depravity, and decay? The one encourages the beautiful in music, art, and literature; the other seeks satisfaction in prize fights and the common vices. The cultural subjects become extremely utilitarian for the leisure hours. The great need in our changing social life is an equipment for the right use of leisure.

Social activities are recognized factors in character-development. Character is to the individual what muscle is to the athlete. Neither is made by lectures or sermonettes. They are made by action, by struggle. As teachers and administrators we must plan activities that will develop and strengthen the character as well as the body.

Should the high school be socialized? Yes; schools that trained only for individual ends have long since failed and have been succeeded by schools that educate the individual for social service. Conditions and customs have changed and the schools must change their methods and equipment so that their pupils will be able to do their work. The adolescent must be taken as he is and not as we wish him to be. To meet the new obligations, some reorganization may be necessary; many of our courses of study and textbooks must be rewritten in order that the needs and capacities of the largest number of pupils may be met. Cooperative courses will assist many boys and girls to find themselves. The school must widen its field and provide for the entire child by requiring, if necessary, that all pupils take some industrial work thruout the course; each building must be provided with a library, clubrooms, dancing rooms, a gymnasium, a dining-room, an assembly room, etc., and should be open thruout the afternoon and evening to serve as a clubhouse and recreation center (under proper arrangements and supervision) for the students and their friends. The wider use of the school plant for evening classes has made many enthusiastic friends for the high school, and caused them to realize that the high school as an institution is trying to meet the needs of the entire community. Teachers training

schools and colleges must give more practical work in these broader fields. The teachers in our high schools must realize that the social and moral welfare of each pupil largely depends upon their attitude and activity; that they must look beyond the daily or yearly work and get a new vision of the responsibility of high-school teachers in training their pupils to be useful members of society with all that that implies; and that they should cooperate freely and steadily with one another and with the teachers of the elementary schools.

MAKING THE HIGH SCHOOL DEMOCRATIC

THOMAS W. CHURCHILL, FORMER PRESIDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

Mr. Taft, in a speech in New Jersey last month, voiced a fear that the high schools may dominate the universities. Many worse things than that might happen. When one considers the very long subservience of this part of our educational service to ideas fostered in select and antiquated foundations proudly remote from public responsibility and control, the injection of an independent or even of a dominating influence into the relation is hardly disconcerting to anyone other than those dependent upon the universities for life and sustenance. If control is to be settled by majorities, the high schools have some claim both in the number of institutions and in the multitudes they serve. If control is to be settled by excellence of service, there will be found those who believe it can be established; that in methods of discipline and teaching the high schools are today less subject to the drag of repudiated tradition than those institutions which claim a higher rank. That so eminent an observer should find a danger in the course the influence of our high schools is taking signifies the extent of change that they are undergoing.

Education has so often, in speech and pamphlet during modern times, been linked with democracy that it is easy to forget how very recent such association is. The nations of antiquity perfected their special kind of education to a point that perhaps present efforts have not surpassed; but it was a training of the elect. The rank and file of mankind were as remote from it as the toilers of China are from the taste of meat. Books were chained to altars. Fortunate possessors of leisure were intrusted with the power to read them. "Scholar" was a word to be associated with the rare and exclusive title of "gentleman." Along came Gutenberg and made the book so cheap that the crofter's cottage can possess a library. French encyclopedists spread the astounding doctrine of the rights of the common man. Equality, freedom, humanity, enter into thinking, discussion, and belief. They blossom into fruitage on this western soil; a nation springs into existence with these ideas as watchwords. From the lips of Franklin,

Washington, and Jefferson come a succession of positive and practical formulations of the new thought, establishing the fact that free and universal education is a fundamental principle of democratic government. This is revolution, so pronounst as to declare that the star-and-garter shall be worn by every farmer, and that every humble digger and ditcher shall be known as "Sir."

One cannot say that the possessors of education have been completely and enthusiastically successful in the realization of this ideal. Within the sound of my voice are those who can recall when education was considered by the schoolmaster as a privilege to be withdrawn from the lazy or the disrespectful; when suspension and expulsion were common weapons to enforce what the managers of schools were pleased to require. The higher one rises in the system, or the deeper one goes into college and university theory, the greater persistence of old education's exclusive prerogative he finds, whether it be distinctive dress, secret coteries, or selective methods of excluding applicants from the privilege of an education.

Whether because they are nearer to the universities and have been dominated by them, or because in numbers they are fewer than the elementary schools, and humanly desire to preserve that distinction, it is certain that the high schools of America have not, until the last very few years, extensively and enthusiastically endeavored to extend universal free education. It is to them that we have owed up to recent times on this side of the ocean the perpetuation of ideas which our American Revolution sought to overturn. One of these ideas related to caste. Ten years ago the high-school man declared his function to be the training of leaders. Thus have all aristocracies justified their existence. Now the high-school man asks, "Who selected me to train leaders? No one. Who is to train the rank and file? Let me, the high-school man." Ten years ago the high school would maintain a netting at its door thru which only the finer grade of humanity might sift. Now, as I read in the latest book upon the high school—Professor Parker's survey of the purposes of secondary education—the hope and prayer of the schoolman is that he may be able to serve all the youth of his neighborhood, bright, dull, college-seekers, coming mechanics, lawyers, laborers, all the children of all the people, old enough for high school, whether fit or not. The revolution is here, delayed a hundred and forty years after the epochal date of seventy-six's great July. But here it comes, a rolling tide, surging eastward from Los Angeles to Boise, southward from Newton and Iron Mountain. For years we heard the mission of the high school formulated by its chief pensioners, the teachers, exprest as an appointment to maintain a high standard of scholarship for those who could achieve it. But only recently I heard the following observation from a high-school man: "Our mission is not scholarship but service, not books but boys, not culture but citizens, and, in America, always was, tho we who should have known it best were ignorant of it.

No city collects its taxes and supports us for the care of anything but its children. We are no skimmers of the community's cream but the care-takers of the youth. We are not perpetuators of a classic culture and no one hires us to be, but we are in the business of helping boys to grow to men, girls to women, all able and disposed to advance the general good."

In New York City within ten years high-school enrolment has jumped from 30,000 to 80,000. Shall this increase be discouraged lest money be wasted upon children diagnosed in advance as mentally unequipt to shine in scholarship and leadership, or shall such increase be encouraged and provided for on the ground that every child is entitled to "keep traveling" on toward power to use his resources and the world's resources? New York City has answered this question for high-school democracy and against high-school aristocracy. As a public asset this city counts the desire of the young to go on to high school, even if the child is unable to finish the course.

Consider the activities for pupils and for the whole community within this very building, the Washington Irving High School; exhibits from the zoölogical gardens and the museum of art; public entertainments; neighborhood gatherings for discussion of public questions; courses in library work, designing, home-making, including care of babies, and domestic science in its many forms, all ranking with Latin, or German, or physics, all in the only aristocracy that the high school recognizes—the aristocracy of desire to grow, the aristocracy of effort and of service.

In other high schools boys and girls are giving half-time to education in shops and stores and half-time to continuation of that education in high schools. Something is happening which is making it progressively difficult to tell from conversing with young men and young women whether they have graduated from college or whether they are only high-school graduates already endowed with the vision and determination that formerly characterized college products only.

This high-school awakening to a larger duty is an inspiring event of our day. To change from the conception of conservers of culture to the ideal of a common public service is to broaden the view in the direction in which the Fathers lookt when they predicated a newer, finer race on this virgin soil. The high school, suckled by a mother all of whose antecedents claimed nobility, exclusiveness, and selection, has grown up. Like another Lafayette, it has thrown away its mummeries and baubles to ally itself with the new humanity. This means an end to a dishonesty which would accept bounty from many while serving a few. It means an end to an isolation which widened the unnatural breach between the education of a boy of thirteen and of the same boy's education at fourteen. It means a truer fraternity among teachers as our secondary instructors discover that they are part of the public-school system.

Inspired by such desires as these, the high schools' domination of the university is a situation not to be feared but greatly to be desired. Who

touches more closely the homes of the nation? The high school or the college? Who is more truly cognizant of the needs of his city or town? The public-school teacher or the college professor? Your faces have been turned too long toward the peaceful elm-lined campus of the abode of a chosen few. Direct your minds and hearts to the back streets and the factories of your own town. Go out like consecrated missionaries and minister to the ignorant and uninformed who are called to meet the problems of an adult with the meager training of a child.

If in you—the awaking defenders of a basic principle of American belief—there remains a trace of the old selfish, snobbish high-school desire to draw the highest public-school pay and to perform the cleanest, easiest highest-toned office, expel it; exorcise it; put it away. The world has little need of you. But if with eyes opened and hearts expanded you see that high school is nothing and young men and women are everything; that fitness for high school is artificial and fitness of high school is imperative; that high standards of scholarship which drive children out are criminal, and high standards of the number of children secured and educated for work in the world are glorious, then we want you with all the fervor of the hart panting for the cooling streams. Speed your changing views. Continue to find service greater than subjects, boys than books, girls than grammar, and take the place a hundred years ago prepared for you, that of pastors of the people, preparers of patriotism, *parentes publici puerorum puellarumque*.

OUR OLD FRIEND, THE EXAMINATION

WILLIAM McANDREW, ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF
SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Within the time of most of those here present there died in Port Huron, Mich., a lady whose test of the ability of one of her school children years before reached a conclusion wide of the mark. She sent for the mother of one of her boys and said to her, "There is no use sending Tommy to school. He ain't right; he can't learn anything; he hasn't got the apparatus." Hence Thomas A. Edison, having invariably failed in his examinations, never went to public school after that. In mature life, when he was questioned in litigation by expert examiners, lawyers, both on his own side and on the opposition, every idea went out of his head and left him a failure. Booker T. Washington made the statement many times that he never succeeded in passing an examination. Charles W. Eliot declared that, while president of that university, he could not pass the Harvard-entrance examinations. Henry Ward Beecher stood sixty-fourth in an examination in grammar. The boy who rankt first grew up to be a barber in Atlanta, Ga. Herbert Spencer said in reviewing his long life: "I never could pass any prescribed

examinations. They are fundamentally vicious. They encourage submissive receptivity instead of independent action." Pliny tells how Diodorus, unable to answer an examination question, suffered such extreme distress that he died upon the spot. Each of these persons stood preeminent in his sphere.

The Japanese government, after sending many boys to be educated in foreign institutions, decided to ask for an examination by which they could select the youth of promise who were worth the expense of this training. Inquiry was sent to each university which had received the young Japanese. "What examination can we give our youth so as to select those of greatest promise for future service?" All the universities but one returned replies to the effect that they did not know of any such examination. One university, with characteristic German system, appointed a committee of the faculty to investigate and make a report. They sent to the library for all the biographies of eminent men. In each volume they turned back to the man's school days. When they made their report they said: "The one most prevalent characteristic of men of mark in their school days is that they couldn't pass their examinations."

What do these examples lead us to conclude? The corrective superintendent will say that from these instances we may learn that the teachers of Edison, Booker T. Washington, Eliot, Beecher, Spencer, Diodorus, and of the eminent men studied by the German faculty should have taught them better how to pass examinations.

Most of the examination arguments are efforts to prove that several benefits arise from the examination:

1. The examination is a test of the student's ability; it is therefore the proper basis for ratings, for promotion, and for graduation. Let us see how this works out. I heard a teacher giving a lesson upon the reasons for the location and prosperity of cities. It seemed to me obscure, confused, and lacking in sufficient illustration. When she had finished, I examined the class. I rated the pupils. The average was 16 per cent—a very poor result—a failure. To hold them responsible was to put the shoe on the wrong foot. The other day I heard a teacher berating a class because, on her written examination, not one had passed. Her mind was twisted. She needed a looking-glass. And when the examination is set by outside parties they do not know what the teacher has done. If you say they should know what the teacher should have taught, we shall agree, but you will not say that a child who knows what the teacher has taught him should be held back because he cannot write what the teacher should have taught him but did not. Herein is the main cause of failures of pupils in the written examinations for promotion. It is this that leads Dean Russell, of Teachers College, Columbia University, to say that outside examinations should not be used for promotion. It is this that impels James Seth, of Cornell, to conclude that outside examinations are almost an unmitigated evil.

John C. Shaw quotes the opinion of teachers of Germany. "They are almost universally against the practice of using the state examinations to determine promotion or graduation. It is a waste." Dr. Gunnison, of our Erasmus Hall High School, calls the use of the outside examination for this purpose:

A relic of educational barbarism; a handy means for the principal or teacher to avoid responsibility of expressing the judgment which a long familiarity with the boy should give. It is a gambling scheme. Desire to learn and willingness to work should determine promotion. The examination does not test these qualities at all.

I took the examination records of ninety pupils writing for entrance to a private high school and divided them into ten groups according to standing. Also at the end of the first year and each succeeding year I divided them into groups according to their standings in school. I drew lines from each name in the column graded according to examination records, the line running to the same name in the first year where the grouping was according to school work, then to the same name in the second-, third-, and fourth-year columns. Theoretically the lines should have run horizontally across, or with very slight elevation or depression. Actually they did no such thing. Lowest-group pupils rose to highest group or to next to highest. Highest fell to medium or low. The entrance-examination test was not worth the labor it had cost to mark the papers. Elliot and Thorndike have done the same thing with the examination and class records of college students. The examination admits failures and excludes successes. As a test for promotion or graduation it is too unreliable to command respect.

We have state examinations in New York high schools. The highest state authorities have expressed the view that "success in these examinations shall not be necessary for promotion nor graduation." But the New York City high schools use them in deciding graduation and promotion to the training school for teachers. We have every year good students whom their teachers have complimented regularly, but who fail of graduation because of a three hours' test which nullifies the work of four years. That seems to me very absurd. I cannot see how a pupil writing for three hours can be tested for what has been done for a year or more mostly in other ways than in writing. It seems to me a serious injustice to punish a student for the school system's own fault. We have teachers who cannot bring a large majority of their classes to the point of passing one of these examinations. To punish pupils for this failure is a practice that is as absurd as it is cruel. Hence from all these considerations I conclude that the use of outside examinations to determine the fitness of the pupil is dishonest, unfair, immoral, and wicked.

2. *The examination is a test of effective teaching.* This is the view of the New York State Department of Education. The official circular declares, "The examinations are to test the schools rather than the pupils." The first assistant commissioner in his document listing important educational

reforms says, "The examinations are not to decide promotion and graduation, but to test the efficiency of the teaching force." Here is a point on which the doctors differ. Professor Seth, of Cornell, says, "Unless the teacher is the examiner, his teaching is ruined by the examination." President Hadley's view seems to be the same, for he says, "The cramming process brings the best results in examination." From this it follows that the class showing the best results in examination is the class for which the cramming process has been substituted for good teaching.

As opposed to the theory stated above, we read in the life of Thring: "The examiner is death to original teaching. There is no dead hand so dead as this power thrust in from the outside. Where examinations reign, new methods are impossible." Clyde Furst, secretary of the Carnegie Foundation, says that an extended study shows that answer papers bear little or no relation to whether the teaching has been good or bad. The Hanus Commission, which surveyed our schools, reported that it could find no proof that the written examinations test achievement of the schools nor of the teachers.

You can determine that for yourselves by working out the standings of our various New York schools in the state examinations. Taking DeWitt Clinton High School, for instance, you find in January 42 per cent failing in English grammar, and six months later only 10 per cent failing, with the same course and the same teachers. It goes from a place lower than Manual, Wadleigh, Erasmus, and Boys' to a place above them, while in algebra it goes from a place near the top with 5 per cent failure to the bottom of the list with 30 per cent failure—all in six months. You will see the Washington Irving High School in French in the highest group in February going to the foot of the list in June. In English grammar you observe that the Washington Irving High School heads the list with no failure and conclude that in mastery of English from this knowledge of its laws the school is a good school; but turn to the results of the examinations for the four years' English taken by the same pupils taught by the same teachers and you'll find that this is a poor school, for 66 per cent of the pupils failed. In Stuyvesant the same startling variation occurs, only verest.

3. The examination is a stimulus to industry, exact learning, attention to essentials, abandonment of erratic tendencies. It promotes mental virility and is the most potent influence in maintaining a high standard of scholarship in our secondary schools. The great majority of teachers and students work better because of them. All this argument was for centuries used to strengthen the abundant use of the rod in the schools. Objections that have been raised to this use of the examination are that it supplants what many regard as higher incentives to training. It is easy for a lazy and inefficient teacher to rely upon the examination to hold children to their tasks. In our New York schools it accumulates the effort un-

healthily toward the close of terms. We have intense periods of review classes after school and on Saturdays. We have quiz clubs meeting in the students' homes until late hours of the night. We have neglect of unexamined subjects. We have assignment of the strongest teachers to examination classes, thus distributing the load of a school very unevenly, punishing the able teachers and rewarding the less efficient.

Examination means a finding out. So long as any constructive work is done, the human mind requires that the work shall be investigated, scrutinized to see whether it was done or not. With examination as a part of the teaching process we shall have to do so long as we continue in this business. It is to mitigate the damage done to teaching by examinations that such cities as New York need to address themselves. It seems to me that the sane procedure would be first to locate definitely the authority for the examination system, then, if possible, to get from that authority a complete statement of the purposes of it, and then, by the collection of facts and figures, to show which of these purposes can be advantageously secured for the benefit of the children, and which are based on unproved hypotheses and may be dropt. Human reason should be able to establish which is right: Hodge, who calls the examination the backbone of a sound education, or Huxley, who terms it an abomination of educational desolation.

DISCUSSION

JOHN C. HILDT, associate professor of history, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.—The four large colleges for women, Mount Holyoke, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley, have in the past admitted students by means of examinations and by certificate. During the past year the faculties of these colleges have agreed to make a change in their methods of admission. Beginning with 1919 they are going to admit students either by the old familiar piecemeal system of examinations or by a new system of admission which is to take the place of the certificate method.

This new method is not to be taken as a sign of disapproval of the certificate system. It is rather regarded by the faculties of the four colleges as an advance, a step forward in educational progress. This new method of admission is not an examination system, nor a certificate system, but a combination of both. It is similar to that adopted five years ago by Harvard and this year put into operation by Yale and Princeton. The new method seeks to answer the question which faces the college every time a student comes up for admission, "Has the student the requisite scholarship and intellectual power for college work?" We are all aware that this question is not answered by the ability of the student to secure a certificate or pass an examination. We believe that by this new method of admission this question can be answered more effectively because it treats the candidate in a more human, more personal manner.

What, then, is the new method of admission from which these four colleges expect so much? First, let me say that there is no change made in the subjects required for admission by each college. There is no diminution, no increase in the amount of each subject entered for admission. The requirements of entrance to each college are to stand, for the present at least, exactly as they have been before. But the requirements are to be met in a different manner. By the new method of admission, then, the student's ability

to do college work will be judged by a committee of the faculty of the college, according to two kinds of evidence.

1. Evidence submitted by the school. This consists of: (a) A school report covering the entire record of subjects and grades for four years. This is not a certificate, but simply a transcript of the student's record. It is to cover the entire previous four years whether pursued in one school, or two, or more. It is considered desirable that this record should be furnished by the applicant before February 15 of the year in which she purposes to enter college, but this is by no means obligatory. (b) A statement from the school principal which is to include an estimate of the applicant's scholarly interests, special ability, and character. From this statement the committee of admission desires to know something more than what the student has studied and what her grades were. It wants to know something of her personality, her character, her purpose in going to college.

2. When this information has been submitted, the committee of admission of the college concerned decides from it whether the applicant should submit evidence herself of her own fitness for admission. If she be permitted to do so, then she will be allowed to take four competitive examinations, to be selected from each of the four following groups:

a) English or history, selected by the applicant. This does not mean that these two subjects are to be considered equal in amount. It means that for Smith College, for example, the applicant has the choice of an examination in three units of English and one or more units of history:

b) A foreign language, selected by the applicant.

c) Mathematics, chemistry, or physics, selected by the applicant.

d) A fourth subject, designated by the applicant from the subjects which may be offered for admission. This choice must be approved by the committee of admission.

It is here that the great break with the past comes in. These four competitive examinations must be all taken at one time. At least two of them must cover more than two admission units each. In each subject chosen the comprehensive examination covering all the units offered for admission by the candidate must be taken by her.

These comprehensive examination papers are to be made out by the College-Entrance-Examination Board. They will be made out by representatives of the college and the preparatory schools. They will be read and judged by readers appointed by this board. The applicant's name is to be written on the examination book instead of a number. She is to be judged as a personality, as a human being. Instead of giving her examination or test paper a numerical grade, the reader is to be requested to answer the following questions:

Does the candidate show sufficient knowledge of this subject to continue it in college? _____

Does her book suggest a different kind of training from that on which the examination is based? _____ or poor training? _____ or that she has not made full use of her opportunities? _____

Does the book suggest capacity for honor work? _____ or is it merely passable? _____ or failure? _____

What does she do best? _____ Indicate by underlining words in following lists the characteristics of the book:

Neatness, accuracy, correct spelling and punctuation, sense of order and arrangement, reasoning power, memory, ability to apply knowledge.

Slovenly, inaccurate, careless in spelling and punctuation, illogical, poor memory, no ability to reason.

When the comprehensive examinations have been read and judged by the readers, they are to be sent to the committee of admission. From the three kinds of evidence, that is (1) the school record, (2) the estimate of the principal, (3) the judgment of the readers, the committee decides whether the applicant will be admitted to college.

How will the committee of admission act in regard to such evidence submitted to it? It expects to act in as human a manner as possible, and to put away all purely mechanical

and automatic decisions. "Failure to meet completely the standard in both kinds of evidence required will not necessarily involve rejection of the applicant; the committee may accept unusual excellence in one part of the credentials submitted as offsetting unsatisfactory evidence or even failure in another part." The decision of the committee will not depend upon the mechanical fulfilment of certain requirements, nor the ability merely to pass satisfactorily four examinations, but upon the total impression that all the evidence produces. It is entirely conceivable that a student with a good school record might not get permission to take the comprehensive examinations, while a candidate who showed unsatisfactory results in some of the examinations would be admitted.

Under the new method of admission the applicant will be admitted free of all conditions, or will not be admitted at all. If the candidate fails admission in June, she may not take the comprehensive examinations for admission under the new plan before June of the following year, but she may, if she desires, take the examinations under the old system in September. If she passes them, she will be admitted to college.

What are some of the advantages which it is expected that this plan will have? For the student it will give her an opportunity to show what she believes she can best do, not what we want her to do best. It will give her an opportunity to show her ability and power, and not the capacity for cramming. It will give a student a chance to enter college even tho she did not wish to do so until she had started on her last year in the preparatory school. It will enable a bright or capable student from a small preparatory school, which is not in the habit of sending pupils to college, to enter college on the same terms as a pupil coming from a large preparatory school which has made a specialty of preparing pupils for college.

As for the preparatory school, this new method of admission relieves it of a part of the responsibility of determining whether the student is capable of entering college. That responsibility is now to be shared by the pupil herself and by the college; while it affords a relief, which must be welcome to the preparatory school, by substituting a uniform method of administration in place of the various certificate forms now used by the colleges, and by giving the school entire freedom in the sequence of its work in making no requirement of certain subjects in the last years.

As for the colleges, it is believed that this method of admission will still further nationalize their constituencies and give them more capable and better-prepared students.

WHAT HIGH-SCHOOL STUDIES ARE OF MOST WORTH?

CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, PRESIDENT, GIRARD COLLEGE, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Education should be based on social needs and purposes, and as these needs and purposes change, education should be modified. In other words, in a progressive society such as ours a progressive education is a necessity. Rightly considered, schools are only one phase of the life of society. Thus education is not merely the preparation for life; it is life. The spirit or activity of the community should reach the school and work itself out there.

Changes in the purposes of schools have been evident from Colonial times. Our education has been found to be in turn religious, political, and economic, or social. In other words, as the dominant interest in society changes, and as the needs which are placed upon those who go out from the school are modified, we find that the emphasis in the school is changed.

In the earlier period the chief business of the schools was to train men for the service of the church, or to lead a moral life; in the fulness of time there was the appeal to education as a preparation for political life, when the rallying cries were such phrases as, "Education is the safeguard of our institutions," and "Education is the bulwark of the Republic." While not neglecting the moral and the political aspects of education, in recent years we have come to see that it is to serve an economic end as well, and there is agreement that schools, as a fundamental, should train men and women for the work they are to do.

In 1859 Herbert Spencer published an essay under the title "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth," in which he set forth at length, under the head of "How Men Live," that the great purpose of education is to equip for complete living—living not in the material sense alone, but for the all-round fulfilment of the highest purposes of life. Spencer argued that in reaching a conclusion as to what knowledge is of most worth it is necessary to classify in their importance the leading activities of which life is made up. He held that these activities should be grouped under five heads: (1) those which minister directly to the preservation of the individual; (2) those which, thru securing the necessaries of life, contribute indirectly to self-preservation; (3) those which have for their purpose the rearing and training of offspring; (4) those which are involved in the maintenance of necessary social and political relations; and (5) those miscellaneous activities which fill up the leisure of life and are devoted to the cultivation of the tastes and feelings. In a broad way the principles here enunciated were carried into the detailed arguments of Spencer's revolutionary book on *Education*. That book marked the beginning of an emphasis on the importance of recognizing in education the economic necessities for existence in a narrower sense, and those indirect forces which contribute to the maintenance and education of those dependent on the individual. There is also the discharge of the duties which one owes to the society of which he is a part, and finally the larger life which he may live in gratification of proper mental instincts and attributes.

Another English scientist in the year following the first publication of Spencer's essay, Thomas H. Huxley, in a lecture at the South Kensington Museum, said that into the modern world, which was full of artillery, society turned out children to do battle, equipped only with the sword and shield of the ancient gladiator. A little later and in much the same figure Charles Francis Adams criticized the education which was given himself and his classmates by Harvard University, saying that they were sent forth into the world with the arms and equipment of an ancient warfare only, and not prepared to wage the battles required by modern life.

The conception of Huxley seems truer to the purposes of education under modern conditions than was that of Spencer. Spencer argued in regard to what knowledge is of most worth, while Huxley laid the emphasis

on skill, or facility. In one of his essays Huxley offered the hypothesis of what would be our interest in a game of chess if we knew that at some future time our life and happiness and the lives and happiness of those who are near and dear to us would depend on the results of a game of chess, and to give reality to this supposition Huxley drew attention to a gruesome picture in which a man is represented as playing with the devil at a game of chess, the stake of the game being the man's own soul.

A great forward movement in practical education in America was made when, in the Centennial Exposition in 1876, the results of a material civilization were brought together. This new impetus was marked by the introduction of manual training into the schools. Manual training, however, has become largely conventionalized, and as a formal education it has ceased to satisfy the needs of a new society.

The highest ideal which we could set for American education is that schools should train men to enter effectively into the purposes, and discharge the responsibilities, which the present age presents. Of course, we all know that the schools should train for religious life; we are just as firmly convinced that they should train for participation in political activity; but over and above these the school should train the individual so that he may properly provide for himself and discharge his legitimate obligations to those who are dependent on him. We will agree that only the man who is able to provide for himself and discharge his family obligations is prepared to enter the larger field of service to the state and to discharge his obligations to the church. This ideal is not a narrow or profane conception of education. No man can be a good Christian, nor can he be a good citizen, unless he is able adequately to support himself and his family; we have it on the best of authority that he who does not make provision for his own, and especially those of his own house, is worse than an infidel.

In a larger sense high schools should train for an intelligent, economic, and social citizenship. We often speak of commercialism and industrialism as tho they were things for which we should apologize, and with the hope that we may escape from the fancied train of the evils which they are thought to bring. But the truth from which we cannot escape is that commercialism and industrialism are basal necessities in present life and that, whether we will or not, they are with us to stay. The question with which we should be deeply concerned is what kind of industrial and social citizenship we are to have.

The schools should teach every person to believe in his calling, to regard it as a worthy occupation, and to be happy in it. One should feel that in working at his calling he is not only providing for himself and those of his household, but that he is serving his government, and, if he is a good workman, he is laying the foundations for a larger and better life in a religious sense. Upon such ideals as these only can we hope for the stability of institutions and the perpetuity of government. If, when we are engaged

in commercial and industrial occupations, we regard them as things for which we should apologize, find dissatisfaction in following them, wish we were doing something else, and by our actions direct and indirect discredit our callings, then commercialism and industrialism are things of which we should be ashamed. High-school studies of most worth to the future business man and man of affairs are the studies which liberalize, dignify, and exalt the occupation he is to follow.

One of the best results from the introduction of industrial and commercial education is the establishment of what we may call a professional attitude on the part of those who are engaged in these callings. As soon as the man who is in industry or commerce feels that his occupation is less worthy than is the occupation of his professional brother, then he wishes he were otherwise engaged. Education should make clear that all necessary work is honorable, and that the person who discharges fully and faithfully the demands of an economic career is just as much entitled to respect as are the physician, the lawyer, and the clergyman. When our systems of education are constantly emphasizing the importance of the liberal callings and our training is in preparation for these, then, of course, the man who does not enter them may feel that he is not as honorable as is the one who does; but when our education shall recognize the great importance of the practical callings and will train for them efficiently and liberally, then he who enters these occupations will have an entirely different state of mind.

High-school studies of most worth should make vocational education more than bread-and-butter training. Thru this practical form of education there can be given an outlook on the world, higher ideals of living, a sense of obligation to the state, and an all-round development which will make the commercial and industrial man of the future a higher type than is the man who has generally entered on these callings. Thus practical education cannot only serve the industries which in a narrow sense are concerned, but it can effect vitally the welfare of society as a whole. We may feel that our future is safe only when the men in all callings are trained to appreciate the importance of their work and to discharge with credit the responsibilities to which they are called.

Under conditions of modern economic life, which call for a highly skilled vocational education, there has not disappeared the necessity for training to the wise and safe use of leisure. By methods of modern production machines are speeded up, and there is the intensity of labor which gives an increase amount of leisure and an increase need for leisure. The question of how leisure shall be spent is of supreme importance to the individual, and it deeply concerns social welfare. Education, therefore, should not only teach men to work, but to have its largest value it must teach them to find wholesome recreation, and to use their free time for the upbuilding of their lives, else there will be a falling off in the very efficiency which education seeks to promote.

A regrettable condition in our present education is the belief that a given amount of knowledge of a peculiar sort makes one learned. We have largely disregarded an older and more correct notion that education is power. Contrast for a moment our standards with those of Greek education, which produced men of the highest intellectual power—men, some students believe, intellectually as superior to the European and American of the present as the latter are superior to the African negro. Yet Greek education was of marvelous simplicity. The Greeks did not study a foreign language; they had almost nothing of what is termed science, and were limited to reasoning on a few fundamental phenomena of their own life.

We have in the present too much of the quantitative theory of education, and our schools spend their time in dispensing knowledge which is of little use, and becomes mere lumber to the one who gets it. Is it strange when students are stuffed with a certain amount of knowledge, with no other end than to be stuffed, that knowledge should soon go thru their minds as water goes thru a sieve or air thru a screen? One must be struck with the lament of Helen Keller, that after she had begun to be "educated" by our present methods she no longer had time to think. On the other hand, the value of a school or course is not in its students having any brand of knowledge, or passing any set of examinations; it is rather in the temper of mind created, the attitude given toward life, and the future of those educated after they leave school. Just now our communities are passing thru a grave moral crisis, and it is incumbent on our schools to give familiarity with every branch of work in society and to quicken the moral sense as well.

Too narrow a vocational education in high schools is contrary to the ideals of our past and against the wisest provision for our future. One must sympathize with an appeal made by certain parents who recently came before a legislative committee declaring that schools are too narrow and too highly specialized for vocational purposes, in consequence of which their children are being robbed of an education. These parents held that their children were having their time wasted on such tasks as weaving mats and building wobbly hat racks. While such activities are not objectionable as elements in an education, let us never forget that they are only elements.

Any discussion of educational worth must come face to face with the fundamental question of the value of disciplinary education. The traditional and inherited idea of the school as a mental gymnasium in which the pupils were to do exercises, in the doing of which they would develop the power that would be taken out and applied to the task which the world would later demand of them, has been seriously questioned. Many educational leaders are urging that a curriculum should contain nothing because it is recommended by tradition, and that our schools should teach only those subjects which can be shown to have value from considerations of present needs. Tried by this test much of the algebra and geometry, no little of

the foreign languages, and considerable of the traditional English taught in our high schools would probably disappear, and in their place would come more practical aspects of these same subjects, forms of applied science, and an enlarged study of the social sciences.

It surely does not take much discernment to see that secondary education is at present undergoing a reconstruction. New definitions are being made as to purposes and new statements formulated of the methods by which these purposes can be realized. It is easy to foresee that much of the old in our system of secondary education will be retained and employed with new application and a more vital relation to present needs. Newer elements will be introduced as social conditions change. These changes should, it appears to me, be made with the following as a guiding principle: Those high-school studies are of most worth which are worth most to the individual pupil, which will best fit him for meeting the many-sided demands of the life which he is to live.

THE LIBRARY IN THE MODERN HIGH SCHOOL

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[Points Elaborated]

1. The ultimate test of the process of education is its ability to stimulate and sustain the continuation of educational growth.
2. The most potent single agency fostering the spirit of the continuation of educational work is the library.
3. The modern high school is constantly reshaping its processes with a view of adapting the training given to some use.
4. The textbook method of instruction is certainly being supplanted by the many-book method of instruction.
5. While schools are stimulating the pupil's desires for wider study, preparation for the satisfaction of these desires thru training for the use of the facilities at hand in the libraries should be provided.
6. The question should not be one of board of education or board of library-control—but one of cooperation.
7. There should be a librarian on the teaching staff whose general education is equivalent to the education of the regular classroom teacher and with additional library experience.
8. The school librarian must know, in general, what the classroom teacher knows in detail, and must possess capacity for organization and special bibliographical knowledge, and a personality to interest pupils.
9. The adolescent mind is so susceptible of impressions, memory so tenacious, interest so alert, tastes so unperverted, ideals so buoyant, that too much care cannot be devoted to guidance in the formation of reading habits.

*THE NEED FOR AN AGGRESSIVE CAMPAIGN FOR BETTER
HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES*

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There are many evidences that the campaign for making library content a vital force in modern life is succeeding. A sketch of the actual high-school library work in a particular state—Illinois—will, without further comment, emphasize the need for the aggressive campaign which I am urging. An accredited high school is a school whose instruction is approved by the state university and whose students after receiving this instruction enter the university without examination. To these high schools, some 400 in number, was sent an elaborate questionnaire. With this list of questions we hoped to secure fairly complete information from the state as a whole regarding every phase of library activity. We received adequate replies from 183, presumably of the better half of the total number. Some of these were personally visited also. These schools enrol 60,520 pupils. They appropriate \$23,485 for library purposes, 38 cents per pupil. They own 203,947 volumes, 3.3 volumes per pupil. The meagerness of this is apparent when we are familiar with the elaborate and luxurious scientific laboratory and the kitchen and shop equipments. Even more niggardly does this policy appear when we consider the highly paid experts who make the laboratory and shop vital by spending their professional time in personal supervision, and contrast with this the almost total lack of professional experts, whose training and enthusiasm are equally necessary to secure an equally vital use of books. We find only 36 acting librarians with any technical training at all, and only 71 with any college or university training. It means that in the other 112 of the better half of the high-school systems of this state either the pupils themselves, the office girl, the needy friend of the principal or school-board member, or some one needing an indirect pension, or someone bookish, but with a floating residence, is presiding over the books. It often happens that it is a teacher who must do the double (and doubly useless) task of tending the books and acting as the tired monitor of the unsupervised "study hall." In 24 school libraries only can there be said to be in operation moderately modern scientific methods of library-organization and administration. In nine others an acting librarian gives half-time. In many others a possible two hours daily may be given. Not infrequently, no regular time is allotted to anyone.

Thousands of books, selected without a definite policy, uncataloged and of necessity, therefore, mostly unused, are not worth so much as a few hundred always easily available for immediate use. There are 92 card catalogs in these 183 high schools. There should be 183. In the equally important matter of selection, only 80 use any kind of approved list. Some do not know that "approved lists" exist, some use lists in

the backs of standard dictionaries, some even use a textbook-publisher's lists!

In 43 of these cities there is no public library. Of the high schools 32 provide no school-library room. Indeed only 87 of these 183 better high schools have a library room at all. In most of the other 96 the books are scattered from room to room and from hall to study-room or principal's outer office, or alcove of assembly room. With no room, of course, there are no tables nor chairs, no adequate reading light, no comfort, no quiet, no congenial surroundings. Under these conditions the supervision of a pupil's study amounts to little, and the much-to-be-desired adventurous and leisurely exploitations of the world in its literature and the wholesome light recreative reading amount to nothing.

These high schools vary in enrolment from 31 to 3000, yet there can, of course, be no standard scale of library appropriations for the variety of equipment and professional service required, based upon a per capita. In many obvious respects library facilities for the small and the large high school are the same. The number of duplicate copies and the degree of cooperation with an efficient public library are two factors which affect appropriation. In these particular schools, however, there are within the high-school group of any equal enrolment a variation in per-pupil appropriation of \$0 to \$2. What is most interesting, however, is that the circulation or use of libraries varies, not with appropriation, but with library rooms and trained librarians. The school libraries least used have the lowest percentage of library rooms and trained librarians, thus suggesting a way to allow volumes to stand unused and money and unique educational opportunity to be wasted. The only inference here is that, therefore, appropriation for the school library is no more standardizable at present than is health, but should correspond to possible library use. There is no limit in sight. None should be set, except as to selection, organization, and administration.

In these schools it is pleasant to note that the open shelf has almost entirely replaced the lockt cases and the closed stacks. Nearly all the books are for circulation. There are, however, few instances of free textbooks and, unfortunately, as yet the library facilities noted above are but infrequently open to the community or to the upper-grade pupils, and even when they are, little use of them has been secured.

Current periodicals increase in popularity, and educational use of them becomes more general. The schools report in all 1448 magazines—59 schools not subscribing to any, however. Free government and state bulletins are not so generally received as they should be—130 of these schools receiving none at all. This lost opportunity is particularly costly, of course, to the departments of agriculture and domestic science. Again, only 5 of these high schools have availed themselves of the help of the Illinois State Library Commission. Two have secured free loans of books,

1 has had questions answered, while 2 have been helpt in organizing. Here possible free and expert library service goes unused.

The idea of attractive library rooms seems to be spreading. The returns show increast use of pictures, statues, window seats, noiseless tables and chairs, bulletins, book-exhibits, potted plants, flowers, and other standard library-furnishings and fittings. Some report piano rolls, slides, victrola records, etc.

The "library-consciousness" of the high-school faculty is reported as "low." The cooperation with trained librarians seems somewhat better, tho the interest on the whole is chiefly confined to the English and history teachers and to such conventional library uses as "required reading" and a similar use of current magazines for specific "class reports." Some very suggestive things are reported, such as "bulletinizing clippings of historical interest," collecting antiques, serving reading clubs, planning for competitive readings and later "extemporaneous" discussions of topics of national interest.

It is surprising to note that scarcely any of these 183 high schools so much as mention the relation of the library to vocational guidance, the possibilities here not being realized. Perhaps this is why each movement progresses so slowly. The library movement and the vocational guidance movement support each other. Also a "course in vocational guidance" is wholly dependent upon library collections of the scattered bulletin literature. Indeed all free class or independent educational work, beyond literalness of textbook use, depends upon a good school library.

As to student activities, a few dramatic and literary societies are reported as having originated in the high-school library. Some libraries are filing past debates and past educational records, such as examination questions by departments. Many are accumulating pamphlets and clippings for specific purposes. In the field of art and music likewise, sheet music and pictures are being collected. Not much is reported regarding the possible valuable collections of suitable library content bearing upon athletics, health craft, holidays, commencement, and other topics upon which legitimate interests of high-school boys and girls are from time to time focust.

Only a few schools offer classroom instruction in the library art (or science), with the school library serving as the laboratory. Many high schools are cooperating with the public library, enjoying every desirable privilege which could be offered pupils as well as teachers. In one instance the public library adjoining is almost a part of the school, a place for study, with a plan of cooperation in discipline, of reference books, and with a system of regular observation and report on the study-assignments of pupils in smooth operation. In several instances the high-school library is a branch of the public library.

Perhaps the simplest and most desirable library conditions may be found in three high schools of the state, with an enrolment of about five or six

hundred. In these the problem of attitude and discipline is not so serious as to becloud real library work, and almost ideal library conditions exist. Here are found fully equipt library rooms, excellent librarians, and serious study work being done by the pupils. One of these is in a school in which supervised-study methods have been adopted and the library fills a very vital place in the school. The young people come to the library from the various study rooms whenever they wish to use library books, or they may sometimes obtain permission to come there to study their own books. The librarian knows personally almost all the pupils and is able to help them in their work. She has made an interesting survey of various study methods, and the reflection of these in subsequent resulting recitations. She has found that almost invariably a lack of good study methods in the library is correlated with low-grade work in the classroom. Such systematic library work is made possible partly by the size of the school, which enables the librarian thus to know the pupils and their needs and to do conscientious work with them all. Many interesting systems have been devised to check attendance in the library. Such systems include the "admit slip," the "check lists," "self-registration," etc. Similarly, various systems of circulation are being used to meet various needs and secure reasonable and proper distribution.

Other schools may be described which are also doing earnest library work. Such library habits and appreciation are thus being developed as will be of great value to the pupils after they leave school. English and history, and, I could include almost as well any school subject, can no more be taught properly in our public schools without an adequate library organization than can botany or physics be taught without a laboratory, or manual training or domestic science without shop equipment, or athletics without a field. Our present educational emphasis in all grades of public education, admirable in some respects as it surely is, is still dangerously, and will eventually be disastrously, one-sided unless at least the fundamental oversight discussed above be seen and remedied without delay.

The school library must in every respect take its place with the school laboratory, and the school shop, and the school gymnasium and playground. This is the fundamental lack of our elaborate school plants today. They need, and they will soon have, this laboratory of the humanities. We must, and we can, without delay make it educationally bad form and bad business to allow the present impression of a modern palatial high-school building, perfectly appointed in most respects, housing absurdly such a motley array of old and useless and dirty textbooks, out-of-date encyclopedias and reference works, and an unkept shelf, full of equally old, black, and forbidding volumes.

More than anything else we need to think the library into our everyday school consciousness. We need to feel that a school library, moreover, is vastly more than merely a collection even of choice books. The modern

school has expanded into an institution with functions reaching far beyond that of merely intellectualizing the child. It cares for all that pertains to the complete flowering of the pupil's individuality, hygienic, intellectual, esthetic, vocational, moral, religious. Hence the modern adequate school library must also be an institution for distribution and display and for demonstration of all legitimate modern educational tools.

THE RELATION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY TO VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL COURSES

WALTER D. HOOD, PRINCIPAL, THE GILBERT SCHOOL, WINSTED, CONN.

It is my duty to set forth very definitely at just what points the high-school library touches the work of pupils in non-academic courses in the school which I represent. In general, it may be said that the library reaches all pupils in all courses thru the work in English which we require of academic and non-academic students alike, the necessary reading and reference work in English bringing each student to the library. The library also reaches each student, whatever course he may be pursuing, thru formal instruction in library methods and the use of books as tools. But if this were the extent of the library's influence on non-academic courses it would fall far short of its possibilities. Our library reaches the non-academic students thru the recognition on the part of the librarian of the special interests of these particular students. The chief points of contact are as follows: In the mechanic-arts course, the library reaches the students directly by means of books containing pictures and detailed instructions for the construction of articles such as skis, double rippers, checkerboards, and furniture of all kinds, and by books on house-planning and construction, on woodworking in general, and on drawing and metal working. In addition, lists of books dealing with typical industries and other special phases of the work of this department are prepared by the librarian, and these lists, together with the books themselves, are placed on specified shelves in the library. For example, when the boys in the mechanic-arts department are dealing, thru lectures, with typical industries, references concerning the "history of industry" will be prepared and listed with whatever books we have at hand which deal with industrial history. Under subdivisions, books will be found dealing with "primitive industry," such as Bücher's *Industrial Evolution*, Cheney's *Industrial and Social History of England*, etc.; with the "industry of the Middle Ages," such as Gibbon's *Industrial History of England*, Joly's *Man before Metals*, Solzmann's *English Industries of the Middle Ages*, etc.; also, finally, books relating to "modern industry" will deal with the modern phases of industrial life—as its economic side, the present factory system, production and distribution on a

large scale, etc.—such as Seligmann's *Principles of Economics*, Thurston's *Economic and Industrial History*, Warner's *Landmarks in English Industrial History*, and others.

Similarly, references are selected and noted for the work of any special topic selected by the instructors for study, for instance, lives of inventors, sketches of the careers of master craftsmen and the ideals for which they lived and worked. We find that this sort of reference proves of inspirational value to our boys who are not getting the culture of the classics and the inspiration of the history of heroic and classic times. In connection with the work on industries, the advantages and disadvantages of each occupation are considered in the light of a life-work, and here we have gathered all the books dealing with vocational guidance which we have been able to find.

With regard to the home-economics course general work is done as in the case of the mechanic arts for boys. The girls in the home-economics department are furnished with references on each large subdivision of their work; relating to textiles, for example, there are such general references as Carpenter's *How We Are Clothed*, Dooley's *Textiles*, Freeman and Chandler's *World's Commercial Raw Materials*, and others. The sub-topics under textiles are classified, as cotton, silk, wool, with whatever reference material we may have available either in bound books or in magazine articles or pamphlets. Also, when home-decoration and design are made the subject of study by the girls in this department, the librarian collects all available reference material on certain classified shelves as follows—Bevier's *The House—Its Plan, Decoration, and Care*; Daniel's *Furnishing of a Modest Home*; Hunter's *Home Furnishing*, etc.

Again, for cooking classes, references are given relating to the preparation of food, menus, service, food values, etc.; and so on thru the entire range of courses. The same general principles apply to each topic considered in all vocational subjects.

In addition to the foregoing, the library also notes all articles in current magazines bearing upon the work of any department of the school, calling attention of the instructors to them by written slips placed in the hands of each teacher concerned. Notices of new books upon any feature of these courses are carefully considered; the books themselves are often purchased and placed in the hands of the head of the department. Such books and magazine articles are many times brought to the attention of the students thru references made to the class by the teacher. I have not mentioned pictures (of which we have thousands), lantern slides, extracts from government documents, newspaper clippings and so on, but these are all collected and kept on file, and placed on reference as occasion requires.

These are some of the ways in which the high-school library serves the students in non-academic courses in this one school. How can the library

in every high school be made as effective as, I believe, ours is? There can be no question that the personality and enthusiasm of the librarian is the one vital factor. There was a time when our library, as a school feature, was dead; then came a real, live librarian, and with no great change in books or equipment except the natural year-by-year growth and expansion, our library has been transformed into the busiest, most useful, and most popular part of our entire school plant. It isn't a matter of large expenditure nor of great numbers of books; it is almost entirely a matter of the right librarian. I should like to see all high-school teachers and principals go on record on the following proposition: that there needs to be in every high school a library in charge of a trained librarian—a librarian who is not merely a teacher who has a free period or two each day, nor a worn-out teacher who thinks that library work is easier than teaching, but a vigorous person, who understands boys and girls and the various subjects of the curriculum, and who is both a teacher and a librarian. She should be as highly educated as any teacher and as well trained as any city librarian; she should have a teacher's hours, and her salary should be the same as that of any head of a department. It is essential that the librarian should have the teacher's viewpoint in order that she may have a really cooperative spirit and that she may know and appreciate the purpose and value of reference work and reading required by the various teachers. Such a librarian will vastly increase the usefulness of the library; she will make the work of every department of greater interest to the pupils; and she will develop in pupils in all courses the library habit which will help them, not only in specific problems, but in the better use of their leisure time both during their school days and thruout their lives.

We find no appreciable difference in the number of pupils using our library when considered as representing academic and non-academic courses. We have kept a record covering nearly seven years which reveals the fact that no such difference exists.

Eight years ago I conducted an investigation as to the number of students who made use of our library, and found that but 16 per cent had ever stepped inside the library doors, in spite of the fact that it is the very center of our school plant. Last spring I made a reinvestigation, and found that 100 per cent of our pupils had used the library—that 100 per cent had used it within four weeks, that over 85 per cent had used it within two weeks and that about 30 per cent had used it on the very day of the investigation.

A school library, well and properly conducted, is as valuable as any department of the school. I might almost say it is as valuable as all the departments of the school, for it emphasizes and vivifies the work of every department, whether it be classical, scientific, manual, domestic, agricultural, or whatnot, and I should feel that the abolishment of our library would subtract half the efficiency of the entire institution.

LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

MARY SULLIVAN, DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, FIFTH AVENUE HIGH SCHOOL,
PITTSBURGH, PA.

Years ago teachers made requisition for a resident library in high-school buildings. Their definition of a library, however, was "a collection of books." Therefore books were purchased, at a considerable cost, and brought to high-school buildings, where some enthusiastic teacher for a time made use of them. But the effort to introduce students to books, added to all the clerical trouble attendant upon the care of the books, soon wore out teachers already overburdened. Bit by bit school books valued at thousands of dollars were stored in garrets or lumber-rooms to accumulate dust and make nesting places for mice and rats. Still the conviction held that students and books should be brought together. But school boards were beginning to have misgivings as to the waste in the matter of stored books. Thru circuitous means both those forces united eventually to insist upon a medium thru which student and book might meet. The overburdened classroom teacher had failed. The office clerk was next tried, and she failed, before the wiser high schools turned to the public library for its experience. The public-library authorities advised a trained librarian whom they themselves at times supplied. But school boards were unwilling to pay the salary which brought from the public library or elsewhere proper talent for the administration of the book matter.

In practically every place where the library is maintained in the high-school building this library is under school-board control, as it must of necessity be, but it is administered in three different ways: (1) by the public library, (2) by the school board, and (3) by a general agreement of the two. Sometimes the city superintendent or the school-board members are members of the library board. Sometimes, as in Kansas City, the city library is a part of the school administration and so comes within the jurisdiction of the city superintendent and the board of education. Sometimes the public librarian or the public-library board, or both, are members of the school board. In all these cases a union of forces and of understanding is much more easily effected than when the two organizations exist independently of each other.

But each of the three kinds of administration has its advantages and its faults. I am informed that Kansas City finds difficulty in convincing its patrons that taxation for the combined maintenance of school and public library should be greater than it is elsewhere for the schools alone. High-school administration claims closer sympathy of librarian and faculty, wider use of books, closer supervision of students, a union of all departments, more sets of books, books at hand when needed, less "red tape," and more direct and forceful discipline. But public-library administration claims greater efficiency and economy in the purchase and mechanical care

of books, and better librarians, because "cooperation with members of the same profession gives more specialized work," more fiction, more specialized books, more expensive books, and a surer growth of the public-library attendance and habits. Joint administration, where it is efficient and harmonious, claims all these advantages.

Each method has its disadvantages, as seen from a comparison of the above. On one point, at least, all are agreed: nothing less than the entire time of a trained librarian, with the high-school library as her one serious responsibility, will make a success in the field as it now stands. The committee still feels that, altho it has collected material from at least two hundred cities all over America, the discovering of an ideal means of administration for every city is still to be made, if, indeed, any administration will ever satisfy all cities with their varied differences. We need more material, we need more time, we need larger opportunity for investigating details, before forming any positive or definite conclusion as to which of the three means of administration is to be favored. At present the committee would probably be able to tell to any individual city what cities are situated like itself and what the experience of such cities in the matter of high-school libraries has been; but to draw any hard-and-fast lines or make any positive, unqualified statements as to absolute success or failure, without an extremely careful investigation of individual conditions, would be absurd in the extreme.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON PROBLEMS OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES

C. C. CERTAIN, HEAD, DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, CASS TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, DETROIT, MICH., CHAIRMAN

At the meeting of the Secondary Department in Oakland a resolution was past asking for the appointment of a committee on high-school libraries. The committee which was appointed has directed its efforts along the following lines:

1. A survey of high-school-library conditions thruout the country was made in order that the present situation might be properly viewed. Reports on this survey appear as I, II, and III.

2. Investigations were undertaken in high schools in several sections of the country to determine the relationship between the library and the various subjects of the curriculum.

3. An exhibit was assembled to demonstrate the work which is being done in the libraries of progressive schools. The materials exhibited were appropriate for use in all types of high schools, the cosmopolitan, the academic, and the vocational. Library aids of all kinds were made accessible to the visitors. Classroom aids were displayed which were suited to use in the teaching of science, art, music, manual arts, physical training, vocational

subjects, ancient and modern languages, and English; but the exhibit contained also furniture appropriate for the library and plans and photographs of well-equipped modern high-school libraries. This is a loan exhibit and may be secured by applying to Mary E. Hall, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

4. Special reports were prepared upon certain aspects of the work undertaken by the committee. These appear as A, B, C, and D.

5. The program for today was arranged.

The members of the committee feel that only a beginning has been made in the work. The big task consists in a further awakening of public sentiment. Public opinion must be created concerning the functions, services, and needs of the high-school library. Specific problems must be solved more definitely regarding the administration, the maintenance, the organization, and the use of the high-school library. Much work has been done, not only by this committee, but by other committees, working in other organizations. It is recommended that the committee be continued for another year.

I. SURVEY IN THE EAST AND NORTH

MARY E. HALL, LIBRARIAN, GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

This report endeavors to show the progress made in different sections of the country in developing live high-school libraries along modern library lines to meet the needs of the twentieth-century high school with its new ideals, its new methods, and new activities. The high-school library of the past was a poorly selected, unorganized collection of books which were rarely used by teachers or pupils. The modern high school demands and must have for effective work a carefully selected collection of books, magazines, pamphlets, pictures, etc., organized according to the best modern library methods and made accessible to pupils thru a well-equipped and attractive reading-room, open during all of the school day and in charge of a librarian with some training in methods of library-organization. The new high-school library should be a vital factor in the work of each department of the school, in the shops, the household arts, the commercial courses, and science laboratories, as well as in the departments of history and English.

New England has only just begun to reorganize its high-school libraries and adopt modern library standards and methods. Winsted, Conn., was the first high-school library in New England to do vital work which attracted the attention of librarians and educational leaders. Of the 10 high-school libraries in Connecticut, with librarians, 7 have libraries containing more than 3000 volumes each and 5 of the libraries are in charge of graduates of approved library schools. The Connecticut Library Association has a standing committee on school libraries.

The Massachusetts Library Club has an active committee on high-school libraries. Largely as a result of this committee's work, plans for new high-school buildings are beginning to include well-equipped reading-rooms. Nine of the high schools report librarians, but only 2 are graduates of library schools—those at the Newton Technical High School and the Somerville High School.

Pawtucket High School is the only one in Rhode Island in which the library has been organized on a modern basis. There is a joint committee on high-school libraries appointed by the Rhode Island Institute and the Rhode Island Library Association.

At present Maine has no high-school library which is up to the standard in room, equipment, organization, and administration, altho Portland is soon to open a well-equipped library room in its new high-school building.

Four high schools in New Hampshire report trained librarians who devote all their time to the library—Concord, Manchester, Tilton Seminary, and Philips Exeter Academy.

The high schools in Vermont are small, and little has as yet been done to develop the school library.

New York has long encouraged the maintenance of high-school libraries. For many years there has been a school-library division in the state department of education and the state has offered financial aid in duplicating up to \$250 any sum raised by a city or town annually for its high-school library. Where a high school employs a librarian, the state gives the same quota toward that librarian's salary that it does for a teacher's salary provided the librarian has had proper professional training. In the year 1900 the city of New York appointed the first graduate of a library school to enter high-school-library work in this country, the appointment being made for the Erasmus Hall High School. Today 22 of the high schools in New York City have trained librarians. Rochester and Albany appointed trained librarians to their high schools in 1905. Oneida, Olean, and White Plains high schools deserve special mention, as these comparatively small cities all employ library-school graduates for their high-school libraries. Eighteen cities in the state report librarians in their high schools.

Within the last five years the high schools of New Jersey have appointed library-school graduates in six cities, the first city to have a trained librarian being Newark, where in 1909 the high-school library was made a branch of the public library. Within the last two years the state department of education in cooperation with the state library commission has appointed an experienced librarian with teaching experience to serve as state supervisor of schools and libraries, and special attention is being given to the reorganization of high-school libraries of all sizes in New Jersey.

For several years the only high-school library in Pennsylvania in charge of a library-school graduate was the William Penn High School of Philadelphia. This fall Pittsburgh opens its new Shenley High School with one of

the largest and best-equipped reading-rooms in the country, seating over 100 pupils and in charge of a trained librarian who is a member of the faculty and on a teacher's salary schedule. Pittsburgh has this year adopted as a standard of qualifications of its high-school librarians the provision that candidates must be college graduates and in addition graduates of approved library schools. The library is under joint control of the school board and public library. Ten high schools of Pennsylvania report librarians. In October of 1916 the first state conference of high-school librarians in Pennsylvania was held.

Cleveland, Ohio, was one of the first cities in the country to develop high-school libraries in charge of librarians who had some library training and could devote their entire time to the library. In 1895 the first librarian was appointed for the Central High School. This was opened as a branch of the public library and controlled by both school board and public library, being the first high-school library in the country to be administered in this way. Seven other high-school libraries in Cleveland are also administered in this manner. The first library graduate appointed to a school library was assigned to the Lincoln High School in 1908 and some definite instruction in the use of reference books was begun. Following Cleveland, Dayton and Cincinnati have begun using trained librarians in their high schools. The Northern Ohio State Teachers' Association has a library section which is attempting to arouse interest along these lines.

Comparatively little has yet been done in Indiana to bring the high-school libraries to a modern library standard, only 4 cities having librarians on full time. The Manual Training High School of Indianapolis has a library reading-room. Two of the high schools have stack rooms adjoining the study halls. The library section of the state teachers' association in cooperation with the Indiana library commission is planning a definite campaign for improving high-school-library conditions thruout the state.

The earliest construction work in Illinois high-school libraries was in the University of Chicago High School, which has shown particularly progressive work in training students in the use of library tools in correlation of the library work with the work of all departments. Its most recent contribution to high-school-library development is the experiment of having the high-school librarian supervise the pupils in their methods of study in the library. The library is looked upon as the ideal study room and the librarian helps the pupils develop good study habits. Both the University of Chicago and the University of Illinois have been active in pushing forward the state movement for better high-school libraries. Ten high schools outside those in Chicago have full-time librarians.

Michigan was one of the first states in which the high-school library was made a vital factor in school work. No one high-school library has had so great an influence in the movement for systematic instruction of pupils in the use of a library as that in the Central High School, Detroit. As

early as 1885 the work of developing the library as a factor in the school was begun. In 1898 systematic instruction in the use of reference books was introduced, and since 1900 the importance of this work has been recognized by the department of English, giving credit for this instruction. Twelve cities in the state have high-school libraries with trained librarians in charge. The state library and the state department of education last year appointed a graduate librarian to visit the normal and high-school libraries and give library instruction and advice about organization. The librarian of the University of Michigan is cooperating with both the state library and the state department of education to improve the high-school library conditions.

Wisconsin has for a long time had a state superintendent of school libraries. Much has been done to set up standards in book-selection by the publication and distribution of a printed list of approved lists for high-school libraries. These lists give simple directions for classifying and cataloging the books. The Milwaukee board of education has for some years employed trained librarians to classify and catalog the books in the various high-school libraries, but not until this year were the libraries placed in charge of librarians who were in the school libraries thru the school day to direct the library reading and reference work of pupils. The state department of education encourages systematic library instruction in the high school and has issued a pamphlet outlining lessons for grades and high schools.

Minnesota was the first state in the country to appoint a trained and experient librarian as state supervisor of school libraries in its state department of education, and more constructive work has been done in this state during the last five years in developing effective libraries in city and rural schools than in any other state in the Union. The state high-school-board rules provide that every high school in the state must have an adequate working library for the use of students. If there is no adequate public library in the town, the school must have a working library of at least 500 books selected from the state list. The school librarian must have the same educational qualifications as a teacher and must have had at least a six weeks' course in library training. The University of Minnesota provides a short winter course in library methods for teachers, and there is a six weeks' summer course conducted by the state library commission. Thirteen high schools in Minnesota have libraries of more than 1200 volumes each and librarians in charge, 5 of whom are graduates of library schools.

Comparatively little has yet been done in Nebraska to improve high-school-library conditions. Omaha Central High School has made the greatest progress in the reorganization of its library on a modern basis.

Few high schools in Iowa have developed their libraries. Davenport has had a trained librarian for some time.

Grand Forks, N.D., is the only high school in that state reporting a librarian.

Lead, S.D., has had a library-school graduate in charge of its high-school library for several years, and Sioux Falls, with less than 300 pupils, has a good library reading-room and an active trained librarian.

Under the direction of the State Normal School library at Emporia, Kans., a state campaign for better high-school libraries is being carried on vigorously.

II. SURVEY IN THE WEST

ELLA MORGAN, LIBRARIAN, LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL,
LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Washington has 9 high schools where librarians are employed. In Seattle, Spokane, and Tacoma librarians are on a salary schedule identical with the teachers.

California has 27 librarians giving full time in high-school libraries and 5 teacher librarians. The salaries in Oakland and Los Angeles are the same as for teachers. In at least 9 schools classes in library work are conducted for which school credit is given. School librarians may now be certified by the state board of education, thus becoming eligible to the retirement salary accorded teachers for thirty years of service. An association of school librarians which was organized in 1915 has a membership of 45.

The Idaho Technical Institute located at Pocatello is the only high school in Idaho which employs a librarian. This library is a United States Depository Station, and a specialty is made of the use of public documents, credit being given for a course of 18 lessons in library use. The standard of qualifications for librarians is the same as that for teachers.

Nevada is sparsely settled and does not report any school librarian.

Four high schools in Arizona have teachers in charge of the libraries.

Butte, Mont., is the only city in that state which supports a school library.

There are no high-school librarians in Wyoming, altho many of the schools have small libraries.

So far as can be ascertained, the Latter Day Saints' High School in Salt Lake City is the only one in Utah in which there is a librarian.

Three high schools of Colorado have librarians in their modern and well-managed libraries.

The library of Albuquerque, N.M., is cared for by the assistant principal.

III. SURVEY IN THE SOUTH

HIGH-SCHOOL-LIBRARY COMMITTEE OF THE SOUTHERN CONFERENCE FOR EDUCATION AND INDUSTRY

A committee on high-school libraries was organized in April, 1915, by the Southern Conference for Education and Industry. Thru the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Education a questionnaire was sent by this committee to 3729 high schools in seventeen southern states. More than 1400 high schools replied. The committee is at present tabulating the returns and preparing the text of a bulletin to be issued during the year by the Bureau of Education. Information regarding library development in the southern high schools may be obtained by writing to C. C. Certain, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich., who is chairman of the committee.

Lantern slides showing interior views of typical southern high-school libraries may be obtained by applying to J. D. Wolcott, chief of library division, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

A. EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE THRU THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY

JESSE B. DAVIS, PRINCIPAL, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.

The traditional school library has been filled with classic literatures of antiquity and with the histories of the progress of past centuries. The time has come when the library must afford also a means of information with regard to the achievements of the world of today. We must keep definitely in mind that in this general laboratory of the school we are aiming to assist in preparing boys and girls to go out into life-activities under present-day conditions, and every feature which we can bring into the library that will give them a broader and keener outlook upon life will be in keeping with the trend of modern education.

The need of educational guidance arises from the fact that today these changes in the curriculum are already taking place; that we have an increasing variety of secondary schools; and that within each school, social, technical, vocational, or academic, we also have a great number of courses leading the students out into varied life-opportunities. As the child reaches the parting of the ways when he steps from the grammar school to the high school and again during each of the succeeding years of study, he is in need of the best possible guidance. How this guidance can best be given is not germane to this topic as applied to the library; but whether the counseling is done by means of trained experts or by special teachers who devote much of their time and attention to this problem, both counselors and students will need to make great use of the library as the center of

information with regard to the great call of the world to service, and for the best ways in which to prepare oneself for his chosen field of endeavor. This means that there should be an opportunity thru the school library to make a broad study of vocational opportunities and of the educational institutions which may best prepare an individual for a certain vocation. It calls for a new department of the modern high-school library—that of the history and development of modern occupations. Occupational information is not easily obtained. Very few satisfactory books have yet appeared upon the market. Occasional magazine articles are very helpful to the problem, and the librarian must be on the alert to find this material and to organize it in such form as will be of most practical use to the inquirer. This portion of the library should be used by teachers in general as well as pupils who may be striving to choose a vocation. Teachers as a group are very ignorant in regard to the work-a-day world round about them, into which they are supposed to be sending boys and girls equipt for the battle of life. No matter what subject a teacher may be teaching, she should have a sufficient knowledge of the application of that subject to the industrial and commercial life of the community in which she teaches to adapt her work to the vocational needs of the child. Otherwise she will have failed to a large extent in the fulfilment of her duty.

The problem of bringing about such conditions as I have attempted to describe is undoubtedly a very difficult one from the point of view of the librarian. The selection of material for the library is not always left to the librarian, but in the majority of places is dictated by the teacher of the traditional curriculum. If the librarian, therefore, has any initiative in the matter and at the same time is alive to these possibilities, something can undoubtedly be done to broaden the outlook of the teachers as well as of the pupils. Much pioneer work must be done wherever the opportunity offers. Librarians must be wide awake to grasp every chance to develop the type of library that will be prepared to meet the changing conditions in secondary education. I do not wish to convey the impression that the future school library should be wholly vocational or materialistic in its content. The librarian must keep the balance of good judgment in this period of storm and stress. We have to deal with specialists who are progressive and often aggressive. The ethical, the cultural, and the spiritual will still be needed in our system of education, perhaps even more than in the past. The opportunity of the librarian of today is therefore big with responsibility and with unusual possibility.

B. THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY AND HISTORY TEACHING

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The following facts regarding practices in certain high-school libraries may be luminous and helpful.

1. The head of one history department, who believes in a departmental catalog, separate and distinct from the librarian's catalog, with the help of teachers in her department, makes a careful analysis of each book bearing on history as it is added to the library. References are placed on cards, giving author, title of book, shelf number, and pages on which the reference is found. As many are placed on one card as it will hold. Subjects indicated at top of the card are minutely subdivided (more so than for the usual catalog) and are arranged, by means of varicolored guides, chronologically for history and alphabetically for economics and civics.

2. In another school it is thought that all references should be in one catalog, with library rules of arrangement. Similar analytics are made as for the school mentioned above. One reference only is placed on a card, and the cards are filed as in any library-card catalog, with the cards for all other books in the library. Many cross-references are used to answer the same question as it presents itself to different seekers after readings.

3. One history teacher gives the following exercise to provide a short drill upon the directions given in a lecture by the librarian, and to aid the pupils in preparing a list of references. Before the recitation, the students assist in selecting and carrying to the classroom the books to be used. When the class meets, each pupil chooses a book, and using the index and table of contents, selects topics and writes the pages upon the board (the topics bearing upon the subject on which the list is being made). The references are then evaluated by considering the standing of the author as revealed by title-page, introduction, and explanations of the teacher. The attempt is made to secure a general view of the work by considering whether the books are "history" or "textbooks," scholarly or popular. As far as possible in a brief period, the class gets the author's point of view. Finally each pupil copies the list for future use.

4. One librarian never gives book numbers on her lists, preferring that the pupil shall have the author's name and the title of his book imprint on his mind by looking up the number in the catalog, or by going to the shelves for it.

5. Some teachers require pupils at the beginning of the term to bring in a list of books (number specified) concerning the subject to be studied during that term, thus familiarizing them in a general way with the literature on the subject. Author, title, and date of each book must be given.

In place of book lists the following means are sometimes employed:

1. Dolls drest in foreign or historical costumes may sound childish, but have proved of keen interest to freshmen and seniors alike in one large high school. The Scotch Highlander is exhibited when border wars are under discussion in history classes, and again when Burns's poetry is being read in English classes. Having been drest by the sewing classes under the watchful eye of the design, history, and English pupils, the dolls are a real result of "coordination of departments."

2. Clippings from the daily papers relating to current events are placed on the library-bulletin board by two pupils who have been assigned to this daily task of selecting and putting them up for a period of two weeks. The civics teacher recognizes it as a part of the recitation work. One school, wishing to preserve its clippings, mounts them on the heavy manila paper which the library bureau prepares for the purpose. This comes once folded to fit pamphlet boxes. With the subject plainly printed on the upper edge for vertical filing, the folders are as durable as they need be and easily available. A simple subject card in the catalog directs to "Clippings."

3. Current events are taught also in a fascinating way by a history-teacher who, once a week, shows to the class cartoons thrown upon the screen.

4. United States Commerce Department reports and weekly finance reports in the papers are followed by the economics class conducted by an Idaho teacher.

C. INSTRUCTIONAL PHASE OF SCHOOL-LIBRARY WORK

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A school library is supposed to furnish information to any number of pupils, on any topic conceivable to the human mind, within a moment's notice, and without sufficient resources, or duplicate copies, or helpers. Now, while this cannot be wholly realized, yet the situation may be relieved in part by giving definite instruction in the arrangement and use of great reference books and reference guides to classes regularly assigned for that purpose. Work of this character has a double value: it makes students familiar with the kind of information which is usually readily accessible and makes them realize that some kinds of information cannot be found without a long and hard search. It also makes them grateful and appreciative of the regular avenues of information and much more intelligent in their questions and research.

One of the requirements for graduation from high school should be the ability to know where to look for simple references which have a standard medium of arrangement, such as yearbooks, indexes to magazine articles, familiar quotations, the enormous range of encyclopedic information given

in the recent dictionaries, and many other points. No one will attempt to find a house in a strange city without learning something of the map of the locality, yet we turn our students loose in a library with the requirement that they look up certain points and report upon them the next day, little realizing what a wilderness we have thrust them into, nor how unjust the request really is unless the student has some compass to guide him.

Instruction in the use of reference books is now given in many high schools and even in some grammar schools. Sometimes this work is under the direction of the public-library staff and sometimes under a regularly appointed librarian of the school. Each plan has advantages and disadvantages.

The following extract is from a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education:

Many educators of note, as well as college and university librarians, have emphasized the urgent necessity for instruction and training in "book-using skill."

The place of the library in the work of all departments is one of increasing importance. The library is a resource or reservoir from which the student should draw constantly for information and inspiration, whether his interest lies in history, literature, or science. Every month of delay in instructing him in the meaning and use of the library lessens the efficiency of his course.

Every new student should be required to take some course in which is given definite practical instruction in the handling of library tools. It is not enough to instruct those who happen to choose history or literature. Such a course, moreover, should not only be required, but it should constitute a definite part of the work required for a degree. Perhaps the best way of securing its recognition would be to give it a definite credit toward a given degree.

Is not instruction in the use of books as mental tools as worthy of being incorporated among the regularly established subjects as is that of teaching the use of manual tools? Would the creation of a position known as that of "teacher librarian" be a very radical one in this day of rapid development of both libraries and schools? Even if it should be incorporated, it would be behind such appointments as teachers of sewing, of dancing, of athletics, and of many other interests. The status and salary of a librarian should be at least a full faculty member, if not a department head of the school in which her library is located.

D. THE LIBRARIAN'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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The high-school library is not a unit in itself but a part of a system. It is in itself not an end but a means to an end, and that end is measured in terms of education.

The administration of the library should be uniform with the other departments of the school. If the library is to serve the school it must be

an integral part of the school, not an outside agency. Hand in hand with this school relationship comes an educational responsibility. Unlike the public library, the duty of the high-school library does not end when the right reader and the right book have been brought together. The high-school library has an added function, to see to it that the book is so used by the pupil that a certain result is obtained. That result is measured by the pupil's ability to react to the library assignment given by the teacher. The classroom efficiency of the pupil is the test of the librarian's ability to contribute to the educational standards of the school.

The influence of the librarian is far-reaching. She can by a timely suggestion convert an idle pupil into a busy one. On one occasion I remarkt to Lazy Tom, "Let us surprise your English teacher by having that theme written and handed in today." Tom entered into the spirit of the suggestion and the paper was finisht. The unusually good grade he received on it gave him an impetus for better work, and Tom confided to me that he was astonisht at his own ability.

Term papers in history assigned a month in advance were handed in early because the librarian was interested in the pupils' efforts and by encouragement, and oversight of their work kept them from putting off their task until the last moment. Getting the library material was not the only reason why the assignment resulted in a high type of work. Keeping the pupils interested in their work, having them utilize every moment, making them feel that their efforts were worth while, pointing out the relation of their present efforts to future work, was accountable for the promptness with which the pupils met the assignment.

To make the library a necessary part of the educational scheme the librarian must put the major stress of her efforts on her relation with the pupils and the correlation of her department to other departments of the school. Books, maps, and pictures can be effective or ineffective in proportion to the librarian's ability to make them practical by the test of classroom results.

Lesson-organization can well come into the province of the high-school library, and should form a part of the instruction in the "Use of Books and Libraries." The importance of lesson-organization and plan is evident. Pupils entering the high school, change from the rote or repetition method of learning to the logical method which consists of forming association with the principles already learned. Teaching freshmen pupils how to organize their work will help them to make these adjustments to the new conditions confronting them.

Supervised study in the library is an educational problem which the librarian can share with the teachers. This educational cooperation gives the library an added point of contact with other departments of the school. The more interest the library has in common with other departments of the school the more valuable is the library in the school organization.

*A BRIEF SUMMARY OF THE FORTHCOMING REPORT OF THE
NATIONAL JOINT COMMITTEE ON THE REOR-
GANIZATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH*

For over five years a committee, known as the Joint Committee on the Reorganization of High-School English and representing both the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, has been gathering material for a report on the improvement of instruction in the vernacular. The report is nearing completion and will be available in three forms: (1) this brief summary; (2) a longer summary, to be published as a part of the report of the Commission on Secondary Education; (3) a bulletin of about 250 pages, to be published by the United States Bureau of Education. The nature of the report as a whole may be inferred from its table of contents, which is as follows: (1) "The Movement for a Reorganization of the English Course"; (2) "The New Point of View"; (3) "Aims and Organization of the Course"; (4) "Typical Subject-Matter in Literature and Composition for Junior and Senior High Schools"; (5) "General Reading"; (6) "The Library"; (7) "Classroom Equipment"; (8) "Articulation with the Elementary School"; (9) "Separation of the Teaching of Literature and the Teaching of Composition"; (10) "Size and Number of Classes"; (11) "Extra-Classroom Activities"; (12) "Preparation of Teachers"; (13) "Cooperation of Departments"; (14) "Differentiation of Courses"; (15) "Measures of Attainment"; (16) "Economy of Time"; (17) Bibliography.

THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE COMMITTEE

1. The college-preparatory function of the high school is a minor one. Hence the high-school course in English should be organized primarily with reference to basic personal and social needs. School life that is genuine and hearty is the only satisfactory preparation for either "life" or college.

2. The chief problem of articulation is with the elementary school and can best be solved by regarding the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades as the first stage of high-school work.

3. A varying social background must now be assumed and provided for. Nevertheless, the chief elements of the English course are universal and may furnish typical experiences for all.

4. English is not a merely formal subject, capable of being mastered at a certain point in the curriculum and then dropt. Life and language grow together; hence the study of English should continue thruout the school period. Only so much of technique should be taught at any one time as will actually enable pupils to improve their use and understanding of the vernacular.

5. Language is social in nature; therefore the study of English should appeal to pupils by reason of actual social use and recognized social value.

Composition should be regarded as a sincere attempt to communicate ideas, and literature, both classic and modern, should become an expression of the pupil's own interests and ideals and an interpretation of his own experience.

6. The study of English as a training for efficient work should be distinguished from the study of it as a preparation for the wholesome enjoyment of leisure. This will make possible that cooperation of all departments which is essential in establishing good habits of reading, of thought, and of expression.

7. The conducting of a school paper and the organization of literary and dramatic clubs should be encouraged and directed because of the opportunity they afford for free play of the mind and practice in expression. The spirit of the club—and of the laboratory and the shop as well—should animate the English classroom itself. This is now much hindered in the cities by the excessive number of pupils imposed upon the teacher. A second limitation to free, individual effort is found in the absence of suitable libraries and reading-rooms. Good English work requires adequate equipment.

8. The supreme essential to success in high-school English, however, is neither the course nor the conditions, but the properly trained teacher. He should be a professional imbued with the amateur spirit, having good scholarship, mature judgment, rational educational standards, and objective methods of measuring results.

THE AIMS OF HIGH-SCHOOL ENGLISH

English comprises two subjects, composition and literature. These are complementary to each other, but by no means entirely identical, either in aim or in method.

The chief aim of composition-teaching is to develop the power of effective communication of ideas in both speech and writing; it seeks to supply the pupil with an effective tool for use in both public and private life. In common with other studies, composition also develops power of observation, imagination, and inference and makes substantial additions to one's stores of useful knowledge and range of ideas and interests. It involves guidance in gathering, selecting, organizing, and presenting ideas for the sake of informing, persuading, entertaining, or inspiring others. It recognizes that good speech demands a sense for established idiom, distinct and natural articulation, correct pronunciation, and the use of an agreeable and well-managed voice; that good writing demands a large vocabulary, a clear and vigorous style, and firmness and flexibility in the construction of sentences and paragraphs; also correctness as to details of form, namely, a firm and legible handwriting, correct spelling, correctness of grammar and idiom, and observance of the ordinary rules for the use of capitals and punctuation.

The aims of literature-teaching are to quicken the spirit and kindle the imagination of the pupil, open up to him the potential significance and beauty of life, and form in him the habit of turning to good books for companionship. It involves guidance in the gaining of a clear first impression of a book as a whole, the thoughtful consideration of parts in relation to the whole, and a vivid realization of the meaning of both the part and the whole in terms of the reader's own experience and imagination. It recognizes that good reading requires a definite understanding as to the purpose to be realized by the reading, whether only knowledge of essentials, intimate familiarity with details, or acquaintance with certain selected facts; the habit of careful observation, reflection, and organization; and, in the case of oral rendering, an accurate and sympathetic interpretation of the meaning thru well-controlled voice and manner.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

In the fact already stated, that the acquisition of ideas and the development of skill, habits, ideals, and attitudes which the English studies are designed to provide for have reference to the two chief aspects of life—work and leisure, production and play—may be found the basis for a vital and economical organization of the English course. The study of books of an informational or persuasive character should support the study of oral and written expression for utilitarian purposes; likewise the practice of literary or creative composition, of reading aloud, and of dramatizing should aid the appreciative reading of novels, dramas, essays, and poems. The terms "composition" and "literature" are used to designate these two types of activities in this report; they should represent separate units with equal credits in the high-school course.

THE SUBJECT-MATTER OF COMPOSITION

Ideas to be expressed and the theory of how to express them effectively together constitute the subject-matter of composition. The teacher's first duty is to seize upon or create a situation actually conducive to sincere communication; his next, to inspire and guide the pupil in using facts, inferences, and imaginary conceptions to produce on other minds the effects sought; his last, to instruct the pupil in those principles of the art of composition which will make the practice of it as fruitful as possible. Putting the last first, either in time or in importance, cultivates slavish imitation rather than initiative, and results in knowledge that is merely formal instead of knowledge born of experience and reflection.

The course in composition must be laid out, then, primarily with reference to the expressional activities of the pupils of the school, not with reference to the logic of rhetorical theory. Necessary facts and principles of grammar and rhetoric must, of course, be thoroughly learned, but, even

in the senior high school, the entire system of such facts and principles which it is wise to build up is comparatively small. The gauge is the pupil's own range of observation, power of abstraction, and capacity for practical application. This limitation should be observed, not only in the larger matters of structure and style, but also in such minor elements of correctness as grammatical inflection, punctuation, and spelling. With proper emphasis on the essentials, instruction in correct form may be made to keep pace with the expansion of the pupil's thought. This implies a distinct advance in the theory of composition from year to year.

Subjects for oral and written composition should be drawn mainly from the pupil's own life and experience in the home, the school, and the community. The individual should be encouraged to draw upon his peculiar resources and to exploit his dominant interests. These will vary from time to time and from place to place; hence only the general fields within which proper topics for treatment may be sought can be indicated in any course of study or textbook. The best results will flow from encouraging each pupil to form a specific project or point of view with regard to a limited subject to be presented to a particular audience, to observe how well he succeeds in his purpose, and to learn from the successes and failures of himself and his classmates what the most effective methods of communication are. Writing should frequently be done in school under the supervision of the teacher, and provision should be made for conference between the teacher and each individual pupil.

THE SUBJECT-MATTER OF LITERATURE

Novels, plays, and poems for class study or individual reading by high-school pupils should be selected with reference to what the pupils can bring to them as well as with reference to what they are expected to get out of them. In the end the stable portion of the literature course will consist of books of universal human interest that appeal strongly and increasingly to the pupils, provided the pupils gain adequate familiarity with them by means of repeated reading under the wise leadership of stimulating, tactful, and enthusiastic teachers. With increasing freedom to serve their constituencies, high-school teachers and principals are coming to know more and more certainly what these books are and how to distribute them according to their intrinsic difficulty. They should be supplemented with a variety of selections, old and new, to give the pupil an adaptable method of reading, a catholic taste, and a discriminating judgment. With maturing years, as first-hand acquaintance with literary works justifies it, knowledge of biography and of literary and social history should be brought to bear and systematized. Such knowledge should not, however, be sought primarily as an end in itself, and it should never be expected to assume more than modest proportions.

The continuity of the literature course should depend chiefly, not upon chronology nor the logical development of the theory of literary form, but upon the relating of each piece read to the maturing experience of the pupil. In the senior high school, however, distinct advantage may be gained from reading consecutively several pieces of the same type, as drama, for example, in order to habituate the pupil in the interpretation of that type. Likewise, pieces belonging to a certain period may gain added force and interest from association with each other. But neither type-study nor period study should be made the occasion for generalizations necessarily meaningless to the pupils.

ARTICULATION WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

At the end of the sixth grade pupils should be able: (1) to express clearly and consecutively, either in speech or in writing, ideas which are familiar and firmly grasped; (2) to avoid gross grammatical errors; (3) to compose and mail a letter; (4) to spell their own written vocabulary; (5) to read silently and after one reading to reproduce the substance of a simple short story, news item, or lesson; (6) to read aloud readily and intelligently simple news items, lessons from textbooks, or literature of such difficulty as "The Ride of Paul Revere," or Dickens' *A Christmas Carol*; (7) to quote accurately and understandingly several short poems, such as Bennet's "The Flag Goes By" and Emerson's "The Mountain and the Squirrel." Building upon the attainments which the elementary-school pupils are found to possess, each high school should organize a course in English in accordance with the aims and principles set forth above. The details of such a course will of necessity be varied to satisfy the requirements of different communities. A highly condensed outline of such a course follows.

A SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE IN ENGLISH

Composition and literature, alternately by semesters or by shorter periods, five recitations or conferences a week. General reading by individuals thruout. Equal emphasis upon speaking and writing, and upon oral and silent reading. Promotion based upon qualitative standards.

GRADE VII

A. *Composition*.—(1) Material and motive: topics from recreation; work in school and out; observation of processes, scenes, and objects; occupations; books; imagination. (2) Form: narratives, explanations, descriptions, letters; grammar, including subject and predicate, object, predicate noun or adjective, recognition of the parts of speech by chief function of each, inflection of nouns and personal pronouns for number and case, the idea of tense, clauses and phrases as groups with functions of single words; spelling of words used; necessary punctuation. (3) Results:

sentence sense; larger vocabulary; increase power of observation, organization, and expression; correctness; broader interests and knowledge of environment.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: shorter poems of Longfellow and Whittier; *Miles Standish* or *Evangeline*; *The Great Stone Face*, *Rip Van Winkle*, and the *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*; *Treasure Island* or *The Gold Bug*; *Stories of King Arthur*; the *Jungle Books*. (2) Individual reading: list provided.

GRADE VIII

A. *Composition*.—(1) Material and motive: as in Grade VII plus civic questions; imaginary journeys; admirable characters in life or in books; questions of school life; trips. (2) Form: expositions, narratives, descriptions, conversations, discussions, letters; grammar, including essential elements of the sentence (subject, predicate, modifiers, connectives), clauses as parts of compound and complex sentences, common and proper nouns, classes of pronouns, person, number, and voice of verbs, comparison and classification of adjectives and adverbs, choice of prepositions, conjunctions as coordinating and subordinating; planning of themes; manipulation of sentences; spelling, punctuation. (3) Results: greater variety of sentence-structure; better paragraphs; larger vocabulary and better choice of words; enlarged power to gather, organize, and present ideas; interest in vocations and in public questions.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: poems of Holmes, Lanier, Riley, Field; *Snow-Bound*; *Lay of the Last Minstrel* or *Horatius*; *Tales of a Wayside Inn* and *Norse Myths*; *Last of the Mohicans*, *Kidnapped*, *Captains Courageous*, or *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*; *Midsummer-Night's Dream* or the *Tempest*; Franklin's *Autobiography*; *In the Wilderness*. (2) Individual reading: list provided.

GRADE IX

A. *Composition*.—(1) Material and motive: as before; also particular vocations, current events. (2) Form: grammar as needed to complete a working knowledge to assist composition and reading, but without attempting scientific completeness; most available means of attaining clearness, force, and interest in composition presented informally; chief features of explanation and narrative learned inductively; social letters for various occasions; spelling; word-structure; punctuation. (3) Results: ability to avoid or correct any ordinary error in grammar and to improve expression by varying grammatical structure; the foundation of a system of rhetorical theory; facility in writing social letters; increase power of thought and of expression; broader interests.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: narrative poems such as "Atlanta's Race," "The White Ship," "Hervé Riel," "The Courtin'," "The Lady of the Lake"; lyric poems such as Shelley's "To a Skylark,"

Emerson's "Concord Hymn," Keats's "On First Looking into Chapman's Homer," Whitman's "My Captain," Poe's "To Helen," Garland's "The Wind in the Pines"; short stories such as Poe's *Purloined Letter*, Hawthorne's *Ambitious Guest*, O'Henry's *The Chaparral Prince*, Davis' *Gallegher*, Brown's *Farmer Eli's Vacation*, Hale's *The Man without a Country*; *Ivanhoe*, *Quentin Durward*, or *Kim*; *Julius Caesar*; Palmer's *Homer's Odyssey* or Bryant's *Iliad* (in part), with related myths and legends. (2) Individual reading: list provided.

GRADE X

A. *Composition*.—(1) Material and motive: as in Grade IX plus new school studies, social relations, knowledge of the world's work and play. (2) Form: building of paragraphs; sentence-manipulation, particularly clearness thru connectives, correct placing of modifiers, unmistakable reference; conciseness, word-building; spelling; punctuation; business letters and telegrams; briefs and other outlines; news stories, editorials, advertisements, and dramatization of situations. (3) Results: greater clearness and force in both speech and writing; fair mastery of the elements involved in short themes; increased ability to persuade; ability to handle typical problems of business correspondence near to experience; the habit of right use of the newspaper.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: (a) poetry such as Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal," Tennyson's "Enoch Arden," Keats's "The Eve of St. Agnes," "Ulysses," Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner," Burns's "Bannockburn," Arnold's "Sohrab and Rostum"; (b) plays such as Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*, *Henry V*, and *As You Like It*, Maeterlinck's *Blue Bird*, Peabody's *The Piper*; (c) fiction such as *Lorna Doone*, *Silas Marner*, *Tale of Two Cities*, *Ben Hur*; (d) other prose such as *The Alhambra*, *Travels with a Donkey*, Essays of Burroughs, Grenfell's *Adrift on an Ice Pan*, Van Dyke's *Salt*, Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address." (2) Individual reading: list provided.

GRADE XI

A. *Composition*.—(1) Material and motive: as before but more definitely the product of investigation and study. (2) Form: expository outlines and themes of two thousand words or more; debate; parliamentary usage; related letters, short articles, editorials, and descriptions. (3) Results: ability to gather valuable information on the scale of the magazine article and make it pleasantly available to others, employing a working knowledge of the more commonly recognized principles of effectiveness and of the rules of correctness in doing so.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: (a) poetry such as Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* ("The Coming of Arthur," "Gareth and Lynette," "Lancelot and Elaine," "The Holy Grail," "The Passing of Arthur," and connecting links), "The Lady of Shalott," short poems of Browning,

Arnold's "Balder Dead," nineteenth-century and contemporary lyrics; (b) fiction such as *David Copperfield*, *Mill on the Floss*, *House of Seven Gables*; (c) plays such as *Macbeth*, *Coriolanus*, *Twelfth Night*, *She Stoops to Conquer*; (d) speeches on citizenship; (e) other prose from the best current magazines. (f) Individual reading: list provided.

GRADE XII

A. *Composition*.—Pupils who have done the work outlined for previous grades with credit should be permitted to follow up their special interests, whether in newspaper work, commercial correspondence, advertising, debating, the short story, verse-writing, dramatization, or scientific description, in order to prepare themselves for the calling to which they look forward. Current literature, including the magazines and newspapers, will prove invaluable for such work. Pupils who show marked deficiency in any of the matters outlined for earlier years should be given individual attention or group according to need. Many schools will find it impossible for the majority of their pupils to complete the work outlined above for the tenth and eleventh grades before the end of the twelfth.

B. *Literature*.—(1) Material for class work: selected pieces to fill out the list of representative English and American authors read chronologically and connected with previous reading into an outline history of literature; such as Chaucer's *Prologue*, *Old Ballads*, *Hamlet*, *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, and *Lycidas*, songs from Books I and II of *Golden Treasury*, *Pilgrim's Progress I*, *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*, Poems of Burns, Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and Byron, essays of Lamb and Stevenson, Macaulay on Johnson, Emerson's *Fortune of the Republic*. (2) Individual reading: collateral list provided.

NOTE.—Two alternative arrangements of the literature course of the senior high school are recommended: First, devote the work of each year to two or more types: for example, poetry and fiction in the tenth; poetry, drama, speeches, and miscellaneous prose in the eleventh; and drama, essay, short story, and miscellaneous prose in the twelfth. In this case literary history is incidental. Secondly, give pupils in large schools an opportunity to elect any one of several courses in the third or fourth year; for example, a course in drama, in the short story, in great speeches, or even in the work of a single author.

GENERAL READING

Since one of the chief aims of the English course is to establish the habit of reading good books and magazines in the right way, pupils should be encouraged and directed to read freely as individuals throughout the school period. To provide for this, lists must be made up, library cooperation secured, informal class conferences planned, time allowed, and credit given. To many pupils general reading will prove more valuable than any formal subject in the high-school course.

THE REORGANIZED HIGH SCHOOL

JOHN M. MILLS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OGDEN, UTAH

Education that makes character is the kind that is worth while. Self-expression in wood, stone, iron, or bronze gives character; or it may be acquired thru self-expression on canvas, thru the vocal organs, thru any form of the divine art, thru agriculture or any of the industrial arts, or thru the arts of pleasure. The real inspiring thrill comes thru the accomplishment of a task well done. The end is the completion of a creative task. The object completed gets the child's admiration, and the task of doing the work trains his senses, his muscles, his judgment, his intellect, his will, and his sympathies. This is education and it is education for usefulness. He learns how to work and to be useful. Such a sentiment should be created in every community that any boy would be ashamed to graduate from high school not knowing how to work and make a living. This sentiment should be so strong that he would not only consider himself uneducated, but disgraced.

The high school is the college of the masses. It is within easy access of the homes of the people, but does not always fit the needs of all the people. Modern thought is rapidly forcing its reorganization. Education has too long been considered an accumulation of facts, which may leave the possibilities of a student undeveloped. Education is the acquisition of power and character. A majority of those who go to school are not of the bookish-student type. They are of the motor type, and the bookish school is to them made up of a meaningless collection of disconnected, dissociated, abstract formalities. The motor-type boys are as much worth while in the world's work as the student type, and the school should be adjusted to make use of their ability in the affairs of life. These boys and girls cannot reason out the necessity, any more than some of the rest of us can, of working along lines that lead away from life. The only way to train for life is to begin to do life's work. The boy who is ready for this, and who is put into the school machine, fails to do his part. He considers school an institution of torment and becomes a bad boy. If the shackles were taken from him and he were allowed to grow while in school he would be found to be one of the best of boys. I sometimes think we have no bad boys, but we do have teachers and parents who fail to comprehend them, and they are slightly spoiled by the treatment applied to them. A bad boy is a misfit. Rembrandt was a bad boy, and when his evil acts—drawing pictures—excluded him from a school which he did not fit and which did not fit him, he rapidly rose to be one of the world's masters. School should be so shaped as to fit all the children of all the people, and those whose chief characteristic is self-expression should be given a chance.

The junior high school—seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.—In this school much of the work formerly done in the four-year high school can be placed.

The languages, mathematics, history, and science can be brought down into the seventh and eighth grades by adapting it to those years. Students here begin to find themselves awakened by new subjects, and their interest is strengthened. They study with an eagerness and curiosity to know what these subjects will reveal to them. Their minds are alert and they are ready and willing to take part in discussions. They are no longer promoted by grade, but rather by subject, each subject giving a unit of credit, except in cases where a student thru natural ability or excessive industry acquires an ability far beyond the other students. He may be given a unit and a fifth or some other fraction of credit. This not only rewards him for his efforts, but encourages others to be more energetic. One who happens to be superior in all his studies is the honor student of the school, and, by acquiring the excessive credit in all subjects, he may shorten his term of residence considerably. If he be successful thruout the junior and senior high school in acquiring "A" in every subject, he will shorten his road to graduation by more than a year. This plan helps to break the perfected school machine, where the bright and the dull, the bookish child and the motor-type child, the boy and the girl, are all marcht thru together in lock-step fashion to graduation, and gives an opportunity to each child for ample reward for every effort he puts forth. During these three years of junior-high-school work the most important period of adolescence is covered. The students are under the discipline that fits their needs. The teachers can be selected to fit those important needs. Specializing here begins, but is not so pronounst as in the senior high school. Bringing the pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades together makes it possible to do better grading, which makes for efficiency and economy.

In this school, too, work, play, and study should be the program. The school could be lengthened, making twelve thirty-five-minute periods each day, each pupil taking five academic subjects in classes not to exceed thirty pupils. Each pupil could devote some time, then, to one or more of the following specialties as elected: art, music, woodwork, sewing, physical culture, and recreation—including play, games, and educational moving pictures, swimming, etc. If the child is given some practical problem to work out it strengthens him and makes him more capable of grasping his theoretical problems. Work gives the youth a point of view, an incentive, a motive, and a power to grasp the meaning of intellectual problems. I would also make further provision that in this school a boy or girl who can find better industrial work at home or elsewhere than the school can provide should be allowed to accept such work in place of the industrial part of the school day, provided a careful report is made concerning the quality of the work done, and provided further that this work is proper and suitable for boys and girls of that age. Great care should be taken that work which is injurious to either the body, the mind, or the morals of the child should not be allowed; and that no child should be exploited by greedy and selfish

parents for mere financial gain. Teaching children to work is more important than the academic studies of the school. A system of child labor is a disgrace to the state. In Ogden our junior-high-school plan provides that boys and girls be kept under supervision from eight-thirty in the morning until four-thirty in the afternoon, except in cases where boys and girls of proper age may be excused for one, two, or three hours of the day to do home work under proper supervision. Woodwork, sewing, cooking, art, music, with other special subjects to be added, provide ample opportunity for self-expression. Boys who have been termed outlaws have become our best pupils, and girls are wearing the clothing that they made with their own hands. The home is thus partly relieved from anxiety and the community of a mischievous burden. School should be so made that bad boys will run away from other places to go to it. The school should be the social center of the community where men, women, and children may meet and learn from one another, either day or evening.

The senior high school—tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades.—This school, having lost its freshman class, is given a little more dignity in the community, and becomes still more of a practical school. Every subject should have good laboratory or good library facilities and should be made practical. The student should be encouraged to get into the work of real life while attending school. The bad custom of relieving young people of responsibility until they finish high school should be abolished. The students in high school who are most worth while are those who must work at home or elsewhere while attending. Many students in every high school are under the necessity of making their entire living. The troubles incident to discipline never come from these. The sentiment should be developed that any boy who graduates from high school and does not know how to work to make a living is improperly and imperfectly educated. Much can be done for high-school students by working on the cooperative plan, as is done in some of our leading communities. Taking a part of a student's time from frivolity and nonsense and putting it to some serious use is not a bad plan. Recreation and play are necessary in every life, but no more so than serious work done under the real practical conditions of life. That father or mother who relieves a child from learning how to work until he gets his education misjudges what an education is. It is not merely knowing what others have done; it is the acquisition of skill, strength, and ability to do things ourselves. Anyone who gets these qualities, whether he gets them in school or out, is being educated. The school should be adjusted to fit the needs of the community and the individual. It may strain and wrench out of place our preconceived notions of a school, yet every boy and girl should be trained for service, and should be made to know that service is the greatest thing that can be rendered the world by them. They should not wait until they have their education before they begin to work. A little work done each day thru the student's life will be productive of ability and capacity in that

student. The primary duty of a high school is not to train for college, as very few graduating from high school ever go to college. The function of the high school, therefore, is to train for life. It will not be long before the colleges will recognize the fact that the best training for life is the best training for entrance to college. The high-school program can be so adjusted that the building can be used for at least twice the number of students. Our Ogden plan calls for sessions in the forenoon, in the afternoon, and in the evening, in all subjects. Some young people find work in the afternoon which compels them to take their four subjects in the forenoon. Others take their four subjects in the afternoon and work in the forenoon. Many others who work all day take their four subjects in the evening. These are above the age of eighteen, many of them married men and women, some attending with their own sons and daughters. All the subjects of high school are given, and many practical subjects are conducted by competent men in the community: for example, architectural drawing, given by an architect, for brickmasons, carpenters, and contractors; business law, given by a lawyer, for merchants and others; millinery, given by a milliner, for women; salesmanship, given by a practical salesman, for clerks; woodwork, sewing, cooking, typewriting, bookkeeping, etc., are given by experts in their lines. There are also classes given in physical culture, folk dancing, social dancing, dramatics, etc., for fathers and mothers. Thus the high school is being made to reach into every family in the community. The senior high school should therefore have its program made up (as should all other schools) of work, play, and study. It should be open day and evening as a social center and educational headquarters for the community. The modern idea should be that the school is the center, the community is the campus, and all the shops, gardens, stores, and parks should be the laboratories of the students. Work done by young people under the real conditions of employment is better than the substitute offered by the schools, and wherever possible young people should be encouraged to get into the real work as a necessary training for life.

MILITARY TRAINING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL: WHY AND HOW?

W. S. SMALL, PRINCIPAL, EASTERN HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D.C.

I am glad to have a place on this program devoted to the reorganization of secondary education because the thesis I support, if ever realized, means a distinct reorganization of certain aspects of secondary education. Because I advocate military training of high-school pupils some of you will be sure that I am a sinister militarist with half my cards up my sleeve; because I am opposed to making this training compulsory, some of you will be equally sure that I am a pacifist ass, ill-disguised in a lion's skin. If,

however, your misunderstanding resolves itself into either active opposition or active inquiry, I am content to be misunderstood; I shall be dissatisfied only if your misunderstanding simmers down to indifference.

Why.—The common and uncritical idea of military training in the high school is that its purpose is to stimulate the martial spirit and make boys lovers of war, and to make trained soldiers of high-school graduates. This is an erroneous view. The age and physical status of the boys preclude the latter, and the experience of school systems that have maintained military training in the high school for many years negatives the former. The purpose of such training is to capitalize the ancient, fundamental, and ineradicable fighting instinct; to exercise, train, and educate it; to make of it a productive educational investment, and compel it to yield adequate dividends in physical and moral discipline.

Accurate data in regard to the physical status of high-school boys is not to be had, but I believe I am not hazarding my reputation for sanity when I say that the average of physical fitness is far lower than it should be. In the year 1914-15 there were in round numbers 160,000 applicants for enlistment in the United States army. Of these, 117,000 were rejected upon preliminary examination, and of the remaining 43,000, 7000 were rejected upon detailed medical examination. Finally 30,000, or about 25 per cent, were accepted. I do not present these figures as properly indicative of the physical status of high-school boys. Probably few high-school graduates apply for enlistment. On the other hand, the physical standards for recruits are justly very exacting. Does anybody here think that more than 50 per cent of our high-school graduates would meet those standards? And what of that host of boys who drop out of high school before the third year?

Are the results of high-school education from the moral point of view any more satisfactory? Leaving out of account the criticisms of the fanatical and the captious, we who are in daily serious contact with this problem know full well that they are not. Our efforts are not at all vain, but we have not capitalized our resources so as to get the fullest returns. The evidence is before us in a striking way in the existence and labors of our Committee on Social Studies. The basic problem with which that committee is wrestling is in the problem of so reorganizing the social studies as to make them productive of civic morality. The immediate object of the courses of instruction this committee recommends may be right social ideas; but the ultimate object is right—that is, moral—social action.

We are fond of repeating Dewey's maxim: "The school is life, not preparation for life," the meaning of which is that the school must have emotional reality and must capture the imagination of the scholars. It's almost as iridescent a dream as the Golden Rule in politics; but it's a dream to be cherished and pursued. Any plan of organization that promises even a partial realization of the dream is worth trying hopefully and thoroly. In the field of physical and moral education, I believe with conviction that a

wise system of military training is capable of just that appeal to high-school boys, and that it will vitalize and unify these aspects of high-school education.

Up to the present time we have relied upon systems of gymnastics and athletics to effect physical education. Both are inadequate. They lack comprehensive and unifying motive. All systems of gymnastics are individualistic. Their appeal is to the desire of the individual for physical perfection. Competition is narrowly individualistic. Systems of athletics are mostly based upon group competitions, and if properly managed are very valuable, not only for physical development, but also for training in the very fundamentals of social morality. But the philosophy of athletics is the philosophy of play and the philosophy of play is the philosophy of instinct—a philosophy that is not comprehensive enough to serve as a sole basis of physical and moral education. Military training rightly conceived includes these motives and subordinates them to the ideal of patriotism.

How.—The common and uncritical conception of high-school military training is military drill. This corresponds with the orthodox fact. The characteristics are a company of boys, in rather gaudy uniform, going thru the forms of the regular army-drill procedure with special emphasis upon the punctilios and the millinery effects of this procedure. The drills commonly are held two or three times a week and occupy an hour and a half or two hours. Generally there is a competitive drill at the end of the year which is more or less spectacular and exciting. The net result is a fair knowledge of the manual of arms and some acquaintance with the superficial aspects of military tactics. Student officers get some valuable training in leadership and responsibility.

Military drill, however, is not military training. Military training in the high school, to accomplish the purposes I have already indicated, must be conceived as an educational, not as a purely military, problem, and it must be administered and conducted by the educational authorities. This means that it must be solved in the light of recognized principles of secondary education and in accordance with the practical demands of our democratic institutions.

1. It must be voluntary. You may ask, Why not compulsory, if it possesses the virtues you have credited it with? The answer is simple and direct: We are not ready to make it compulsory even if it were desirable. It is useless to compel a few boys to do a thing that they or their parents object to when the great majority will do it voluntarily and joyfully.

2. It must be free from any suspicion of conscription; must involve no relation with militia or national guards and imply no reserve obligation, but must be purely a school discipline and organization.

The content and the form must be determined by the interests and capacities of the human material with which we have to deal. This material is boys of the early or middle adolescent stage. They are physically and intellectually and morally unformed. Three market tendencies of adolescence must be utilized: to compete, to cooperate, and to play. Graded and

diversified exercises are necessary. Adequate and frequent physical examination must be provided.

By far the best plan yet formulated is that worked out by Lieutenant E. Z. Steever, of the United States Army, in the state of Wyoming, and popularly known as the Steever plan. A description in outline has been issued by the Army War College under the title of "Outline of Plan for Military Training in the Public Schools of the United States." A good popular account of Lieutenant Steever's work in Wyoming may be found in *Everybody's* for February, 1916.

Lieutenant Steever's plan utilizes effectively the three instincts specified above—play, cooperation, and competition. Without taking the work out of military training, he has put the play motive into it. He has utilized the competitive instinct without narrowing competition to individuals or to selected groups—commonly the bane of our present administration of athletics. He has capitalized cooperation in such a way as to make it general and genuine, not the cooperation of petty artificially selected groups. The essential competition is between groups so selected that ability will be evenly distributed. Success depends, not upon marked differences in natural ability of the individuals composing the groups, but upon the intelligence, faithfulness, and loyalty of the whole group.

The outstanding features of the program are a succession of competitive group activities running thru the year, and a period of two or three weeks in camp. The group competitions as developed are wall-scaling, infantry drill, troop-leadership, scholarship, field firing and camp and field activities. This kind of group competition is a guaranty of sound training in morality, both personal and civic. Success is infallibly achieved by the cleanest-living groups. Compulsion within the groups insures clean living. A group of boys will not long tolerate an individual member who imperils the success of the group. Under the fiercest kind of competition and a new and fascinating interest in life, the adolescent is better enabled to negotiate that difficult period of life.

Similarly, group compulsion takes care of an important phase of civic morality. The groups elect their own leaders. Election of inefficient leaders is punished swiftly and surely by failure. Cause and effect are seen in naked sequence. Respect for true leadership is cultivated coincidentally with the development of self-respecting subordination of self.

Doubtless this plan of Lieutenant Steever's is imperfect and will be developed and expanded, but the principles upon which it is founded are profoundly true and enduring. Just as it stands it means much for the physical and moral upbuilding of high-school boys. It is essentially American and democratic. It is indigenous, and therefore better for us than the Swiss or Australian systems.

Once in a generation, or it may be in a century, the public mind is so aroused and unified that far-reaching reorganizations of education are

possible. I believe we are in such a mood at this time. We cannot buy preparedness for national defense with millions of dollars spent for material equipment or mercenary battalions; we can buy it only by a real education of our high-school youth. There is plenty of hysteria and ghost dancing in the preparedness psychosis, but there is also a real searching of the national heart and a forming resolution to achieve spiritual preparedness.

This is a national, not a local, issue. It is a matter that should be promoted by the federal government. The federal government is moving in a large and far-sighted way at the present time in the encouragement and support of rural and industrial education. It should move in the same large and far-sighted way in the encouragement and support of military training in our high schools. I believe the following tentative plan for such support would be both feasible and economic. The federal government should provide the necessary financial support for the maintenance of military training in the public high schools of the nation, whose school boards may agree to the following conditions:

1. To maintain in the high schools under their jurisdiction a graded and prescribed course of military training extending thru two years of the high-school course; such training should be open to all boys as a voluntary and elective study, provided, of course, that when elected the study should be continued for at least one year, and should not be dropt within that time except by permission of the school authorities for adequate reasons.

2. The schools should give credit for military training to the extent of at least one-sixteenth of the total requirements for graduation, provided the course in military training consist of not less than two hours a week for not less than thirty weeks of the school year and the conduct of a camp for not less than two weeks each year.

3. The school boards must provide adequate physical examination for all candidates for military training, the standards for which should not be, of course, the standards that prevail in the selection of applicants for enlistment in the regular army, but standards that shall be workt out by competent physical-training experts who shall be conversant with the physical character of high-school boys.

4. The actual teaching of the military training should be done by a regular teacher in the school, preferably a teacher of physical education. This work should be done under the direction and supervision of an officer of the regular army detailed for that purpose. The teacher who gives the instruction might be designated the school director of military training. He could qualify for this work by attending for a period of about three months a school for the training of school directors of military training conducted by the supervising army officer mentioned above. Any live, well-trained young man of good physical capacity who has had some experience in athletics and physical training could qualify for this work by completing the three months' course of training.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

- President*—FRANCES ELLEN DÜTTING, assistant professor of music, Hunter College,
New York, N. Y.
- Vice-President*—CHARLES H. FARNSWORTH, associate professor of school music, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
- Secretary*—CONSTANCE BARLOW-SMITH, assistant professor of school music, School of Music, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The first session of the Department of Music Education was called to order at 10:30 A.M. in the Auditorium of Hunter College by President Frances Ellen Dütting.

P. C. Hayden, Keokuk, Iowa, editor of *School Music*, was appointed secretary.

The following program was presented:

"Address of Welcome"—George Samler Davis, president, Hunter College.

"Ideals of Music Teaching in School and College"—Thomas Whitney Surette, staff lecturer on music for the extension delegacy of Oxford University, Concord, Mass.

"Absolute Music in the Elementary Schools"—Frederic H. Ripley, principal, Prince School, Boston, Mass.

"What Should Be the Musical Equipment of the Secondary-School Graduate: What Should the Graduate Take into Home, College, Community?"—John F. Ahern, director of music, Springfield, Mass.

"Music in the Normal School"—Frank Beach, director of music, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kans.

Round-Table Discussion: Frederic H. Ripley, principal, Prince School, Boston, Mass.; Frank R. Rix, M.D., director of school music, New York, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The department was called to order at 10:30 A.M. by the president, who announst the appointment of the following Committee on Nominations: Charles H. Farnsworth, Frank A. Beach, and Margaret L. Humphreville.

The following program was presented:

"The Child Voice: Responsibility of the Community toward It"—Henrietta Baker-Low, associate professor of music, Peabody Conservatory, Baltimore, Md.

"Community Music"—Edgar B. Gordon, director of music, Winfield, Kans.

"Music in a Democracy: The Spread of the Community-Music Movement"—Peter W. Dykema, professor of music, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

"Music Education and Public Libraries"—Otto Kinkeldey, chief of the music division, New York Public Library, New York, N.Y.

Mr. Gordon's paper was read by Frederick Goodwin and Mr. Dykema's paper was read by Henrietta Baker-Low.

The following committee was appointed to consider some means of putting into effect the suggestions which had been made by Mrs. Baker-Low: A. J. Gantvoort, Charles H. Farnsworth, Henrietta Baker-Low, Frances Ellen Dütting, and Fallie F. McKinley.

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The committee appointed at the second session made the following report:

Your committee, appointed to consider the many valuable and timely suggestions contained in the paper read by Henrietta Baker-Low, after due and careful consideration, begs to recommend for immediate action, the appointment of a committee of ten members of this body and one member of the Department of Child-Study who has considerable musical knowledge, to consult, and, if possible, act with a similar committee from the Music Supervisors' National Conference and the Music Teachers' National Association upon the following:

1. A selection of six standard songs for each grade to be used when introducing music in the public schools of a community, these songs to have some such scientific evaluation as is suggested by Professor Yocum, in a recent National Education Association address, in the following words: "Those (a) which are most many-sided in their relationships, (b) which are most frequent in useful recurrence, (c) which inherently make the strongest sensational or emotional appeal that is useful."

2. The formulating of a simple statement of ideals in public-school music that will aid in predisposing school boards to the introduction of music into their schools. This statement to include a definite minimum requirement as to artistic and sight-reading aims.

3. The selection of a list of twelve artistic unison songs suitable for use in the upper grammar grades, high school, and the social circle, with the advice that these be committed to memory by all.

Your committee further recommends: (1) that every supervisor of music make every effort to secure the adoption of the religious songs already compiled by a committee of the Music Supervisors' National Conference for use in Sunday schools as a help to proper singing by the children; (2) that this committee of ten in joint cooperation with the committees heretofore mentioned be given the power to appoint, in every state, a supervisor who will agree to furnish information to anyone asking help in music work.

The committee further recommends that the other suggestions contained in Mrs. Baker-Low's paper be considered at next year's meeting of the department.

The report was adopted and the following committee was nominated from the floor:

A. J. Gantvoort, musical director, teacher of public-school music and sight reading, College of Music, Cincinnati, Ohio, *Chairman*.

Frank R. Rix, director of school music, New York, N.Y.

Henrietta Baker-Low, assistant professor of music, Peabody Conservatory, Baltimore, Md.

Frances Ellen Dütting, assistant professor of music, Hunter College, New York, N.Y.

Will Earhart, director of music, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Edward B. Gordon, director of music, Winfield, Kans.

Frank A. Beach, director of music, Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.

Hollis E. Dann, head of department of music, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

Frances E. Clark, director of educational department, Victor Talking Machine Company, Camden, N.J.

Charles H. Farnsworth, associate professor of music, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

It was agreed that the member representing the Department of Child-Study, should be selected by the committee.

The following program was presented:

"The Psychology of Esthetic Experience in Music"—Margaret Floy Washburn, professor of psychology, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y.

"Music Appreciation"—Leonard B. McWhood, instructor in music, Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N.J.

"Mechanical Inventions as an Aid to the Teaching of Music"—Leo Rich Lewis, professor of music, Tufts College, Tufts College, Mass.

"The Folk-Song"—Luise Haessler, assistant professor of German, Hunter College, New York, N.Y.

Mr. Lewis used a piano-player to illustrate his paper, and a number of costumed singers were present to illustrate Miss Haessler's paper.

C. H. Congdon, Josephine Duke, and Nellie Dee presented the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, The Music Section of the National Education Association has been provided with a program that stands out distinctly as one of the best that was ever presented to this body, representing the broad phases of music education by a phalanx of distinguished educators; and

WHEREAS, These educators, coming as they do from different sections of the country and representing the various branches of music education, have expressed a remarkable unanimity of opinion and ideas showing the high trend of modern music education; and

WHEREAS, The discussions have revealed that public schools, normal schools, colleges, and libraries are united in one proud aim toward the achievement of our ideals that will result in the fulfillment of our hope for a musical America; and

WHEREAS, Owing to the great calamity that has befallen the art centers of Europe which brings about a condition pointing to America as the hope of the world, therefore be it

Resolved, That we give full credit to the president, Frances E. Dütting, for preparing this unusual program, which is a decided step toward the realization of our hopes and ideals; that we extend our thanks to the president of Hunter College for the use of this hall and for the splendid cooperation of his assistants; that we thank one and all who have so ably contributed to this program; and that we here pledge ourselves to the furthering of the nation-wide cause which has here received such a tremendous impetus.

The report of the Committee on Nominations was presented and unanimously adopted as follows:

President.—A. J. Gantvoort, musical director, teacher of public-school music and sight reading, College of Music, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Vice-President.—Agnes Benson, music department, Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary.—Florence Schute, St. Louis, Mo.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 7, 1916

A complimentary organ recital was given by Samuel A. Baldwin, professor of music at City College, in the Great Hall of the College of the City of New York, who repeated the program of the five-hundredth recital, as follows:

1. Sonata No. 5, in C minor, Op. 80.....*Alexandre Guilmant*
I. Allegro appassionato; II. Adagio (1837-1911)
2. I. In the Morning } from Peer Gynt Suite No. 1.....*Edvard Grieg*
II. Ase's Death }
3. Fantasie and Fugue in G minor.....*J. S. Bach*
(1685-1750)
4. Vorspiel, "Lohengrin".....*Richard Wagner*
(1813-1883)
5. Prize Song, "Die Meistersinger".....*Richard Wagner*
6. Will o' the Wisp (Scherzo-Toccatina).....*Gordon Balch Nevin*
7. Prelude in C sharp minor.....*Sergei V. Rachmaninoff*
8. Am Meer ("By the Sea").....*Franz Schubert*
(1697-1828)
9. Toccato, Fifth Symphony.....*Charles Marie Widor*
P. C. HAYDEN, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ABSOLUTE MUSIC IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

FREDERIC H. RIPLEY, PRINCIPAL, PRINCE SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

Absolute music is music which does not depend for its interest on any art outside of itself. The word "absolute," however, is usually applied exclusively to instrumental music, in which field of art it is used as the

antonym of "program" music. But music which depends for its interest on variation in relative pitch and duration of tones, however produced, may be regarded as absolute music: for example, in Grove's *Dictionary of Music* reference is made to the teaching of relative pitch by means of syllables as teaching absolute music.

The study of absolute music simply means, therefore, the study of music itself, dissociated from all other arts. I quite agree that it is impossible to advance far in the study of any art without discovering that a relation exists between all forms of art which makes some knowledge of all essential to the understanding of anyone. That is, there are certain fundamental principles common in all art. It is equally true, however, that each art is based on elements which are peculiar to itself and that a knowledge of these elements underlies the true appreciation of all works which employ them.

A study of the printed reports of the papers read at the meetings of this association reveals some very interesting matters to which I desire to direct your attention for a few moments.

The department of music as a branch of the National Education Association was the eighth to be added to the original organization. It came into existence in 1868, and the publication of its deliberations appears to have begun in 1870. An analysis of the forty-seven programs presented during the life of the department shows a fairly well-marked progress of thought that divides easily into three stages. The first stage is fairly well indicated by the address delivered in 1870 by Dr. Eben Tourjee, entitled "A Plea for Vocal Music in the Public Schools." The second period is marked by the discussion of methods of instruction and of systems, including the Tonic Sol-Fa system, the principles of which seem to have become so generally adopted that no further consideration has been given to it. It is to this system that we owe the presence of the three features which distinguish our method, namely, the use of syllable names for the scale tones, the movable "Do," and the treatment of the minor scale as a derivative of the major scale. The third period may be regarded as the period of expansion. High-school music appears with increasing frequency as a topic for consideration, and college professors have frequently contributed papers on this subject.

An excellent course for high schools was presented in 1904, which was adopted by the Association. In this course, however, no standards are set up, and no idea of the preliminary preparation of candidates is suggested.

The papers show that in all this time there has been no agreement as to just what the elementary schools should contribute to music, nor any clear announcement of the thing to be obtained by the effort made. This indefiniteness which prevailed at the beginning still remains. It is with the hope of suggesting a common ground on which we may possibly agree

that I have chosen for my subject "Absolute Music in the Elementary Schools." My hope of a general agreement on certain points is based on the testimony of college and conservatory professors that pupils who present themselves for courses in harmony, composition, and appreciation have no real "appreciation of tones in relation as real thinkable objects, as distinct and clear in the mental conception as color and geometrical forms are." They report that these pupils gaze at the notation without gaining a clear idea either of the tonality or of the movement, because the elements upon which true appreciation is based are wanting. This condition arises from the fact that these pupils have had no adequate training in tone-appreciation dissociated from other objects of thought. Apparently the power which may be best acquired in the elementary school is the very power which is most prized by musicians. It is on this power that appreciation depends, unless appreciation be interpreted in terms of general feeling. The most ignorant person may be moved to tears by a beautiful song, but those tears are emotional and not appreciative symbols, unless we hold that emotion and appreciation are synonymous terms. The untrained person may admire a beautiful piece of architecture; he may love to gaze upon it, but we must admit that what he sees and feels has little or no relation in kind or in degree to what the artist sees and feels, and we may agree that this difference arises from differences in knowledge, and that the differences in knowledge arise, not alone from capacity, but from differences in training and experience. All artistic objects, however complex, are truly appreciated proportionately to the degree of our appreciation of the elements of which they are composed. On viewing a magnificent interior, for example, the trained mind at once passes from the consideration of the whole to an examination of the component elements, the materials used, and the arrangement of the parts; and the more intimate the knowledge of these elements the deeper, fuller, and more inspiring is the appreciation.

It is true that some effort is made in the elementary grades to cultivate tonal and rhythmic perception, but this effort is made with a view to the cultivation of the power to read music, and the effort ceases as soon as sufficient reading power is obtained to secure the rendition of the simple music which the books contain. A real working knowledge of the fundamentals of music is rarely secured by the pupil; and what knowledge he has is so unclassified and erratic that no structure of musical importance can be reared upon it.

To illustrate the benefits of an opposite course and to show what definite organization of the elementary work accomplishes, I shall give some facts in regard to the work done by the Tonic Sol-Faists in England. Mr. Grove's account of the Tonic Sol-Fa system of music-teaching, as given in the fifth volume of the latest edition of his admirable *History of Music and Musicians*, contains some statements which come under three heads:

(1) object to be obtained, (2) the reason for making the effort, and (3) the success which has attended the effort.

1. The object of the effort is to train the pupil to recognize the mental effect of one sound as distinguished from another by relative pitch and relative duration. Helmholtz, commenting on this point, praised the work because it gives prominence to the relation of each tone to a tonic, and he expressed his astonishment at the certainty with which a class of forty children interpreted simple notation, and at the accuracy of their intonation.

2. The reasons which Mr. Curwin, the promoter, if not the inventor of the system, gives for the great effort which he made is expressed in these words, "In too many schools still, the children only learn tunes by memory." Again he expresses his desire to remove the "poor trumpery" in song material, in which the chief interest is found in the words, and to direct attention to the true material of music—tones in relation—with a view to establishing an appreciation of really good music.

3. The result: according to the report of the Tonic Sol-Fa College, in 1908, 20,684 certificates were granted that year to students who had mastered tone relation, and since the organization of the college 847,852 certificates of qualification have been issued to persons who have passed the required examination; further, choral societies have increased to an astonishing degree, and the power to read music and to participate intelligently in choral performances has become general throughout the British Empire.

Musical progress must be based on appreciation. True appreciation must be based on knowledge as well as on feeling. Knowledge must be based on perception. The thing to be perceived, and hence to be appreciated, is tone. Tone has three perceivable attributes, namely, relative pitch, relative duration, relative quality. There is no such thing as the absolute in matters musical. What is called "absolute pitch" is simply an expression of the relation of the given pitch to the pitches of some standard instrument with which the musician is familiar.

The plea for absolute music in the elementary schools is really a plea for the more careful study of tone entirely dissociated from the elements of all other arts.

A beautiful song is a successful combination of two arts. Each may be heightened in effect by the presence of the other, but the learner inevitably suffers from having a double object for attention before him.

The study of tone relation by itself need not interfere with the development of choral music, and does not, as shown by the wonderful spread of choral art in the British Empire.

The study of absolute music, too, includes form and harmony which, in their simplest development, fall easily within the range of the elementary-school period. To hear what one sees and to see what one hears in music is a power easily secured. The time required is not great, but persistent,

systematic effort is necessary. Shall we, then, really teach music in the schools, or shall we merely sing for diversion and recreation?

Under strict analysis the fact is revealed that very little systematic music teaching is being done in the schools, and this little seems likely to become less if music is taught with an ulterior motive. If the music teachers in this country would consider what music teaching really is, and deliver even a little absolute music training in each grade, a result far transcending that secured in England would be obtained, because, since the development of the Tonic Sol-Fa system, great advances have been made both in theory and in practice, and the staff notation has proved to be a far better means of expressing tonal relations, even for little children, than any of the devices which have been invented to supplant it. But so long as we persist in performing choral work, small and great, without attempting to secure true appreciation of the music, so long music in schools will rest on an unstable foundation and be subject to every wind of doctrine that chances to arise.

Assuming that a real study of music is to be undertaken, it remains to state just what should be taught and how the work should be distributed over the several grades. The course divides, naturally, into two distinct lines, one of which deals with the relative pitch of tones and the written expression of these differences, and the other with the relative duration of tones as expressed in varying note values, the grouping of these values into figures or motives, and the final development of form as applied to small compositions.

Beginners would learn the names and character of the tones of the scale and become able to name from hearing, and to sound from naming, any scale tone which can be represented on the lines and spaces of the staff. There are but eight tones to be mastered. A few moments of systematic drill, given daily for a year, fixes the tones with far greater accuracy than is secured for number work from one to ten during the same time.

The second year's work would continue the same drill with greater attention to the written expression and rhythmic variations.

The third year would advance the work by adding new tones and more varied rhythms. So the work would advance till the chromatic scale and the modes were completely exploited, and the study of form had advanced to include a consideration of the choral, madrigal, glee, round, catch, and such other musical expressions as time had left us; and at the same time attention would be called to the effect of tones in harmonic combination, so that the effects of major and minor thirds and sixths would be easily recognized; and, in the highest grade, triad harmony would be carried to a point which would allow the free use of the primary chords in major and minor, and enable the pupil to harmonize simple melodies which involve nothing beyond the resolution of the dominant seventh chord.

This course corresponds in kind to that which has been so successfully carried out by the Tonic Sol-Faists in England. It is a course which will appeal to the heart of the evaluation experts and general critic of music work, because it is easily divisible by grades, the standards of requirement are readily established, and testing and credits definitely provided for.

An element of study running parallel with chord practice would place music upon a working basis as a subject ranking in dignity and importance with any other in the curriculum. But, you may justly inquire, what is to be done with those who show neither interest nor capacity for this training?

You are all aware that this is the era of reform in school-management. Those who think about these things have already discovered that what is sure to be true of music is true of all other subjects. By the time the end of the sixth year in school is reached certain well-marked differences in inclination and in capacity have developed in the pupils along nearly every line of study. It is here that differentiation in courses should begin, and it is here that a stronger, more specialized treatment of music would naturally begin. No subject will be more easily tested than music. No segregation will offer relief to uninterested pupils or be more advantageous to those who elect the study; and, when the high school is reached, an intelligent selection of pupils for advanced work can be made which will easily raise music to the level of a ranking subject and solve the vexatious problem which music now presents in the high-school course.

WHAT SHOULD BE THE MUSICAL EQUIPMENT OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL GRADUATE?

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Since it is, or should be, an axiom in education that the value of a study is measured by its usefulness in the life of the student, I propose to consider my subject from the point of view of its usefulness. My proposition, therefore, is that our aims and efforts in shaping and conducting our particular line of work in secondary schools should be governed and guided by experience which deals with the past, and by an ideal which has to do with the present and future. Suggested by both the experience and the ideal comes this question, What kind and degree of musical equipment will prove to be most useful to the graduates of our secondary schools? Immediately our thoughts are busy with consideration of the probable future environment and activities of the graduates.

As the social or economic value of these boys and girls is not fully established until they have past the stage of existence covered by what may be called the collegiate period, let us first consider them and their musical usefulness in their adult life.

Since time is lacking for anything even approaching a close grading of the musically inclined, we may as well proceed with the assumption that the men and women of our time are, in the words of the old Latin grammar of more or less sacred memory, "divided into three parts": (1) those who do not care for music—a small percentage, I am fain to believe; (2) those who practice and applaud the type of music known as popular; (3) those who enjoy and appreciate the performances of the kind of music that we believe is worth while.

The recruiting of the last class should be the constant endeavor of everyone interested in the advancement of the art of music by the raising of standards of knowledge and performance. What can be done to raise these standards? To an encouraging degree the process is already under way and has been for some years, as witness the increasing interest in, and support of, such projects as the music festivals in Cincinnati and Springfield, to mention only two of the large number given annually all over the country. But this is not the most promising field for the propagation of a higher appreciation of the best music. In my humble opinion we must devote our main efforts toward the upbuilding of higher standards of knowledge and performance right in our secondary schools, where the boys and girls who will be the men and women of tomorrow, are—boys and girls whose ideals and standards are in process of formation and development. Upon the kind and degree of musical experience and educational opportunities which are coincident with their high-school and academy days depend the kind and degree of interest in, and support of, music on the part of these present-day boys and girls of ours in their adult years.

This is a fact which we are too prone to forget or overlook in the stress of our daily work with our classes; nevertheless, it is a fact with which we must reckon. We must not forget nor overlook, either, the fact that these boys and girls, by virtue of the shorter school day in vogue in the secondary schools in most places have, and, I am grieved to say, embrace, opportunities for attending places of amusement which, by reason of the comparatively small admission fees, cannot afford to provide music of a high order, either vocal or instrumental. Who is there among us that does not recall, with a shudder of disapproval at least, the contemptible offerings of the so-called singers or players at some of these places during an indiscreet and regretted visit?

It must be admitted, at once, that the boys and girls are attracted to these places and exposed to influences which, since they are not elevating, must be harmful, because they like to go and like to hear what is there set before them. Why do they like this sort of thing? I believe it is because it is all so obvious or easily comprehended. By this I mean that no exertion of the intelligence is called for in listening to these baneful offerings. The ear is tickled merely, no stimulus resulting. The best that can be said of the sort of music in question is that it entertains by helping to pass away

the time. That much of it is suggestive of local color cannot be denied, as witness the songs that are built around the distinctive rhythm of the negro music, commonly known as ragtime. There is also the peculiar effect produced by the extravagance of the text in the attempt to make the words rhyme. Numerous examples might be given, if they were worth the time. Of late the popular fancy of the song-writers has been diverted from our Southland to the islands of Hawaii, possibly as a result of the San Francisco Fair, with its ukelele and other strange instruments, so strangely played. To sum up, popular music, as it is reflected in the apparent preferences of the vaudeville and movie devotees, is non-enduring and follows the fad of the day, whatever it may chance to be.

There are many reasons why this situation exists and is likely to continue to exist to some degree. The first reason is a commercial one. It pays. At least, it pays and has paid princely sums to certain lucky composers whose success is the magnet that attracts a countless host of others hoping to "produce a winner." There is cause for thankfulness in the fact that very few succeed, but that very thankfulness is somewhat shaken by the deluge of stuff to be found on sale wherever we turn, all indicative of the misdirected energy of authors and composers, whose vanity is evident by the inartistic portraits of themselves invariably displayed on the cover pages among a riot of more or less hideous colors. The reasons for the situation have already been touched upon in this paper, such as the lack of standards of excellence in material and performance, the desire to be amused and entertained, and the hours of idleness to be disposed of, all on the part of the public, of which our boys and girls form so large a proportion.

There is, however, another reason, and it should interest us because it points us to an opportunity. To take the reason first: These good people are fair game for the promoters of all that is cheap in the way of musical entertainment, to no small degree because this form of amusement and relaxation is all that offers and attracts. Put in another way, these people seek amusement at the hands of others largely because they do not know how to amuse themselves. Our opportunity is at once apparent. Give them something to do, something that is elevating and cultural, but something that is also attractive, because it is pleasing.

We have all noticed, at some time or other, the admiration felt by these young people when they have listened to a competent singer or players in a performance of good music. Whatever the dictionary says, admiration in this connection carries with it a desire or wish to be able to do as one has heard another do. How frequently do we hear the wish expressed by those who have been delighted by a Gluck, or a Williams, or an Amato, or a Bauer, or some of our fine orchestral or choral bodies, "I wish I could do that," or "I wish I could belong to that orchestra or chorus!"

Why not take advantage of this desire to emulate something really fine and worthy? It may be said that we are already engaged in this endeavor,

but are we? We have our choruses, our glee clubs, our orchestras, etc., to be sure, but too often are these organizations left to shift for themselves in the matter of supervision and support, while little or no incentive is afforded in the way of public appearances, in or out of school, save those directly promoted by the organizations themselves, or by individuals connected with them.

Having considered the unfavorable situation, let us now look at the other side, which deals with what may be done to bring about an uplift in our national musical life. As a beginning, I wish to affirm my staunch belief in the musical ability of the rank and file of our people of all stations. From whatever land or race our people or their forbears came, they brought with them a love for music, together with varying ideals or standards of performance which are more or less reflected or developed in their children. The theory is demonstrable, I am confident, that the vast majority of the people, young and old, like to sing or play, singly or in groups. This being the case, where does the secondary school fit in as a factor or influence making for uplift? The schools in this land which are next below our colleges in our scheme of education can and should offer courses in music of solid worth. There should be something more worth while than a period once or twice a week for the chorus, devoted in the main to singing songs of a varying degree of excellence. The choral classes should have the advantage of becoming familiar with cantatas, oratorios, masses, and similar composition, especially the masterpieces. I am not forgetting, in urging this form of musical activity, that not all the work of this character will be found to fit the vocal capabilities of the scholars in the choruses, but a goodly supply of judgment and common-sense on the part of the teacher will be all that is needed to eliminate the difficulty. The departments of English, modern languages—French and German—all include in the material studied a goodly allotment of the masterpieces in their respective fields. If Chaucer, Shakespeare, Tennyson, and others offer legitimate subject material for the study of our mother-tongue, why are not the compositions of Haydn, Handel, Wagner, Verdi, and others as rich fields of experience in getting acquainted with the best in music?

Should vocal music be elective or required? Since music is to enter more and more into our social life, and it is desirable to have a knowledge of what constitutes good music as widespread as possible, it seems to me that music should be put on a required basis. It is not left to the child to say whether or not he will take his part in the study in the grades. Why should it be different in the high school? That it is not universally required is, after all, little more than a tradition which need receive little or no consideration in handling the situation.

With music as one of the required studies, there should be such provision of time and leadership as will make possible the organization of classes of reasonable size. Indeed, this will be found to be imperative, if

the work of the school itself is not to be more or less disorganized by the chorus, which, taking in all pupils of a certain class or grade, would deprive teachers of other subjects of their usual classes. The exact basis of organization of the chorus is a matter for treatment according to the individual school, since there are so many different plans or programs in vogue.

I would have, as a logical result of the required choruses by grades or classes, one choral club or choir on an elective basis, membership in which would be open only to those scholars whose general standing, as well as musical aptitude or scholarship, warranted their acceptance. In other words, make membership in such a body highly desirable as an indication of ability above the ordinary. Glee clubs of girls and boys, on an elective basis, would be fostered by the conditions outlined above, a greater proportion of the student body in a school so organized musically being attracted to this particular form of musical activity as a result of the raising of the value of music as a study. Credits should be allowed for all this work, both required and elective, as points counting in securing a diploma. Such students as have voices of promise should be encouraged and advised as to the things they may or may not attempt to do with safety.

So far only the vocal music has been considered, but we must also have regard to instrumental music, for talents differ in the mode of expression. A strong course in musical analysis, harmony, and musical appreciation could be made a valuable asset of any school on its practical, as well as its cultural, side. The marvelous fidelity in rendering vocal and instrumental music, both solo and concerted, of the modern mechanical devices of various names opens up a rich field of material and solves the problem of presentation for the teacher who is not especially gifted in performance.

The natural curiosity of the child or grown-up to see "how it is made" can be gratified as to music in the classes last mentioned by the exemplification of the elements that enter into a composition. The pupil can be made, or enabled, to see that a theme or subject is a reality, not a vague term. The word "fugue" will take on a definite meaning of its own and cease to suggest a certain confection of delectable qualities. He can be shown the entrancing possibilities of imitation, as shown by the playing of an orchestral record or a Bach invention. In short, he can be shown that there is an intellectual exercise as well as a source of pleasure in listening to music. This grasp of the intellectual side will but serve to enhance the pleasure of listening to good music, while it serves to expose the banalities of the popular stuff. A not-too-minute study of the history and evolution of music will prove valuable in showing how the various forms of music and the instruments employed in rendering them came into being.

Orchestras, quartets, trios, and instrumental soloists should be encouraged by credits where possible. Outside study should also be credited, when worthy, by cooperation between the school and the private teacher

according to the plan outlined by the music supervisors in a recent national meeting.

To sum up, the secondary-school graduate should receive opportunities for hearing, knowing, studying, and rendering, when possible, as much of the best in music as time will allow. In theory at least he will then become a powerful factor in raising the cultural and practical value of music in the community of his residence.

MUSIC IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL

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In the last few decades music has come to play such a large part in life that by common consent it has a place in some form or other in every institution, whether social, religious, or political. Indeed, we expect to find music in the home and in the church, in the schoolroom and in social gatherings, for the immediate contribution it makes to these organizations. In normal schools and teachers' colleges music also has its place, but here it exists, not so much for the immediate social influence, as for the effect it will have later upon the home and society at large. When we consider that the sum total of the musical taste of the nation is very largely molded by the teachers in public schools, the music in the normal school becomes a matter of far-reaching and vital importance. Conservatories, music clubs, and artists' recitals may raise somewhat the standard among music-loving adults in a community, but the average level of musical appreciation and ability will not rise higher than its source, the public school; and the public-school-music ideal in turn runs abreast of the musical standard of the related normal schools. The musical taste of the children of today will largely determine the standards of the nation of tomorrow; and since these children are the folk upon whom music must depend in the next generation for patronage and encouragement, the question of music in the normal school becomes an issue of no small significance.

When the request for this paper came, it immediately resulted in the perpetration of that valuable annoyance, a questionnaire, sent to some 200 normal schools and teachers' colleges. Full and prompt replies gave evidence that many institutions are clearly awake to the present situation and are earnestly striving to meet their responsibility. This discussion is based upon replies from 117 institutions, together with information secured from an investigation of music in the public schools made in 1914 by Mr. Earhart, of Pittsburgh. These combined reports, supplemented by a large number of letters, emphasized three facts of importance: (1) the relation of the normal school to the equipment of the supervisor, (2) the problem of the training of the grade teacher in music, (3) the responsibility of

the normal school to the rural community. We shall necessarily consider these three phases of music in the normal school, as they cause it to function in the public schools.

From the returns it is evident that only 26 per cent of the supervisors receive the teacher training of the normal school. This is explained in part by the fact that but 23 per cent of the normal schools reporting offer a course for supervisors. To those who have in mind any one of a number of well-organized school systems in charge of competent supervisors, these statistics will seem unimportant; but investigation reveals the startling fact that in many small cities and towns the local school board appoints as supervisor a pianist, a vocalist, or a violinist as a reward of merit for success in studio teaching and for tax-paying residence. Such individuals are wanting in the professional knowledge necessary for teaching; they bring to the schoolroom the atmosphere of the studio, and often they are utterly lacking in ability to develop the grade teacher into a teacher of music for her own room. The failure in the past on the part of normal schools to offer courses for supervisors has been one reason, tho not the primary one, of course, for the establishment of summer schools by the book companies. The briefness of these courses, their probable bent toward a particular type of pedagogy, and their inability to offer related academic work and practice teaching is turning students to the normal schools and colleges, where the courses for supervisors are from one to three years in length. The graduation, as supervisors, of students who have never finished a high-school education, as practist in numerous schools of music and conservatories, can be checked only by a propaganda in which normal schools should lead—a propaganda for the state certification of supervisors. Beginning September, 1916, no teacher of music may teach in public schools in Kansas with less than two years' work of college grade, consisting of music and pedagogical subjects. Where courses for supervisors exist, whether in normal schools or elsewhere, a rigid entrance standard should be established. Chief among these requirements should be natural musicianship and not less than one year's teaching experience prior to entrance. If one were first to choose between the unmusical teacher and the musician who is not a teacher, he would doubtless say, "Give me neither."

Of the 117 normal schools reporting, 98 have sight singing; 90, chorus; 73, methods; 49, history and appreciation; and probably all practice teaching. Manifestly the normal school must take a more definite part in the supervisors' training, but in the schools here mentioned only 30 have given it attention. In one normal school enrolling more than 1000 students, no one has yet been prepared as a supervisor. In another school, where one teacher does all the music teaching, there was graduated two years ago a young woman who is today one of the most promising supervisors of the Middle West. The small normal school affords opportunity for training a few select teachers; and these hand-picked supervisors will, with experience,

market better than those shaken from a heavily bearing tree, pruned and mulcht for the sake of a record yield.

Music as a subject in the regular curriculum of our public schools started with comparative ease because of its cultural value. It gained momentum from the easily demonstrable sense training it afforded. In the last decade the added weight of instrumental classes, community music, musical extension, and appreciation has developed a startling speed, until it would almost appear that the craft is flying before a steady wind, or, still better, has been transformed into an "automobilous" type of vehicle. Tho it has been held in the middle of the road by the supervisors, they are, under present conditions, unequal to the task of the inevitable uphill pull. Who then will do this? A glance reveals the fact that the only members of our party who have hold of the rope are the grade teachers. Many of these have not been taught to pull, while others seem woefully lacking in any sense of direction. From Mr. Earhart's survey we discover that the average supervisor visits each room once in ten days or two weeks. In other words, the grade teacher does more than 85 per cent of the teaching. While credit is allowed for music in 75 per cent of the schools where it is taught, in two-thirds of these schools grade teachers are not examined as to their fitness to teach the subject. To this anomalous situation add the fact that of the schools organized to equip the grade teacher, 20 per cent in 1914 offered no courses in music; while in 1916 this percentage has been reduced to perhaps 5 per cent, not one-half the normal schools make music a required subject for the grade teacher. If to the above we add the statement made by the commissioner of education that probably not more than half of the 500,000 teachers of this country receive normal training, one need not be considered a musical pessimist nor infidel when he characterizes the situation as chaotic.

The following means are suggested for bringing order out of this condition:

1. A movement in the several states which shall lead to the inclusion of music as a regular subject for the certificates of all grade teachers. In 1914 not more than ten states required the study of music of the teachers in the common schools.

2. Two classes of normal schools demand consideration: (a) those so unprogressive as to offer no music at all, and (b) those so progressive as to place music in the elective column.

3. Supervisors in organization should prepare a recommendation to their respective boards which will permit them to devote a reasonable time to the coaching of the grade teachers. The average grade teacher remains in her position long enough to warrant a partial neglect of the children for a year, if need be, in order that she may be equipt for the succeeding years.

4. We must recognize the limitations of the grade teacher. No supervisor, however competent, can make over an unmusical grade teacher.

Since the present plan has not won the approval of the judges of sight singing on the one hand, nor the lovers of artistic interpretation on the other, why not give the departmental plan a trial? A questionnaire sent to fifteen of the leading supervisors of the country indicates that more than half favor a special teacher of music wherever possible, and a still greater number would departmentalize the work above the sixth grade. The crux of the matter lies, not in the fact that the grade teacher cannot follow an outline, but in the fact that often she cannot teach music.

In regard to music in the rural schools we have become so accustomed to hearing discussion of various phases of rural life that we take it for granted that the discussion stands for results accomplished. While it is readily apparent that rural conditions have changed for the better in the last decade, a superficial study discovers that the betterment has been largely along the material lines of intensive farming and stock-raising. Not dissatisfaction with the result of his working hours, but the emptiness of his leisure hours, leads the country boy to go to the city. The character of the home life, the amusements, and the opportunities for improvement demand consideration; and in this connection the giving to music its place claims attention. So largely does the life of the rural community focus about the school, and so completely must the culture which is to exist come thru the medium of the teacher, that the assertion that the music training of such a teacher should be included in the normal-school curriculum needs no argument. While in the city system the work neglected by the grade teacher may be supplied by another teacher, the rural teacher is the only channel thru which the boys and girls of the country will receive a taste and love for good music. That any school designed to train leaders—and such the rural teachers should be—could overlook this essential seems incredible. The recent questionnaire, however, indicates that 30 per cent of the normal schools offer no courses that would fit the rural teacher to carry music to her pupils. To many persons present the term “rural school” brings the image of a one-room building whose attendance of ten or twenty pupils seems negligible as compared with the army of children in the immense systems of the cities. The problem of the rural school looms large, however, when we learn that of the 18,000,000 children in this country 60 per cent, or about 11,000,000, are in small communities to which these teachers from the normal schools, or others with less preparation, will go. Consider this and tell me, if you will, whether our scheme of music education is sufficiently comprehensive to be worthy of the title democratic. Let us remember too that the 40 per cent of the school children who are receiving music instruction in the cities are so situated that they may hear an abundance of good music. Thus do we make real the prophecy, “To him that hath shall be given.” This appalling need for music in the country demands the attention of every music-loving citizen, of every musical organization and institution. Three things devolve upon the normal school

which we have already loaded heavily with responsibility: (1) The awakening of the rural teachers to the social possibilities and opportunities offered by music. In a small community the preeminence of the teacher is greatly enhanced and she becomes a more important individual if she can make, thru music, a contribution to its social life. (2) The normal school should give practical training to every teacher in the rudiments of music. Such training will include acquaintance with the best in song literature, singing, appreciation, and the development of the power to listen, together with the quintessence of musical pedagogy. Simple suggestions in the related field of dramatics will be exceedingly valuable. (3) The normal school has a responsibility for stimulating county superintendents, agricultural leaders, and women's clubs to the inclusion of music in rural-community gatherings of every sort, and to its introduction into the school curriculum. Institutes should be supplied with teachers, not those who are music abecedarians, but leaders who love music for itself and possess the gift of arousing others to an appreciation and participation in music. Many rural communities do not know what music may mean to them for the reason that they have had little opportunity to judge real music. Normal-school students should be given sufficient vocal confidence that they will not hesitate to sing and lead in the singing of folk-songs and other songs of the so-called community type. One normal school reports concerts given by its students in ten neighboring towns. Because of the physical impossibility of reaching more than a limited portion of the field, the institution at Emporia has inaugurated what we have termed "The Parcel-Post Music Course for Rural Communities." This equipment consists of a phonograph, a selected set of twelve records with an accompanying "talk," photographs of instruments and artists, and instructions for the teacher as to its use. This equipment is loaned for three days to any school paying the postage. Six of these sets have been in motion in Kansas thruout the year, and the reports, which are a required feature of the plan, indicate several things of interest: (1) The music is not considered "canned" by the children. To them it is real and they readily learn songs by imitation with or without the assistance of the teacher—who in many instances does not sing. (2) The music of the better type grows upon the youngsters even in the short period of three days. In the total recorded vote "Funicula" heads the list as first, with "Humoresque" as a close second. (3) The schools invariably carry out the suggested plan of concluding with a musical evening, when the parents hear the records, the children have a part, and all join in community singing. (4) A desire for more music is aroused and an occasional request is made for suggestions for the introduction of the subject as a part of the school program.

There are three important features of music in the normal schools, namely, the training of supervisors who will be teachers as well as musicians; the practical equipment of the grade teacher with sight singing, and love

for the song of birds and children, with the forward look toward departmentalizing music teaching when possible; and the development of a musical missionary spirit which shall arouse a Macedonian call from the rural communities where it is not already audible.

To the accomplishment of these and other aims the normal schools must, with all related institutions, make common cause. A prime essential is that they should seek thru every means to acquaint themselves with what is being done in similar institutions. This knowledge should form the basis of a definite campaign in which all interested forces should unite to secure the adoption of advanced legislation for certification and formulation of extension plans for the various states thruout the Union. The knowledge of what is being done in certain states will be the strongest incentive to the most backward states and an encouragement to the most progressive.

THE CHILD VOICE: RESPONSIBILITY OF THE COMMUNITY TOWARD IT

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In 1914 the Bureau of Education issued a report on music in the public schools. Mr. Earhart, of Pittsburgh, the compiler, tabulated answers under certain queries which were sent to 681 towns and cities. Under the query, "Do you give particular attention to voice-building? How is this done?" Mr. Earhart makes the following note:

It is a pleasure to state that nearly every school reported affirmatively as to the first part of the query. The only divergence was with regard to the voice-building being done incidentally or by special practices. No feature of school practice shows more intelligent and careful treatment than this; and few questions elicited such interested and sympathetic replies.

With all this careful attention to the voice in school, one should, therefore, expect to see good voice habits functioning in life, one might look for better tone in church and Sunday school, for a better quality of tone in the home singing group, for better speaking voices, for a more intelligent attitude of listening to tone at voice recitals, for better community singing, for better taste, in short, in all use of tone. But is this true? Is right use of voice a general habit in life? If not, what is wrong with our teaching? Or is our teaching modified or thwarted by contrary or opposing habits in the child's world outside the school?

Not only do music departments bewail their powerlessness; in every phase of teaching one finds the same thing. Professor Canby, of Yale, in a series of articles in *Harper's Magazine*, treats the same problem with regard to English. In his summing up he lays the remedy in the home attitude toward education—the outlook on life which the home, more than

the school, always gives. And a right attitude in the home means the general education of those who are at the head of the home. Educational practice varies with educational ideals, and educational ideals change faster than the community can be made conscious of that change. In an address delivered before the National Education Association in perhaps 1901 a famous educator said something like this: "Education is for living, not for a living, and trades schools or vocational training have no place in such an educational scheme." See how educational opinion has changed in a few years! But if that opinion was woven into the mind fabric of the average man at the time he went to school, it will take more education to give him a viewpoint in consonance with the changed ideal.

Granting that the public is willing to give cooperation but does not know how, let us ask whether we really take practical means to insure the cooperation of home and community in the use of good voice habits? Do we educate our communities to the point of having a right attitude toward public-school music, and do we actively assist in improving the avenues of musical expression in our community? A child's voice is at the mercy both of the musical stuff upon which it is used, and also of the great ocean of ignorant voice usage that surrounds its little island of school habit. No wonder he jumps from his isolated and inane little "island" into the "ocean" where exciting "stunts" take place and real things happen. Community music is not a separate field for the music supervisor; it is the field in which the greater part of the practice of his carefully taught voice principles takes place, and it must, perforce, loom large in his plans.

Theoretically, we all believe that voice is as much psychic as physiologic. Granted voices of equal physiologic perfection, the richer and more imaginative nature is capable of the finest expression; but that richer and finer nature will also exhibit itself in its choice of material to express; for much music material, in school or out, does not hold within itself the possibilities of rich and fine expression. We in school are hoping, not only to instil correct voice principles, but to make rich and fine natures. The material with which we work is the song material, the method of teaching, the method of procedure of the lesson which develops certain habits of work, and the personality of the teacher. The last is largely responsible for the pupils' attitude toward the subject and toward life, and for the pupils' taste. The feeling attitude in music I hold the great thing. We hear much about the refining value of school music, the ethical value of school music, the social value of school music, etc. Hardly a meeting of the National Education Association has been held which has not given place on its program to some such topic. Some music is not ethical. Some singing, even of good music, has not necessarily an ethical value. Technically, good singing of good material (lacking the feeling attitude) may not have much ethical value. A lack of spiritual quality in a director may reduce a performance to a thing of form without content, in which

case a vital thing is missing from the tone as well as from every other detail of performance. Tone is a resultant of forces; and we are still groping in a very unscientific manner for the laws that govern the forces. Now if we are to be of any help to the community in its care of the child voice, we surely need to have our own educational data scientifically assembled.

A series of experiments is being made in a well-known school for the purpose of testing music ability. Some of the experiments (which are yet in their infancy) seem to show that the training lessens musical ability instead of increasing it, and the experimenters ask: "Are the usual methods for training in the technic of an instrument detrimental to the ability for musical expression?" Is any method that is connected with an art harmless? I can conceive as a bare possibility that any method in some subjects might not injure the child; but in music—! Bagley, I think it is, says something to this effect: "The reason our result in the teaching of the arts is so barren is that we appear to be teaching the arts with the same method we use in teaching mathematics."

In the report on music in the schools, referred to in the beginning of this paper, Mr. Earhart makes a telling note under the query, "What are the steps in your method of teaching children in primary grades to sing by note?" He says:

The replies were most disheartening because of the revelation they brought of a deplorable lack of pedagogical training and understanding. It is not that faulty methods were revealed, for it is not the intention here to imply that any well-considered and well-administered method is wrong; but the absence of any method, the lack of any known reason for the features of practice adopted, with the implication this carries of wasted hours, injudicious and untimely effort, uncertain and wavering procedure—this is lamentable.

If in just these matters of material and method we might have a scientifically determined basis for our teaching we would save inestimable time and energy which we are now expending in haphazard usage.

We need a sound basis for arguments to use with school boards and with our communities, and those arguments should be founded on wide experiments whose results are carefully evaluated and put within the reach of all communities. Why cannot it be done on a large scale and put forward with authority? Of the eighteen million children of school age, only five millions, I believe, are taught music in school. The other thirteen millions are mostly in rural districts and in so-called private schools. On the proposed program of the Music Supervisors National Conference there is a suggested topic, "How to introduce music into schools which at present have none?" How can we approach school boards and superintendents with arguments for school music until we can affirm that educational opinion has defined our aim and suggested our method? Recently a music supervisor was selected by some visiting board members, who chose her because they said they could see definite work in each grade. Ask what the definite work was, they said, "Each grade could read harder songs

than the one before it, and besides, she was pleasant to the children." These were honest men seeking the best person possible; but the aims of public-school music were not known to them, and they lookt for only one result. I am not decrying the result—I am only regretting that only one result was lookt for. Suppose we could mail to each inquiring school board a definite statement of the aim in public-school music with a minimum outline for accomplishment? Suppose we could tell them in just what places in the community they might expect this training to function? Suppose we offered definite help for the improvement of all community-music agencies, beginning with the church and Sunday school—the latter often the most powerful rural agency? This help should come with authority—it should have force because of the educational consensus of opinion behind it. This help is what community-music bureaus aim to give. We have several now, well establisht. What we need is a chain of operating bureaus giving such help a national force. And then we need a publicity committee to let the general public know where it can find the help. A very earnest woman from a small town in the Far West is interested in school music because she has children in school and she herself is a musician. She is organizing "community-song evenings" in the place, because she believes this the quickest way to stimulate music interest of all kinds. She said she was at an utter loss what to sing—she had never heard of the *Eighteen Songs for Community Singing* nor of the Music Supervisors National Conference. Only a few weeks ago a supervisor said he wisht there was any kind of reliable information regarding the kind of music for high-school curriculums. Organization and publicity for the furtherance of information about people's music—not musicians' music but people's music—these are two things we need. In closing, therefore, I make the following suggestions, which look (1) toward a better evaluation of our own material and methods in the schoolroom, and (2) toward a definite organization and publicity for the help of the public:

1. That it would be well to appoint a committee of ten to formulate a very simple statement of ideas in school music which any layman may understand; that this statement append a definite minimum requirement as to artistic aims and sight-reading aim.

2. That the school-music section of the National Education Association and of the Music Teachers National Association, together with the Music Supervisors National Conference appoint a joint committee looking to the establishment of some long-continued experiments in various sight-reading methods; that before any method is tried it shall have a pedagogic and psychological approval, so that theoretically it may be correct before it is tried out in practice; that an able member of the Department of Child-Study, Pedagogy, and Psychology, with an artistic musician, be askt to serve as an additional advisory committee so that expert scrutiny of every detail may be made. This committee must also experiment with

the preliminaries (quality and amount of music) which a child should have before beginning reading.

3. That the Music Supervisors National Conference, the Music Section of the National Education Association, and the Public-School Music Department of the Music Teachers National Association would make a valuable contribution to school music and to all musical education if they should appoint committees to formulate statements of the ideals, principles, and features of practice appropriate to the several courses, to the end that supervisors could choose wisely one path or another, and then within that path could adopt methods of procedure that would be consonant with the ideals, of course, and therefore efficient and successful.

4. That these same three agencies (Music Teachers National Association, National Education Association, and Music Supervisors National Conference) appoint a committee to formulate ways of obtaining the cooperation and support of all possible agencies for the improvement of American speech in tone, quality, and enunciation.

5. That these three agencies urge a song-vocabulary of not more than twelve songs, which we will endeavor to give a nation-wide use in school and out; these songs to be artistic and ethical, satisfying to a musician and to an educator, and to be absolutely committed to memory.

6. That these three agencies appoint a committee to look into the matter of song material for Sunday schools. This has been done by the Music Supervisors National Conference under a most able committee, but the work needs support, for most Sunday schools use publications of their own publishing boards.

7. That the community-music bureaus thruout the country cooperate to formulate ways of helping the cause of people's music specially.

8. That the three organizations appoint a joint publicity committee to find ways of bringing musical help before the public. Mr. Dykema has done a nice and wise thing when, in his capacity of president of the Music Supervisors National Conference, he appointed an adviser in each state to look after the cause of music in the state. We need an organization that will have its workers in every state to bring home to the community in simple, direct ways the best thought in music for school and community.

In conclusion I would say that life is a whole, the school is a part of life, and to improve the whole environment is often the quickest way to improve one's teaching.

MUSIC EDUCATION AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

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The problem of education has a twofold aspect. There is, first, that phase of the subject which involves the direct contact between teacher and pupil in the schoolroom or elsewhere. It is the problem with which the

teacher, as such, is most directly concerned, and with which, as a rule, educators have chiefly concerned themselves. But direct teaching by word of mouth is not the only factor in the education of a nation. There is another which is not less important. In every community there are individuals whose thirst for knowledge and whose desire to advance themselves do not stop with the cessation of instruction in the classroom. In fact, one mark of a teacher's success may be discerned in the extent to which he has inspired his pupils to go on learning by themselves. In our struggle with the more immediate problems of pedagogy we are prone to forget the importance of the work of self-education, its significance for ourselves as teachers, and its value to the pupils who are in, or who have past out of, our care. After all, the measure of the intellectual stature, of the mental caliber, of a nation, is to be found, not in the amount of knowledge which has been poured into its people in the classroom, but in the intensity and genuineness of their desire to improve their own minds, and in the degree of their success in satisfying that desire.

The chief instruments in this process of self-education are books. Its method is that of many-sided, but systematic, reading and study. The institution which offers the easiest access to the means of study is the library. With respect to the organization of these means for popular self-education, we in America are more fortunate than the people of many European countries. Our American libraries have made great and well-directed efforts to foster the ideal of popular education. Access to books has been made far easier here than in most European libraries, which have remained primarily scholars' libraries.

Unfortunately for us who are interested in music, the development in our libraries and in the use of those libraries has not been uniform in all fields of mental activity. Along literary and scientific, along social, economic, and political lines, our libraries have done superior work; but the field of art, of musical art, at any rate, has been comparatively little cultivated. This is not entirely the fault of the libraries. It is due in great measure to the demands of the people who use them, to the lack of activity on the part of those who profess to be interested in music.

There are some factors which make the use of musical works more difficult than that of other books, even of books dealing with the other arts. But even tho we recognize this difficulty, there is no reason why it should not be possible in every good-sized community to have access to a public library, at any rate to the classics, for the voice and for such instruments as the piano and the violin. And in larger cities, which enjoy orchestral concerts or opera, even the orchestral scores and the vocal scores of the great masters should be available for the student.

There are in America just a few fairly large public music collections, such as those in the Public Library at Boston, the New York Public Library, the Library of Congress at Washington, and the Newberry Library at Chicago.

To these we might add a few of the university libraries. Some of the circulating libraries in the smaller cities, as well as in the large cities named, have attempted to provide material for musical readers. Some libraries have begun to circulate the perforated rolls used on player pianos and records for phonographic instruments. Some have even tried to encourage the use of these latter by practical exhibitions, little weekly recitals, which are a parallel to the weekly story-telling hour which many of our libraries have established for children.

This is evidence that the awakening of the musical sense of our ordinary citizens, which has marked the last few decades, has not been disregarded by our libraries. But much remains to be done. And it is for you as teachers to do your share in fostering the newly awakened sense and to call upon the libraries to aid you. All these new movements for the study of school music, community music, and folk-song, and for work in what is called appreciation, could be materially advanced if the libraries, especially in the smaller cities and towns, provided suitable material, and if (this is every bit as important) that material were put to use. I call upon you teachers to use your influence with librarians, boards of trustees, town councilors, boards of education, or whatever other authority regulates the purchase of books, to secure aid in this matter and by your own efforts to see to it that, where your appeal has been heeded, the books do not remain on the shelf to be covered with dust. I might add that there is not a single large library, like those I have mentioned, which would not joyfully aid such efforts by making suggestions, quoting prices, or giving advice as to the handling of musical material; and they would one and all welcome the appeal which might come to them either thru you directly or thru your library.

It has just been intimated that the presence of books on the shelves is not enough. The books must be used. And here we touch one of the sorest spots in our whole American educational and intellectual life, particularly that second aspect of the problem before emphasized—study and self-improvement. Here we fall far behind European nations, in which the work of self-education is beset with greater difficulties than in America. We want to get our knowledge too easily. We are not willing to work hard and systematically for it. We like to take it in tabloid form with no effort at digestion or assimilation. We would rather have someone lecture to us about it than dig for it ourselves. And as to the quality or fitness of the lecturer we are too often absolutely uncritical, provided only he be entertaining. That is particularly and painfully true in the field of music. There is an appalling number of people in our country lecturing on musical subjects or writing in our magazines whose whole knowledge of the matter they pretend to teach or to comment upon is gathered from some one book.

In my short experience as the custodian of the musical books in the New York Public Library it has happened repeatedly that a reader, coming into the Music Division and introducing himself with the remark, "I

am preparing a lecture on folk-song" or on some other topic, askt, "Which is the best book on the subject?" When several books were put before him, instead of trying to become familiar with them he repeated his query, "Which is considered the best?" and then, if one were recommended, particularly if it were a small book, he would push aside the rest and make no effort to get beyond that one. Of course, there are exceptions, but they serve only to make such instances as I have mentioned seem more shocking.

As it is with the teacher so it is with the pupil. So far as mere technical matters are concerned, our American music students as a whole compare very favorably with European students. We turn out numerous musicians whose voices and whose fingers can do as startling things as voices and fingers across the ocean. But that, in many cases, is all our students care about. In matters of musical knowledge, taste, and judgment they are far behind their European cousins. It is true that many of our music schools have compulsory courses in subjects that look toward a broader musical culture, but—and I say this in all seriousness and with all the emphasis I can give it—our average music student does not care enough for the deeper things of his art, and cares still less to spend any great part of his time in those more serious studies, which are not of immediate use from the viewpoint of technique, but which are absolutely necessary to the broadening of his musical horizon.

Our so-called musical public is in no better case. Its musical life is centered almost wholly in the opera house, the concert hall, or other place of public musical performance. It cares for nothing but the highly paid opera singer, the astonishing virtuoso, for much-advertised or much-criticized musical works—in fine, for the spectacular and sensational side of the art.

So long as the various new impulses which our national musical life has received, so long as the new interest and enthusiasm with which our people have responded to those impulses do not find a counterbalance to this external glamor in the quiet work of the study and the library, in the effort of the individual music teacher, music student, and music-lover to acquire a broader view and a deeper comprehension of his art (such as the intelligent perusal of the classics and of many good books on music alone can bring), all signs of awakening and of progress will be but a flash in the pan. The effort will be vain. The benefit cannot be lasting.

In this connection we come to the difficulty upon which I toucht before. It is almost useless to read about music so long as the musical signs which we see before us on the printed page mean nothing to us; so long as the musical sounds represented by the notes do not assume a living presence in our inner consciousness. Here again my experience in a large public music library has revealed to me a most surprising condition of affairs. It has happened to me repeatedly that writers on music, even such as enjoyed a fair reputation, were almost utterly helpless before a page of music without the aid of an instrument. They could repeat glibly the things they had read in

books about a musical work, but they were powerless to hear the sound and to divine the meaning of a few bars of even fairly simple music which they had before them. One theologian who talkt learnedly about hymns and hymn tunes, and who was in search of a particular tune, askt, when several compositions were laid before him to choose from, "Have you a piano handy? I want to see how this sounds."

The extent of this musical illiteracy, even among students in our higher institutions of musical training, would astound the uninitiated. We try to teach our children to appreciate the beauties of Longfellow and Tennyson in school. But we also teach them to read, so that they may help themselves to do this. We expect them to be able by their own reading to comprehend in a measure the greatness of an epic by Milton or of the dramas of Shakespeare. We do not wait until they have seen performances upon the stage of every play by Shakespeare, nor until someone has recited for them the whole of *Paradise Lost*. To be sure, the art of reading ordinary words has other and more practical uses than this, but even so the parallel between ordinary reading and the reading of music is not so far-fetcht. Even the most elementary musical education, such as we attempt to give those of our school children who have any musical instinct at all, must fall short of the ideal if it fails to enable them to make their own, by their own unaided efforts, such simple music as their intellects can grasp. And any further advance in the musical capacity of the nation will be impossible if this fundamental faculty be neglected. The stigma of illiteracy is for the music-lover as great, comparatively speaking, in his art, as ordinary illiteracy is for any civilized nation.

In closing I would utter a twofold plea to you as musical educators: In the first place, let your own work in musical self-education be such that your musical horizon may become wider, your interests more manifold, and your feeling and comprehension deeper. Be willing to devote some of your time to conscientious reading and serious study. Do not hesitate to make use of the collections of books and of the custodians of these collections, which are always at your service. It matters little where you begin, if only you do not stand still. And in the second place, see to it that the pupils who come under your care learn to read, that they may not be so utterly helpless, as they too often are, when their turn comes to increase their knowledge and to widen their horizon for themselves.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ESTHETIC EXPERIENCE IN MUSIC

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It is only a moderate statement of the difficulties involved in the psychology of music to say that the problem of human enjoyment is one of the most puzzling that psychology encounters; the problem of esthetic enjoy-

ment is harder than that of any other form of enjoyment, and musical enjoyment is apparently the most mysterious form of esthetic enjoyment. Moreover, the researches of very recent years have revealed an unexpected complexity in the problems of tone sensation itself, so that while a psychological textbook of a few years ago speaks simply about the pitch of tones, one published last year requires the student to distinguish between pitch, tonal character, and mellowness or shrillness of a tone.

It is not my plan to discuss the general problem of the esthetic experience at all this morning. I shall confine myself to two aspects of the esthetic experience as derived from music, namely, the relation of music to pleasure, and the relation of music to the complexer emotions. And I shall further limit myself to the discussion of one question with regard to these two aspects of music, namely: In what respect, if any, is it true that the pleasantness of music and the emotional appeal of music depend on laws that have no validity anywhere else in our experience? How far, in other words, is the musical experience really unique and mysterious; how far is it an illustration of more general psychological laws?

You will appreciate the distinction I have drawn between the significance of music for pleasure and its significance for the complexer emotions. It is a distinction which we must draw in the case of all the higher arts. The effect of a great work of art such as *Hamlet* or the *Fifth Symphony* would be very inadequately described by calling it pleasant; it should indeed not leave an unpleasant impression, but its main function is to stir up much deeper and more complex emotions. We shall therefore consider (1) how far musical enjoyment or pleasure depends on principles not governing our other enjoyments, and (2) how far and why the relation of music to emotion is unique.

What are the general laws of human enjoyment? Amid all the contradictions of individual tastes one central generalization does emerge. Our likes and dislikes are, broadly speaking, connected with the welfare either of the individual or of the species. On the whole, the things which we find agreeable are the things which are actually beneficial to us. It seems self-evident, if there is any truth in the doctrine of the survival of the fittest, that such creatures as like, and therefore sought, the things that harmed them should have perished; and that surviving animals should therefore be those with a natural taste for the normal. If we can show with regard to any source of pleasure that it contributes to the welfare of the organism, we feel that we have approached as nearly as possible an explanation. We dislike all forms of stimulation that are too intense or too long continued; intense and prolonged stimulation acts unfavorably on the nervous apparatus. We dislike rapidly intermittent stimulation, such as that given by touching a rough surface or looking at a flickering light; this kind of stimulation, too, may readily be conjectured to be injurious. We like anything that suggests to us free and unhampered movement; we dislike anything which,

like a Cubist picture or a moral dilemma, throws us into a baffled and uncertain motor attitude. It is bad for us to be baffled and uncertain; it is therefore unpleasant. Further, we like to recognize the familiar in the midst of the novel; the familiar is the safe, the beneficial. We hate to be surprised; we like to have our expectations satisfied. Surprise is, under primitive conditions of life, a dangerous experience. On the other hand, the too familiar becomes the fatiguing; thus temperaments fall into opposed classes, one of which enjoys the familiar and hates the new, while the other, more readily fatigable, is less unpleasantly affected by surprise.

Such, then, are some of the corollaries, applying in all departments of our experience, of the principle that we like what is good for us. Can musical enjoyment be wholly derived from these corollaries, or does it demand laws of its own? One of the first points to be noted with regard to musical enjoyment is the pleasantness of the raw material of music, the single tone sensation. A simple tone, struck on a tuning fork, has a quality of agreeableness perhaps greater than that belonging to any other equally simple sense experience. When we were children, seizing for a few instants the forbidden joy of drumming on the piano, our unjaded senses, as Kenneth Grahame has reminded us in *The Golden Age*, appreciated to the full the delightful quality of the single musical tone. "The pure, absolute quality and nature of each note in itself are only appreciated by the strummer." Altho the freshness of childhood is needed for the full savoring of the pleasantness of a single tone, yet no one who is really capable of hearing tones can conceive that a musical tone of moderate pitch, loudness, and duration can be anything but pleasant.

Is there, now, any connection between the natural pleasantness of the single tone and the general laws of human enjoyment? Such a connection has been suggested by Vernon Lee, with the principle that our enjoyment of sensations is dulled by too great familiarity. Musical tones, compared with other sensations, are rare experiences, and have not had a chance to lose their native delightfulness. This suggestion would find support if, as some recent researches indicate, the sensory apparatus for tones should turn out to be quite different from that for noise. In any case the pleasantness of tones is connected with a rarely used and hence wholly unfatigued mode of functioning of a sense organ. Another way in which the comparative rarity of tone experiences may be made to account for their pleasantness, in accordance with general psychological laws, would be thru the fact that tone sensations as such have no disagreeable associations. Certain single colors that would otherwise be agreeable are unpleasant because of the objects they suggest: thus a dark yellow is the color of mud. Single tones have no such suggestions as these.

While, then, musical enjoyment has as a peculiar asset the naturally agreeable character of single tone sensations, this character may be traced to the working of a general psychological law not confined to tonal experi-

ence—the law that a sensation from an unfatigued sense organ, with no unpleasant associations, is naturally agreeable. A more complicated problem is presented by the pleasantness or unpleasantness of tone-combinations, simultaneous and successive. All theories of consonance make some attempt to refer the cause of the agreeableness or disagreeableness that is produced when two tones are sounded together to laws that transcend the field of music and are based on human nature as a whole; but some theories must travel a long and weary road of speculation before the connection is established. For example, Stumpf finds that consonant tone intervals are those in which the two tones sound most like one—those which have what he calls the greatest fusion degree. In the dissonant intervals of the second and the seventh it is apparent to the ear that there are two distinct tones. In the supremely consonant interval of the octave, on the other hand, the two tones blend almost indistinguishably, and the intervals of the fifth and major third make an impression of greater singleness and simplicity than do the second and seventh. But there is no obvious reason why simplicity of impression should be more agreeable than a reasonable degree of complexity. We do not enjoy a solo more than a duet. It is only dissonant complexity that is disagreeable, which leaves the question where it was before. Much theorizing, into which we have not time to follow him, is needed to enable Stumpf to bring the pleasantness of consonance into relation with any other esthetic principle. A similar criticism may be made of another famous theory, that suggested by Lipps. As you all know, the vibration rates of the air waves that produce the tones used in the musical scale stand in certain fixed ratios to one another. If the vibration rate of the first tone in the octave be regarded as 1, that of the octave above will be 2. The ratio of the rate of a tone to that of the fifth tone above it is 2 to 3; that of a tone to the major third above it is 4 to 5; that of a tone to the fourth above it is 4 to 3. Thus the pleasant or consonant tone-combinations are those whose vibration rates stand in simple ratios. On the other hand, the tones which are unpleasant when sounded together have their vibration rates in complex ratios; the minor second has the ratio 16 to 15; the major second the ratio 9 to 8; the seventh, the ratio 15 to 8. Lipps says that a tone-combination is pleasanter the simpler the ratio of the vibration rates of the tones combined. But how can this be when people who are perfectly ignorant of the simplicity or complexity of these ratios still find fourths agreeable and sevenths disagreeable? It is a matter, Lipps says, of unconscious rhythm. If two vibrations, falling on the ear, have frequencies that are in a simple ratio, such as 1 to 2, every second nervous impulse will coincide; if the ratio is complex, like 8 to 15, there will be a perfectly irregular and unrhymic excitation. Altho we are not conscious of this rhythm as such, yet Lipps seems to think we can explain it as we explain our enjoyment of the consciously experienced rhythm of a drum. Certainly this is a far-fetched and unattractive hypothesis.

One hesitates to simplify where such authorities as Stumpf and Lipps have found it impossible to do so, yet I cannot refrain from hoping that in place of fusion degree or unconscious rhythm some of the principles which we have already mentioned may be found sufficient to explain the pleasantness or unpleasantness of tone-combinations. One of these principles is that we like what we are used to, so long as its familiarity is not so great as to pass over into fatigue. We are all thoroly used to the intervals which have the highest degree of consonance, namely, the octave, the fifth, and the major third, not because they are used in music, but because nature constantly provides them for us as partial tones. The first overtone is the octave, the second overtone is the fifth, the third overtone is the second octave, the fourth overtone is the major third. To these tone-combinations our ears are first to respond in the great majority of cases where tones are heard. The cross-principle, that we grow fatigued with the too familiar, will explain a whole series of phenomena in the range of musical appreciation, from the fact that most people find the octave and fifth insipid compared with the fourth, to the fact that some people find Haydn insipid compared to Richard Strauss.

Again, one of the earliest theories of consonance, that of Helmholtz, correlated the disagreeableness of a dissonance, such as the second or the seventh, with the law that all rapidly intermittent stimulation is unpleasant because somehow injurious to the nervous apparatus. Dissonant intervals, he held, always involve the roughness of beats, either between the fundamental tones or their overtones, and the disagreeableness of beats is like that of a rough surface or a flickering light. One of the most recent theories—that of Krueger—seems to explain consonance as due to the absence of interference from difference tones. There is some experimental evidence against the supposition that beats are the source of dissonance, but into this we have not time to go. If all unpleasant tone-combinations are those which produce fatiguing interference phenomena, such as beats, one would have to explain the pleasantness of consonant-combinations on the same principle that makes the single tone an agreeable experience—if a single tone is pleasant, the more tones we hear simultaneously without disagreeable roughnesses due to interference the more pleasure we get.

This principle, again, may be applied to the theories which relate the agreeable character of a consonant interval to what is called tone relationship. Two tones are more nearly related the more overtones or partial tones they have in common. Since all the overtones of the upper tone in an octave are also overtones of the lower tone, the octave has the greatest degree of direct tone relationship: the upper tone of the fifth has four overtones in common with the lower tone within the compass of three octaves, while the dissonant intervals of seventh and minor second have no common overtones at all. When overtones do not coincide, we may get interference

phenomena; when they do coincide, we get more pleasantness because more tones are present.

On the whole, it seems probable that all the facts regarding the pleasantness of simultaneous tone-combinations may be derived from laws whose generality transcends the special field of music. The same may be said, I think, of the pleasantness of successive tone-combinations. There are two groups of facts which fall under this head: the facts of melody and those of rhythm. Authorities on musical esthetics tend to explain melody on the same principle that they use to explain consonance; thus Lipps applies the law of simple ratios, and Stumpf even declares that fusion occurs between one tone and the memory image of its predecessor. There is, however, the added problem as to how a melody, a series of tones, gains unity for the mind. Apparently the agreeableness of recognition applies to our satisfaction with the return to the tonic; we enjoy everywhere and always the safe return to a recognized starting-point after wanderings. Thus we enjoy the recurrence of a musical phrase in a composition as we enjoy the recurrence of a motive in a decoration; to recognize in the midst of diversity is a reassuring experience. The pleasantness of a rhythmic series of sounds, as distinct from its deeper emotional appeal, of which I shall speak presently, rests mainly on two principles: first, there is the law that we enjoy whatever suggests free and unhampered bodily movement, as we enjoy the upward sweep of the Gothic arch. Free movement, owing to the construction of the human body, is naturally rhythmic; unrhythmic movements are for the most part constrained and difficult. The second principle is that we like to have our expectations satisfied. We like not only to meet the same motive repeated in a decoration, but to have it recur at equal and symmetrical intervals, just when we expect it. A rhythmic series of sounds is one in which the accents occur just when we expect them. In an unrhythmic series, we feel precisely the same kind of irritation that we experience when someone makes a mistake in a familiar quotation. The disappointment of expectation is closely related to that primitively dangerous experience of surprise.

I think we may sum up a discussion of the sources of musical pleasure by saying that all of them are sources not peculiar to music. We enjoy music for the same reasons that we enjoy other things. There is a problem of musical enjoyment—a problem of great complexity—but there is no mystery of musical enjoyment. The case is somewhat different with regard to our second topic, of which I must speak in a very few words—the emotional appeal of music.

The uniqueness of music's appeal to the emotions is, as you all know, its power to reach them directly. It gets at them without the use of any associations derived from the individual's experience. The other arts suggest emotion to us by giving us thoughts or mental pictures which our past personal history has associated with emotions. The musician cannot sug-

gest thoughts, except musical thoughts, and he cannot suggest imagery with any definiteness. In an investigation carried out by Weld, at Clark University, a piece of music of the most pronounst program type, intended to describe a hunting scene, called up in its hearers images of a circus, an auction sale, an amusement park, and a battle. Yet there is no such inconsistency in the emotions and moods awakened by music. Since, then, its emotional appeal is thus independent of association with individual experience, it must be based on racial experience.

I believe that this direct appeal to emotion, which constitutes, if anything does, the real mystery of music, is due to its profound and ancient social significance. Herbert Spencer, you know, found the origin of music in impassioned speech, and Stumpf derives it from signal calls. These theories tell only a part of the truth, but we cannot overlook the fact that the sense of hearing has a more direct hold than any other sense on our emotions, because it is the medium of human communication, the means by which one soul reaches another; and nothing in the world is so compelling to the emotions as the mind of another human being. Again, as you know, Wallaschek accused Spencer of leaving out of his theory the most fundamental element in music, rhythm. We must not omit rhythm in speaking of the emotional appeal of music. And the emotional power of rhythm is derived from the immense emotional power of the mob. All concerted action by a mass of individuals must be rhythmic. In the wild dances of primitive man, in which the individual merges himself in the crowd and feels his powers increast a thousand fold by the contagion of its emotions, we find the source of the magic of rhythm. The sense of hearing reaches the emotions directly because it is the medium of social intercourse; musical sound is the kind of sound that is produced under the stress of emotion; rhythmic sound means that the emotion is magnified and exalted by being shared with a whole mass of one's fellow-beings.

MECHANICAL INVENTIONS AS AN AID TO THE TEACHING OF MUSIC

LEO RICH LEWIS, PROFESSOR OF MUSIC, TUFTS COLLEGE,
TUFTS COLLEGE, MASS.

Let me give you a few results of twenty-four years of belief in automatic instruments. Let us first observe that there are three different uses of these instruments: (1) in concert, (2) in classroom demonstration, and (3) in the "laboratory." As to the first, these instruments, in their most recent developments and in the hands of a skilled performer, can do remarkable things. Educationally, these possibilities are of importance, but not of prime importance. As to the second, they make it possible for the technically unskilled but well-informed teacher to present to a class

the representative works of all periods of the art, and, with the aid of copious existing literature concerning music, to lay a firm foundation of musical taste. But the third phase of their usefulness is, it seems to me, the most important. These instruments make it possible for the student to study music exactly as he studies biology, physics, chemistry.

But these devices are doing more than that. They are helping us to practice principles of pedagogy which are now, as it seems to me, being too much neglected. I may be in error, but, in viewing the course of things pedagogical, I seem to find that we are failing to devote our attention to the organization of the mind. We make millions of impress minds, but few organized minds. We college people are finding it necessary to do what the secondary schools have been supposed to do in many branches; and, even at that, we are finding ourselves unable to develop a real power to "tackle" a new problem. We can blame no one, certainly no individual teacher. But, in music, I prize the automatic instrument because it can fully and definitely organize the mind as to musical art; and I confess an intense regret that it is not more generally used specifically to that end. But I must not linger on this topic. It would lead us too far afield.

But you have, in the automatic player, the means by which the pupil can clarify his own ideas. And you naturally ask, "Do you expect that we shall have player pianos in such abundance that every student shall have that opportunity?" My answer is: "Probably not every student in the school, for not every student will wish to study music; but I do believe that not until we accept the principle that only by such laboratory methods can any fruitful study of the art be attained shall we be making real progress toward a respectable minimum of attainment in the study of music—not in the performance of music, which department is now fairly well provided for.

And let me mention one other point of the many which might be taken up if time allowed. I select this point because I have not seen it discussed anywhere. As things are at present in our schools, pupils are restricted to acquaintance with music which they themselves can perform, and largely to vocal music. The great monuments of the art are never presented to them unless they live in a large city. It is as tho in the study of English no Shakespeare, no Milton, could be studied, but only the lesser masters, or passages of the great authors, "arranged for school use." What a change in this respect is bound to come when the possibilities of automatic instruments are thoroly understood by those in charge of our schools!

And yet the possibilities of the player piano are not exhausted as to showing features of interpretation, for the recording instruments can bring to us characteristic renderings by great artists; and the talking machine can be of the greatest service in presenting vocal works of all sorts. These matters claim our attention here less than others, however, because we are continually reminded of them by the manufacturers of the instruments.

Indeed, I have sometimes thought that the enthusiastic emphasizing of these wonders of the inventor's art prevented our seeing the value of the machines in the less fascinating but more serviceable phases of music-study.

Here we are in the midst of an epoch which we confess ourselves unable to grasp. Not merely do world-convulsions daze us, but we look almost despairingly upon the future of a movie-educated generation, with imprecise, but unorganized, minds, and we wonder whence shall come the force which shall keep alive in the world the educational ideals which are so dear as well as definite to us, no matter how imperfectly we have been able to realize them. The pessimist has a right to be limply hopeless. And yet who shall say that the spirit of this careless, but marvelously inventive, age, this materialistically imaginative epoch, has not begotten a child that shall have power to keep alive the very art which, in view of the tendencies of the times, seemed most likely to languish. That the Siegfried of the immediate future of music should be a machine is no more unfitting than that the hero of the present war should be a machine. Let us rally to the Machine's support with the conviction that its influence can be wholly beneficent, if we so will it.

THE FOLK-SONG

LUISE HAESSLER, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF GERMAN, HUNTER COLLEGE,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

What is a folk-song? The word itself sounds almost as foreign as "fatherland," altho the former is applied to all countries, while the latter is practically a proper noun. It is perhaps because of the recent naturalization of the word "folk-song" that the *New English Dictionary* does not mention it under a separate head, but only as an illustration of the meanings of folk, "current or existing among the people; as folk-belief; -custom, -literature, -name, -song, -speech, &c."

The German word *Volkstied*, of which folk-song is a translation, was probably first used by Herder in the little pamphlet *Von deutscher Art und Kunst*, published in 1773; hence about a hundred years before it was translated into English. Interest in the folk-song, however, goes back to 1580, almost two hundred years before Herder. Almost simultaneously Montaigne, in France, to whom Herder himself refers, and Sir Philip Sidney, in England, speak approvingly of the folk-song, but do not as yet distinguish its character from that of the art song. In 1711 Addison tells us in the *Spectator* of his delight in the songs of the common people. It is a significant fact that Herder's great interest in the folk-song, and that of his disciples, arose at a time when Rousseau had electrified the world with his cry, "Back to nature." But the direct impulse was given by the publica-

tion of Percy's *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* in 1765, and of MacPherson's *Ossian*. Herder was not always consistent in his conception of the folk-song, but on the whole we may state his idea of a typical folk-song as follows: Any song of an author, known or unknown, that could be sung, especially one that was really sung by the people unspoiled by education, reflecting the character of these people in its natural, passionate, lively content, and its simple, partly imperfect, form.

The Romanticists cast a veil of mysticism especially about the origin of the folk-song, the ill effects of which have not wholly disappeared even in our own time. Their notion, however, that the folk-song was somehow produced by the common people as a whole is entirely exploded. The creator of a song is always an individual who stands out above the surrounding multitude. He is the gifted one. And it is gratifying to know that women play a prominent part in the creation of the folk-song; that in many, if not in most, cases they are the sole creators. There is no better answer to the assertion so frequently made that women have no creative faculty. Let those who have any doubt in the matter read chapter vii in Böckel's *Psychologie der Volksdichtung: Die Frauen und ihr Anteil am Volksgesang*, and chapter viii in Bücher's *Arbeit und Rhythmus—Frauenarbeit und Frauendichtung*.

It is a source of pride, too, to know that a woman, Talvj, was the first to formulate, in a thoroly scientific way, the characteristics of the folk-song, and that her definition, published in 1840, practically holds today. Talvj distinguishes two kinds of folk-song according to their origin: (1) such as the people themselves have produced, and (2) inherited possessions of the people, partly produced by poets of the higher classes. But she adds that the former must have had a distinct influence upon the development of the people; that the latter must for a long time have been the exclusive possession of the lower classes. Hence not every production of a peasant is a folk-song; it must be approved and accepted by the people.

Today two points of view in regard to the folk-song are prevalent, one school insisting that the author be unknown, the other considering the origin of the folk-song of no moment, but emphasizing the attitude of the people toward the folk-song as a lordly attitude of full possession. The latter is the view of John Meier, who is probably the greatest authority on the German *Volkslied* today.

The killing of a man may be accidental or it may be murder. It depends upon the mental attitude of the killer. Whether a particular song is an art song or a folk-song depends upon the attitude of the singer. John Meier cites the song "In einem kühlen Grunde," written in 1809 by Joseph von Eichendorff, which has become a true folk-song. If it is sung in school or by a singing society, it is an art song. If it is sung by a village girl who does not know the author and cares nothing about him—who sings the song for the love of it—it is a folk-song; but if this village girl tries to sing the

song as Eichendorff wrote it, the song is an art song, even tho the girl should make some mistakes.

It may be interesting to note the view of two poets in regard to the folk-song. In September, 1911, the French writer, Marc Henry, calling attention to his past efforts to bring France and Germany closer together, invited his friend, the German writer Hanns Heinz Ewers, to collaborate with him in editing a book of French folk-songs for the German people. The book appeared in the summer of 1912. In the Introduction we find the following characterization of the folk-song:

Nothing is more amusing than to follow up any folk-song thru time and regions. All possible circumstances change in a strange way, now the melody, now the content. Sometimes, like little marmots, or even, more poetically, like the Sleeping Beauty, they fall asleep, sleep more than a hundred years, until some event arouses them and makes them awake to new life. The popular imagination often confounds persons and deeds, it ascribes fanciful deeds to historical personages or, vice versa, historical events to imaginary heroes—life's fairy tales.

The folk-song is in a constant state of flux, as the experience of Murko in Bosnia and Herzegovina shows. When he askt a singer why he had changed a part of the text, the latter answered, "It happens so while singing." Another singer, when told that he had not sung a song as he had before, remarkt, "The song is not out of a book; when it gets into a book, then it is settled." But Murko adds that his records showed that not even that was true. Hence we cannot say that any particular version of a folk-song is the true version; all the versions are true versions. A folk-song "born of the people" has neither beginning nor end. We do not know what the first version was, and we cannot tell what the song may become. Meier sees in this constant change the fundamental characteristic of the folk-song.

To understand the nature of a folk-song, we must therefore study a folk-song which has been derived from a known art song. Ankenbrand found 125 different versions of the text of a folk-song about "the jealous lad" and 40 versions of the melody. The latter fact, by the way, shows that the melody is more stable than the text. How do these variations arise? Primarily because of the oral transmission of the folk-song. Singers frequently have a repertoire of more than a hundred folk-songs. Similar expressions in different songs will cause two or more of these to coalesce, and the stanzas that become incongruous by the process are dropt. Often the similarity or identity of melody causes fusion or transference.

The folk-song is not historical; its theme is that of humanity in general. Which of the rich harvest of German songs produced during the present war will survive? Not Lissauer's "Song of Hate," which is already dying, if not dead. Only the songs which breathe truly human sentiment will live on. It is not surprising, therefore, that many songs are international, as for instance, the "Song of Marlborough," which we find, not only in France—where it originated—in England, and in Germany, but even in Egypt, sung by the Arabs in Arabic. Our own "Yankee Doodle" is

probably derived from a Hessian folk-song, brought to our country during the Revolution.

The folk-song is generally composed in the literary language, not in dialect. This has been observed in France, in Germany, and in England. It is supposed to be due to the great awe and reverence people feel for the art of poetry. Most people in their early history regard the power of song as the inspiration or direct expression of the divinity. In this connection it is interesting to note that many of the smaller tribes of the Caucasus do not sing in their own language, but in that of the neighboring larger tribes. Just what the reason may be in these instances remains to be investigated.

In Germany the folk-song is a hundred years behind the art song, out of which it has developed or from which it has derived its inspiration. The interval of time, of course, depends upon the social and economic organization of society and upon the state of education of the various ranks of society. Thus in Germany the required years of military training, broadening the horizon of the individual by contact with men from all parts of the country and from all ranks of society, necessarily tend to shorten this interval.

The more or less archaic character of the folk-song is borne out by the phonographic records of epic folk-songs which Murko took in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the summer of 1913. Murko says that the epic song is of such nature that often only natives of the region, but not inhabitants of other countries speaking the same language, can understand it; and sometimes even the natives, if they have lost touch with the common people, understand it with difficulty.

In the folk-song the melody is intimately connected with the text. Collectors have repeatedly found that singers of folk-songs were unable to repeat the words without the melody. In Ravno the priest Don Ivan Raguž, well versed in song and music, remarks to Murko that epic songs were of value only when sung; that the singer, when dictating, immediately fell into prose.

When the investigation of the folk-song got its great impetus through Herder in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, and for a long time thereafter, the interest centered in the literary side. The musical aspect has not received the attention it deserves, although present-day investigators are alive to the importance and the difficulty of the question. It is not easy to interpret and write down accurately melodic progressions that differ from those to which we are accustomed. There is always the tendency to substitute familiar progressions for unfamiliar ones. The Folk-Song Society of England admonishes its collectors to have the song sung several times before attempting to write down the melody, as it is never sung twice the same. Only an expert can judge what the melody probably is. Even the most expert result is no doubt a new version of the folk-song.

Böckel says of the folk-songs in Oberhessen that one can get the true melody only when many sing together; that it is often difficult to recognize the melody when it is sung by an individual. We can readily see that the phonograph would not be wholly satisfactory, altho Murko has obtained good results with it.

In histories and dictionaries of music we often read that our modern music forms are based on the song and dance forms. It used to be a puzzle to me in what respect the song form and dance form differed from one another; how one could tell whether a certain musical form had developed from the song form or from the dance form. Now a study of the folk-song teaches us that there is no difference. Until the beginning of the eighteenth century every dance form was also a song form, for before that time purely instrumental dances were unknown. As a typical illustration we may take the following description given by Dirr of a Georgian dance: "The people generally form a circle, in the middle of which one person dances. One or two sing the words, the rest drone the bass without any words, and all beat time with their hands."

What part may the folk-song play in education? It should be cultivated for its own sake because of its freshness and beauty. It may be a valuable aid in vivifying other subjects of the curriculum, such as reading, literature, geography, and history, especially geography.

And finally we should foster in the children of our immigrants a pride in their contribution to our wealth. They only too often despise their mother-tongue and native customs. Let them learn to respect and love them by cultivating their treasure. Many of their folk-songs are already available. The Oliver Ditson Co. has published, not only *One Hundred Songs of England*, *Seventy Scottish Songs*, *Sixty Irish Songs*, *Sixty Folk-Songs of France*, but also *Sixty Patriotic Songs of All Nations*, *One Hundred Folk-Songs of All Nations*, and *Folk-Songs of Eastern Europe*. In all except the last named both the original text and an English translation are given. In the *Folk-Songs of Eastern Europe* only the melody is original. The words are by friends of the editor, Ralph Radcliffe Whitehead.

Mr. Whitehead says in his preface:

The folk-songs of Eastern Europe have been too much neglected owing to the difficulty of singing the words of so many strange languages. The desire to bring some of these songs within the reach of the English-speaking public may perhaps be sufficient excuse for what at first sight appears to be the impertinence of providing these melodies with new words. The reason for so doing is that very few of these old melodies are found accompanied by words as old as themselves. Most of them are sung to words put to them in the nineteenth century. These words are only occasionally suitable to the music; in most cases they are commonplace; sometimes they are vulgar.

The only impertinence lies in the assertion that the words are not suitable to the music. The suitability is wholly a subjective matter. If, however, the teacher will make clear that only the music belongs to the country, no harm will be done in singing the American words.

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL AND AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—GEORGE A. WORKS, professor of rural education, Cornell University . . . Ithaca, N.Y.

Vice-President—HENRY N. GODDARD, high school inspector, State Department of Education,
Madison, Wis.

Secretary—W. S. TAYLOR, associate professor of agricultural education, University of Texas,
Austin, Tex.

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1916

The opening meeting of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education was called to order in the Ballroom of Hotel McAlpin at 9:30 A.M., by President George A. Works. C. H. Lane, chief specialist in agricultural education, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C., was appointed secretary.

The following program was presented:

"The Farm Bureau as an Agent in Local Development"—M. C. Burrit, state leader of farm bureaus, Ithaca, N.Y.

"Field Exercises in Their Relation to Agricultural Teaching"—K. C. Davis, professor of agriculture, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

"The Home Project in Secondary-School Agriculture"—L. H. Dennis, director of agricultural education, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The second session was a joint meeting of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education with the Rural School Committee of the American Library Association, President Works presiding.

The following program was presented:

"The Rural School and the Reading Habit"—Henry N. Sanborn, secretary, Indiana State Library Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.

"Rural-School Extension Work by the New York State College of Agriculture"—E. M. Tuttle, editor, *Cornell Rural-School Leaflet*, Ithaca, N.Y.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—W. H. French, professor of agricultural education, Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing, Mich.

Vice-President—L. M. Smith, supervisor of agricultural education, State Department of Public Instruction, Indianapolis, Ind.

Secretary—C. H. Lane, chief specialist in agricultural education, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

C. H. LANE, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE FARM BUREAU AS AN AGENT IN LOCAL DEVELOPMENT

M. C. BURRIT, STATE LEADER OF FARM BUREAUS FOR NEW YORK,
ITHACA, N.Y.

At the outset it should be recognized that the problem which the farm-bureau movement aims to meet is that of adult rather than junior education. Adult education involves many different factors, altho the underlying principles are much the same. Some of the factors which must be met are those of the greater experience of the adult and the tendency to fixity in ideas, habits, and methods of work. This frequently leads to strong prejudices, difficult to overcome. Moreover, the method of approach to the person taught is very different. The authority and the organization of the school are lacking. There is lack of continued teaching contact. This irregularity and infrequency of contact, together with the fixt ideas and prejudices are serious factors.

There have been three great epochs in the development of agricultural science and of adult agricultural education in this country. The first of these was the establishment and early development of the agricultural college; the second was the establishment and early development period of the experiment station, or research work in agriculture; the third epoch, the one in which we find ourselves at present, is the development of the extension of agricultural fact and teaching.

With the first and second of these we are not concerned now, save to remind ourselves that the foundation of the agricultural colleges rests on the Morrill Act of July 2, 1862, supplemented by the second and third Morrill acts of 1890 and 1907, and that the experiment stations were founded by the Hatch Act of March 2, 1887, and supplemented by the Adams Act of 1906.

The extension movement in agriculture, which we may call the third great epoch in the development of adult agricultural education, had its beginnings in the decade just preceding this century. For nearly thirty years we have had what we commonly know as farmers' institutes, which are essentially a part of the extension movement. During the last five years most of the states have recognized that the function of the state to teach better agriculture must be extended beyond centralized institutions, and have granted small appropriations for the carrying-on of extension work.

The real extension epoch in agriculture was, however, ushered in by the great Smith-Lever Act of May 8, 1914. Its objects are "to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information in agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same . . . to persons not attending or resident at said colleges." The amounts of money appropriated by this Act, supplemented by the state

appropriations, will eventually enable the agricultural colleges to meet the problem in a fairly adequate manner. The maximum appropriation in 1922 and 1923, and thereafter, will be \$4580, all but the initial \$600,000 of which must be duplicated by the states in order to make it available. This extension work is organized as a branch of the agricultural college. It is carried on chiefly by means of extension schools, reading courses, public lectures, field demonstrations, and similar methods.

The farm-bureau idea is partly an outgrowth, and partly a local development phase, of the extension movement. Its primary purposes in New York State are twofold: (1) the extension of the knowledge and work of the agricultural college and experiment station. This phase practically amounts to a branch of the extension division; (2) the development, organization, and stimulation of local rural forces. The second purpose of the work is no less important than the first, tho, in my judgment, it has been given inadequate emphasis in the majority of the states. This phase of the work contemplates the taking of an inventory of the rural situation and forces, particularly along economic lines at first, and the organization of these forces to meet the opportunities in each rural community. It further contemplates the searching-out, stimulating, and encouragement of local rural leadership, so that the extension forces of the centralized institutions may be supplemented by the equally forceful and wholly rural community effort.

The beginnings of the farm-bureau movement are to be found in the southern states, where since 1902 there has been developed a great centralized, but chiefly federal, effort along extension and demonstration lines. A tremendous amount of good has been accomplished, but, in my judgment, a serious weakness is that, projected from the distant and centralized federal government, it does not adequately meet the rural problem in that it fails to develop enough local rural responsibility, organization, and leadership. A similar development is found in the province of Ontario, in Canada, where the work has been under way for nearly ten years.

In the thirty-three northern states "outside the Cotton Belt," as Congress designates the area, the farm-bureau idea was first developed in southern New York. Out of these small beginnings the work has spread in five years to something more than 400 counties in the northern states. Local organization receives more emphasis than in the South and the resident rural forces have a larger part in the work. The work in New York State differs most perhaps from that in the other states in the much greater emphasis placed upon local organization and the resident rural forces. I must, of necessity, speak to you chiefly from the point of view of the work in New York State.

Five years of activity in the conduct of the work have led us to believe that there are certain fundamental principles which should be observed in work of this kind if the objects which we have in view are to be achieved.

Any plan of adult education must take into consideration the experience and consequent comparative fixity of ideas and methods of thought of adults. Among farmers one must also reckon with that natural conservatism, inevitable with the great mass of men who deal directly with nature—the soil, the weather, plants, animals, etc. In the open country another manifestation of this element of human nature is reluctance to accept a new plan or a new line of effort. Another is an equal hesitancy to accept responsibility for the plan, even when finally convinced of its reasonableness. Experience has taught us, however, that both these considerations usually give way to the stronger element in human nature, especially among rural people—namely, the appeal to the natural desire to be independent.

It is with this fact in mind that our efforts are first directed toward getting the county which is to have state and federal aid in organizing a farm bureau to provide at least three-fifths of the cost of the work. This tends to establish proprietorship and to arouse interest and respect for the plan. What men pay for they are more likely to appreciate. The next step is to organize a farmers' association and obtain the pledges of not less than 10 per cent of the farmers of the county to secure and maintain moral and financial support and to manage the enterprise locally.

The fulfilment of these conditions on the part of the county accomplishes two objects: (1) it measures the real interest of farmers in the thing desired; (2) once started, it puts the promoters in a receptive mood toward a constructive and efficient plan of organization which may be proposed to them, and which straightway becomes the locally accepted plan. A good part of the responsibility for the work then belongs to the community. Thus real and effective partnership between the agricultural college and the rural communities is secured and equal responsibility assumed at the beginning.

Thus we have the community paying approximately three-fifths of the cost of the work and providing at the same time an organization of farmers to manage the enterprise locally. We have in thirty-six counties in New York State total estimated financial resources for carrying on the work in 1916, amounting to more than \$145,000, or over \$4000 per county. Of this amount the localities themselves provide more than \$100,000, or about two-thirds of the entire cost. Again, approximately 13,000 farmers are identified with the organizations which are carrying forward this work. Of these about 300 are executive committeemen, engaged in managing the enterprise locally, and about 1600 are advisory councilmen. In addition, during 1915 there were a little over 4000 cooperators in carrying on the field-test and demonstration work.

We hold that the surest way to help a community is to help it to help itself, that is, to put it in the way of self-betterment. Communities, like men, grow by doing rather than by having done for them. For this reason effort to bring about agricultural improvement should be along the line of searching out, encouraging, stimulating, and developing local leadership

and organization, and then utilizing these local resident forces to work out community problems. Not only is it easier to help such forces with suggestion, illustration, and demonstration of principles, but it is the most efficient way to bring about a solution of local problems that will be permanent in the community. Perhaps I can best illustrate this principle by outlining the New York plan of farm-bureau work.

In doing so, however, I should like to call attention to the size and extent of the problem of adult agricultural education in the rural communities of New York State. Some careful analyses of the problem in several counties indicate that the number of communities in our rural counties varies from 26 (Tioga) to 98 (Cattaraugus). If we assume an average of 50, we have then in the agricultural counties of this state not less than 2500 such communities. Each of these separate communities represents a problem by itself. An inventory must be taken of this problem and of the resident and non-resident forces which may be factors in its solution.

There are necessarily two divisions of our effort in farm-bureau organization—one administrative and the other advisory. The administrative function is carried out by a committee of from seven to nine farmers, elected by the county association. These men are responsible for raising and paying out local funds, making agreements with the central office at the agricultural college, jointly employing an agent or manager, and for the formulation of local policies. This is a comparatively small number of men, but their leadership, initiative, judgment, and ability are exceedingly important in making work successful.

The advisory committee has to do with the carrying-out of the plan of work with the farm-bureau manager in each community in the county, and is, therefore, much larger. The ideal is to have at least one, and preferably from three to five, such advisory committeemen in each community in the county. It is expected that each farmer who accepts an appointment on the advisory council will (1) represent his community in the bureau, (2) represent the bureau in his community, and (3) meet in sectional and county-wide meetings to discuss and to determine upon the most important local problems, and to recommend a county agricultural-improvement program.

Thus in this plan we have (1) a responsible local committee backt by an organization with which to deal administratively in the management of the work, and (2) an organization which reaches into each community in the county with the necessary local representation. When the farm-bureau manager, carrying out the program outlined by the advisory committee as a whole and adopted by the executive committee, seeks a point of contact or a place to get a hold in a particular community, he naturally consults with the advisory councilman. This resident representative, selected because he enjoys the confidence and the respect of his community, and because he has knowledge of its local problems and conditions, is able to introduce him

to friends and neighbors best qualified and willing to undertake the cooperative work. In pursuance of this plan of organization and community cooperation, about 1600 such community representatives have been selected in the 30 counties in the state which are organized for the work, or about 40 per county.

It is my belief, as a result of eight years of close, first-hand observation of rural problems in this state, that there exists in every community the forces and the ability to solve that community's problems. They are frequently latent and undeveloped, but they are none the less there. These forces must be sought out, stimulated, trained, and developed, and then applied to the problems of the community. In view of the experience, conservatism, and prejudices of communities, it is frequently necessary to make a demonstration of what can be done by organization and leadership before the community can be started to work along this line.

It has been said that farmers are poor business men. This is not necessarily so. What is probably true is that most farmers, because the total business which they have to do is small, and because their capital is usually turned over only once a year, do not get as much training in business affairs as business men of the same financial resources in the towns. Altho in limited numbers, farmers of our committees are getting some excellent training in business affairs, and in organizing and conducting this piece of educational work. This is especially true of executive committeemen.

But it is with the advisory committeemen, who are brought in constant contact with the manager of the bureau and with extension workers from the college, and upon whom is placed the responsibility of representing their communities, that this training for leadership, especially counts. To have their efforts combined with those of similarly minded men, to absorb the enthusiasm that usually comes when numbers of men are working together for a worthy object, and to bear the responsibility and the honor of representing one's community, rapidly develops these men into real community-leaders. If this can be effectively done in every one of the 2500 rural communities in this state, and if these men carrying out the purpose for which they are selected, are able to organize their communities, to work with the agricultural colleges and the experiment stations, to teach themselves and their neighbors better methods of production, better methods of handling and organizing their business, and of marketing and distributing their products, much permanent good will have been done.

As I have already indicated, the work is yet young and there is great need for the general development and perfection of the plan. During the last year the membership organizations supporting the work locally have, as a whole, doubled numerically. Not only has the average number of members been substantially raised, but there are fewer inefficient organizations and more of a strength which approaches a maximum of effectiveness.

The development of the advisory councils is most gratifying, both in the number of strong local leaders taking up the work, and in the quality and activity of these men.

The local farm-bureau associations thru their advisory councils and executive committees have assumed the responsibility for determining the kind of work to be done in their respective counties and communities, expressing this in carefully drawn semi-permanent agricultural programs, to be carried out by still more definite annual projects.

A striking feature of the year's progress in the work has been the stimulation of interest, and the crystallization and organization of many latent forces in communities into associations to deal with specific problems, such as community breeding, seed-production, standardization of crops, and like enterprises.

Field tests and demonstrations have become a generally accepted method of farm-bureau teaching and effort. These have been organized and carried out in most of the counties to an extent that has made the influence of the farm bureaus appreciably felt in modifying farm practice.

FIELD EXERCISES IN THEIR RELATION TO AGRICULTURAL TEACHING

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At the Boston meeting six years ago I read a brief paper on "Field Laboratory Work," giving a few suggestions and a classification of exercises of this character. In the present paper I wish to be more specific, and state reasons for field work, suggest some methods of conducting it, and suggest more subjects somewhat in detail.

Among the reasons or arguments for field-laboratory exercises, we may find the same arguments as may be advanced in favor of laboratory work in any subject, and in favor of home projects and demonstration plots, which are to be discussed by others on the program here today. Let us briefly enumerate some of these points:

1. To make the instruction of all the subject-matter more concrete. In this respect agriculture has a great advantage over many subjects in the school curriculum.

2. To show the student the relation of the subject-matter of the classroom or textbook to scientific principles involved; or, to state it in another way, to show the relation between the scientific principles underlying the subject-matter and real things and real life.

3. To bring all the agricultural work into closer touch with the environment of the student.

4. To link the school work of today with the occupation and life of the student after finishing school.

5. To aid in stopping the criticism that agriculture is too bookish. Such criticism comes partly from the students, but chiefly from others less familiar with agricultural teachings.

Naturally all teachers, as well as laymen, think of agriculture as founded on both practice and science. This is right, but there is danger that in an effort to make agriculture a culture subject, many schools will fail to maintain the practical side. The cultural side can be emphasized without losing the practical aspect.

I maintain that the more practical phases are given to the student thru field exercises with soils, crops, orchards, livestock, machinery, etc., and thru laboratory exercises, school and home demonstrations, school and home projects. When the values of these methods of training and instruction are neglected, the instruction will become too theoretical and too abstract, and receive the criticism of being too bookish.

Field exercises should find a place in all kinds of agricultural courses and in all phases of the subject-matter. Schools having no plots nor farm lands of their own should make far more use of the field exercises than schools which have their own plots. Field exercises can, to a very large extent, take the place of poor laboratory facilities; but it should not be thought for a moment that under ideal conditions a well-equipped laboratory can be dispensed with.

The places for the field exercises may be on school plots, on the school farm, at the homes of pupils, or on fields and farms near the school, or perhaps in distant places. Consequently the exercises will need to vary in length from a single school period to a half-day, whole day, or even longer trips. We need to discriminate here between the field trip and the project. The time element enters strongly into this discrimination. Any exercise continuing for some days may take on the nature of a "project," and is no longer called an "exercise."

There are several essentials of a good field exercise: (1) It should have a definite aim with one or more definite points to be brought out. (2) It should be well planned by the instructor in charge, and should not fail for want of forethought and knowledge of the situation on the part of the instructor. (3) Too much energy must not be expended to accomplish a definite purpose. For example, the thought of the student must not be taken up too much with the means of going and coming, but should be centered on the lessons to be learned. (4) The purposes and points of the exercise should be planned with the students in advance. (5) Outlines covering the points to be studied should be in the hands of each student, with definite instructions for his observation and study. (6) Certain data should be required of each student, and reports prepared during the exercise, in the presence of the instructor, should be required. These may,

or may not, become a part of the student's permanent record or notebook. But in all cases they should be examined by the instructor and returned, with criticisms, to the student.

In large classes a device is sometimes used which will greatly aid the instructor in charge. The class is divided into groups of four or five students each. A leader, or monitor, is appointed for each group. The points in the exercise, or trip, are explained by the instructor to the leader of each group. And the leaders, in turn, bring out the points to the members of their own groups. Much better work can be done if the classes are not so large as to require subdivision during the same hour.

There are certain classes of exercises which can readily be performed by students of high-school age, without the presence of the instructor during the exercise or on the trip. Monitors, or leaders, may be appointed. If the instructor is not to be present he should give a very full outline and require a detailed report from each student.

Among the exercises which would fall into this last group, to be performed without the presence of the instructor, may be mentioned two groups:

1. Drill exercises, which are repetitions of those performed when the instructor was present. Care should be exercised to not repeat these too often. There is danger of the work degenerating into drudgery on one hand, or play on the other.

2. Trips may be taken to new places to study lessons similar to those which have already been studied by students when accompanied by the instructor. For example, garden plants have been sprayed for a particular disease in one garden, with the work under the immediate supervision of an instructor. An application then comes for the same kind of work in another garden. This time a responsible student may be placed in charge of a group to go to the new garden and do this "expert" work. They may readily be brought to feel the responsibility placed upon them, and the training is very valuable.

I have mentioned the importance of having a definite outline for study before an exercise or field trip is undertaken. Let us look at a sample outline—the corn-root system.

To determine the depth and extent of the feeding roots of corn, the following method is suggested: Go to field "A" near the water-supply. Drive four pegs level with the surface of the ground at the four corners of a square yard, between the two rows. With a shovel or hoe remove one inch of top soil between the pegs. Then with the water wash away the soil in this area until the feeding roots are exposed. If the ground be sloping the surplus soil may be carried away with running water. Continue the washing, and with fingers and sharp eyes, carefully trace roots from near the cornstalk to the opposite side of the square yard. A number of roots should be traced.

Notes should be made, and lessons learned thru the following inquiries: (1) To what distance from their source can you trace roots? (2) How shallow do you find them? (3) How large and strong are they? (4) Do they connect with the brace roots of the corn? (5) Are the roots much branched? Sketch some of them. (6) Are corn roots damaged when the soil is tilled with deep-shoveled cultivators? (7) How may corn be cultivated without injuring the roots? (8) What relation has this to frequency of cultivation during the growing season? (9) Why does corn suffer severely when the weather becomes dry?

Students should be asked to suggest an exercise by which the deepest corn roots may be studied. The outline may be taken down in a notebook by each student and the report made on the same, or following, page of his book.

The following exercises are merely suggestive and not intended to cover any particular phase of agriculture completely:

1. Identification of annual weeds in a cultivated field.
2. Study and collection of perennial weeds in a pasture or hayfield.
3. Comparing the root systems of perennial weeds with those of annual weeds.
4. To determine which classes of weeds are most abundant along roadsides and fence rows.
5. To determine how rotation of crops will help control both these classes of weeds.
6. To make a school collection of ripe weed seeds.
7. The use of spray materials in combating mustard and other weeds.
8. The control of weeds in cracks of walks.
9. Weed-control by grazing sheep.
10. The influence of composted manure in comparison with fresh manure in spreading farm weeds.

The foregoing scattered list of suggestions is presented merely as a beginning, but not as exhausting the list of possible field exercises.

THE HOME PROJECT IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGRICULTURE

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Very rapid progress has been made in the introduction and development of the teaching of agriculture in the elementary and secondary schools of the various states of the Union. We have past thru the stage of questioning as to whether or not this subject should be incorporated in the curriculum of public-school studies. We have definitely decided that the subject is entitled to recognition, and, moreover, we have come to the realization that it is a matter of necessity rather than choice. The problem con-

fronting educational leaders today is not whether or not the subject should be taught, but rather under what conditions and how it shall be taught.

Agriculture as first introduced in the public schools was as one subject among many in a scheme to furnish a general education and for the purpose of enriching this education, with the idea of teaching in terms of the environment of the boys and girls thus instructed. Serious attempts are now being made to train boys very specifically for the occupation of farming as a vocation. We now appreciate the fact that it takes brains and trained brains at that to make a farm produce maximum results with maximum efficiency. It is hardly necessary to state that educators are now fully aware of the economic need for developing our agricultural resources and for enriching of rural life. Our object in teaching agriculture on a vocational basis is really twofold. We are aiming first of all to increase the efficiency of the boy in a very specific manner, thus enabling him to do his work on the farm with greater ease, better results, and with increased profits to himself. Of almost equal importance is the agricultural development which is bound to be the result of such training for agricultural work. As important as this may be, however, I strongly feel that it is the boy's interests chiefly, and first of all, that we are attempting to serve by vocational agricultural education rather than to secure bigger and better crops and the enrichment of the land. However, I do not in the least minimize these economic aspects.

The problem of vocational education for the farm boy is decidedly different from the problems connected with the training of plumbers, machinists, printers, textile workers, etc. The business of farming involves so much biology, chemistry, physics, and other general sciences, in addition to a specific application of the same, that necessarily this type of training must be very broad and inclusive. The problem is again different from the standpoint of practice or trade experience. In training a boy to be a plumber specific provision must be made for trade experience. In other words, if the boy is to learn the trade of a plumber, he must not only receive instruction in the theory of the trade, but he must have an opportunity to become skilled in its technique by actual practice or work during a sufficient period of time. The boy of the open country comes to the secondary school with a rich practical or trade experience. It is not safe to assume, however, that because of this the boy needs no further contact with actual farm operations. He needs very definite instruction in the principles underlying the common farm practices with which he is already more or less familiar. Moreover, he needs definite training and even actual experience in the application of these principles, in order that they may become fixed, and, furthermore, that they may be put into actual practice. Enough reliable, scientific, and technical data of an agricultural nature has already been compiled to save this country millions of dollars annually, could the principles herein established be put into actual operation by those most vitally concerned. It is one thing to establish certain

scientific facts relating to farm practice. It is an entirely different proposition to bring about the operation of these principles in the everyday practices of the farm, even tho the value of them has been established beyond a question of doubt.

Educators directing the development of vocational agricultural education have had this clearly in mind when work of a practical nature providing for the application of scientific truths was incorporated into the scheme of vocational education for the country boy. As is now generally known, some states have attempted to solve this by means of the school farm connected with the district or county agricultural school. The majority of the states, however, which have undertaken this type of education have chosen to provide for this necessary practical work by means of the home-project plan supplemented by some group-project work carried on at the school or on some other land secured for the purpose either by the school or by the individuals involved.

The word "project" is coming into about as general use as the terms "educational survey," "correlation," etc. It is a very popular term with those dealing with agricultural education. It might be wise here again to call attention to the distinction between an agricultural project and an agricultural exercise, as these terms have been somewhat confused in some sections of the country. The agricultural exercise is a simple experiment, or demonstration, or illustration, and is usually of short duration. It is not organized in the same manner as an agricultural project. It is not so comprehensive, as it usually deals with one principle or operation which can be completed in a short time.

The agricultural project on the other hand is very definitely studied out, and planned on a systematic basis. It involves much preliminary study and organization of agricultural matter bearing upon the work to be undertaken. It involves, not only the learning of a scientific principle related to some farm practice, but the application of such principle or principles to farm practices. It usually extends thru a period of time.

An agricultural project, to be of value, must be of economic importance. It must involve the improving of some conditions or the production of some crop, etc. It must be carried out on such a basis that the success of the project means financial gain, and the failure of the project a corresponding loss. In other words, a project is a business enterprise carried out on the farm or in the garden. The boy must be made to realize that he has an investment which, if possible, must be made to yield a satisfactory return or income. The scientific principles involved, and their relation to accepted principles, will be properly emphasized under such conditions.

It does not seem possible to carry on successful projects without the close supervision of someone who has had special training along this line. The class in agriculture in the ordinary high school or rural school cannot be expected to carry on successful home projects unless there is a teacher

or supervisor of agriculture on duty during the time the project is in operation. This means that the teacher of agriculture must be employed during the summer months or the growing season, as the majority of the boys' projects are productive projects.

Great care must always be exercised in the selection of a boy's project. Many things should be taken into consideration. The teacher of agriculture must have an intimate knowledge of the boy's home conditions, the land available for this purpose, poultry conditions, size and nature of orchard, etc. The inclination, or natural bent, of the boy has an important bearing upon the selection of the project. The cooperation of the parents should, by all means, be obtained. To secure this sometimes requires diplomacy and tact on the part of the teacher, altho it has been our experience in Pennsylvania that the parents of the majority of the boys are more than willing to cooperate in this work. The parents of the boys should be consulted freely relative to the choice of a project.

The actual work incidental to the operation of the project itself must be preceded by a long and carefully planned study of the project itself and all that it involves. This requires organization of subject-matter, much reading and study, and the use of bulletins, books, and other reference matter.

An accurate record of all the details of the project is absolutely indispensable. It should include a list of authorities consulted, method of procedure, and plans to be followed. A careful account should be kept of all receipts and expenditures. This should include a labor account with the project debited with the cost of the boy's labor at actual market value. Any other items of similar nature should be duly recorded. Such a record is only valuable when it is systematic and accurate.

It seems to me that one of the developments of the future will be an efficient working relation between the home-project work of the vocational school and a certain type of work carried on by the farm bureaus. It frequently happens that a boy enroled in an agricultural school will take as his project the raising of an acre of corn. If there is a farm bureau in his county and this farm bureau is conducting a boys' corn club, he will probably join this club. There should be no confusion, however, between the work of the boys' club and the home-project work as supervised by the vocational instructor. A home project may meet all conditions necessary for the club work. On the other hand, however, a boy enroled as a member of the corn club may by no means have his work on such a basis as to be considered a home project. It meets the requirements from the standpoint of practical work, and possibly from the standpoint of profit and loss. There is not, however, the same systematic study and supervision as in the case of the home project supervised by the vocational instructor. Some definite relation will undoubtedly be established between the club work and the home-project work as one of the developments of the future.

The home project is an integral part of the scheme to furnish specific preparation for life on the farm. It is, however, only one part of this plan of education. To my mind everything else does not depend upon it, and there is perhaps some danger of overestimating its value. On the other hand, to eliminate the home project from the vocational agricultural course would be equivalent to removing the means whereby theory and practice meet. While the home-project idea has already been extensively developed, its possibilities have by no means been exhausted.

THE RURAL SCHOOL AND THE READING HABIT

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The United States government in the last census, I believe, adopted a new classification of urban and rural communities. Formerly any town of 8000 inhabitants was urban, and any smaller one was rural. Beginning with 1910, the Census Bureau classed all towns of less than 2500 inhabitants as rural. When we discuss the rural school or rural life, however, we undoubtedly have in mind much smaller communities, very often isolated farms and tiny neighborhoods. Furthermore, the word "rural" generally connotes, as it literally means, something belonging to the fields and hence to agriculture. It is districts of this sort that I shall have in mind particularly as I talk to you this morning, altho much of what I say may apply equally to some towns having as large a population as 2500.

It will be necessary, I think, to call to mind succinctly certain well-known conditions of life on the farm or in small communities before discussing intelligently the need and value of reading and the part of the rural school in forming and fostering the reading habit. Everyone here at least knows of the constant exodus from the country to the city, from the farm to the factory or the office. It is not possible, of course, by way of generalization, to give every reason why every individual has abandoned rural for urban life, but the isolation and drudgery of farm life and the scanty opportunities for recreation in the country are given as leading causes for this migration.

Not long ago I saw a moving picture sent out by the General Electric Company to illustrate the effect of electricity on the farm. It was an excellent illustration of the old-time drudgery of farm life, and it had a further helpful influence in showing that the son who ran away from this drudgery to the city did not find life there such a primrose path of dalliance as to prevent him from returning to the farm when very easy and logical changes had been made which eliminated unnecessary toil.

What some agency must teach the rising generations in the country is the intelligent use of leisure and the emptiness of mere exciting forms of

amusement; a return to certain forms of recreation peculiarly adapted to rural life, and a development of new forms of recreation equally suited to country conditions. For old and young at all times and in all places there is no pleasanter or more satisfying way of using leisure time than by reading. The book nowadays can reach the remotest farmhouse.

So far we have given attention chiefly to the economic side of rural life, and I believe rightly. Our family and community life must be on a firm economic foundation before we can hope for a superstructure of culture. At the same time, however, while we are teaching more efficient farming methods, we can be sowing the seeds of a culture that will mean a higher standard of living and a more intelligent use of leisure. To increase the income of the farmer and also his amount of leisure without increasing his capacity for the right kind of enjoyment, is not best for the interests of country life. As it is now, too many farmers, after acquiring a competence, find no pleasure in a home in the country, but move to a near-by town or city to spend their last days, and as an acquaintance of mine says, will spend nothing else. They have no cultivated tastes. As I go about in Indiana, I find myself often conscious that too many farmers are interested almost entirely in how much corn and wheat they can grow, how many hogs they can raise, and how they can keep down taxes. Whether they live in sanitary and comfortable houses does not always trouble them, and even when they are surrounded with physical comforts, they have very generally no sense of how to make a real home, attractively furnished, and suitable for anything more than a comfortable place to eat and sleep.

Man cannot live by bread alone, and plain living and high thinking may be as important for the farmer as bumper corn crops and big profits. It is, then, a plea for the country school to take its place as a promoter of culture as well as a trainer of farmers that I wish to make this morning. And as books are perhaps the most potent, certainly the most accessible, agents of culture, I am to talk of the reading habit and how it can be fostered by the rural school. If we were to stop the man on the street, or, to keep to our atmosphere, the man with the hoe, and ask him in what he considered lies the advantage of reading, he would, no doubt, without hesitation tell us that it gives a man information, especially useful information, and it serves to pass away the time. Indeed, any of us must needs think a bit before we can enlarge upon or subdivide these reasons for reading. I am not sure that these two purposes are not sufficient motives in the reader, if only, when he reads for recreation, he will read the right things. The value of recreational reading depends upon the taste which directs the choice of the reading-matter. Taste for anything is something that can be educated and improved.

Three years ago there appeared a little book by Professor C. Alphonse Smith, of the University of Virginia, entitled *What Can Literature Do for Me?* This book has been included by the United States Bureau of Education

in one of the reading courses for the National Reading Circle. I have not read the book and do not know how Professor Smith treats his subject, but his title appealed to me, and, more than his title, his six chapter heads, and to me, in collecting my thoughts for this talk, they seem especially to suggest ways in which reading can touch particularly the needs of rural life so as to make for contentment and real recreation.

In the first place, literature, he says, can give you an outlet. All the pent-up sorrows and yearnings, the unattained, unfilled ambitions and the disappointments in the individual breast ooze away and leave comparative contentment thru the widened openings made in the mind by reading the experiences of others and thinking the thoughts of those who have drained the dregs of a bitter cup. Our very reading shows us how many men have found in books an outlet. Self-expression is not easy for many of us, and books are our satisfactory substitute. The lack of some outlet, it seems to me, is one of the chief causes of the nervous tenseness and the frequent dissatisfaction to be found in the country dweller. Even in hospitals for the insane books are now used as therapeutic agents to furnish this very outlet to the mind. If literature can furnish this escape valve, let us train men and women to use and appreciate literature.

But one must not only have an outlet for one's feelings. One must also see visions and dream dreams. This, Professor Smith says, literature can do for you by keeping before you the "vision of the ideal." The reading of biography is perhaps especially helpful in furnishing ideals, but all literature can contribute its share. Merely as a means of improving manners, reading, and especially the reading of proper fiction, is a powerful help. A good novel is a picture of life, and reading about real ladies and gentlemen, or their opposites, will have a beneficial influence on the observant reader. There is no reason why country people should not observe the niceties of good manners as well as city people. Some of the best-mannered persons I know are New England farmer folk. There are, of course, higher ideals than manners, but none so high that literature cannot inspire them.

With self-expression and visions we can do much, but we have also a knowledge of human nature and a knowledge of the past. Human nature we learn largely by rubbing up against our associates, and we can learn it in a small rural community as well as in the crowded city, but a large part of our theories of life come from our reading. Reading, if you will, coordinates our experiences with our fellow-men. In biography and history, and largely in fiction, we see how human beings behave in circumstances we may at any time be called upon to face. For our knowledge of the past we are dependent almost entirely on books. To know history we must read, and to solve the problems of the present we must know the experience of the past.

Teaching the dignity of labor and the refinement of the simple life is not the only way, however, in which books can show the glory of the commonplace. In my native New England I have often heard city dwellers,

when admiring some beautiful view, wonder at the habit which the builders of New England farmhouses seem to have had, of deliberately building their barns so as to shut off from the house the most attractive outlook from the site. You will find many a countryman entirely untouched by the beauty which surrounds him. Seedtime and harvest and a long winter of chores are all the seasons mean to him. The mountains, the flowers, the birds, have no message for him. If a country boy, or girl, has some one read him Burns's "Wee, sleekit, cowrin', tim'rous beastie," or "To a Mountain Daisy," do you not believe he will see the field mouse and the common flower with new eyes? It needs the poet or the painter to show us the beauties which we gaze on unaware. Custom has a hateful way of showing the infinite variety of nature. If I could teach a boy really to love Burns, and some of Wordsworth, and much of Whittier, I should have little fear that he would find life in the woods and the fields and the farmhouse commonplace.

Finally, Mr. Smith tells us that literature can give us the mastery of our own language. I am a true believer in the teaching of the principles of literary composition; but just as firmly do I believe that except in rare cases no one can really express his thoughts well until he has read widely or deeply. Men like Lincoln and Bunyan are good examples of what familiarity with the English Bible will do to give ease of expression. The pages of Burke are covered with evidence of his familiarity with books.

The first thing the rural school can do is to teach how to read. You smile at the obviousness of my remark; but I hope it is a wiser and less platitudinous remark than it appears at first glance. Certain I am that the greater part of print-devouring humanity cannot read. In my eight years of teaching English composition and literature to young men of from seventeen to twenty-two, picked from all over the country, I proved over and over again that few of them could read even a simple piece of narrative writing and really know what they had read. Only the barest outline of the story—the most striking events—had made any impression upon their minds. All the finer touches that lend distinction to literature escaped. It was as a man, partly blind, sees only the outlines and most blatant colors of the objects around him.

Next to teaching how to read and to think, the school should develop taste for literature. It is always a comfort to remind ourselves now and then that taste can be developed and even acquired. Most of the finer tastes of civilized man are acquired tastes, and what the race as a whole has acquired the individual may acquire. Developing literary taste in the young is possibly the most delicate task the teacher has to perform. Too great zeal creates suspicion. Most of the influence has to be exerted by indirection. To tell a boy that he ought to like a book is to give him sufficient reason for disliking it. To tell a girl the same thing is to make her pretend to like the book even if she does not.

Reading aloud is perhaps the most effective way of teaching a love of books, especially a love of poetry. A great deal of the reading aloud should be done by the teacher if she is a good reader, and if she cannot read well aloud she should not be permitted to teach literature. Such reading by the teacher, with occasional comment on some beautiful passage, will never fail to hold a class. Such comment, if carefully worded, can be made, not a perfunctory teaching exercise, but the natural expression of the teacher's appreciation.

Reading aloud by the pupils is also helpful, but, because the pupil will probably not read so well as the teacher, the effect upon the other pupils will not be so good. For the sake of teaching the individual to read aloud, however, the pupils themselves must do some reading. Reading dialogs and plays in class, with the parts assigned to pupils, always arouses interest even with the oldest pupils.

Clubs for reading aloud can be organized by the schools among inhabitants of all ages, except those too young to read aloud with ease. Such clubs, in addition to encouraging a taste for reading, furnish an agreeable and wholesome form of amusement. Shakespeare, Browning, the modern drama, short stories, poetry—read aloud and afterward discuss—are all suitable subjects for such reading clubs.

Somewhat similar to these reading clubs is the amateur performance of plays. My personal experience has been that taking part in many plays was one of the most helpful experiences I underwent in forming my literary tastes. I am sure I learned more of Shakespeare by taking leading parts in two of his plays than I ever learned in any other one way.

There is one means of encouraging reading in rural districts that is rather widely used in several states and has been recently adopted by the United States Bureau of Education—the reading circle. Indiana was, I believe, the first, certainly one of the first, states to start a pupils' reading circle. The conditions vary in different states, but generally credit is allowed and certificates and diplomas issued when a certain number of books from a recommended list have been read. In some cases there is a more or less simple examination designed to show that the books have actually been read. The books on these lists are generally selected by a committee of the state teachers' association or by the state board of education. The reading circles, it is entirely true, have been the greatest and often the only means of building up a school library or of getting books into the hands of the pupils. In Indiana alone, over 900,000 volumes have been purchased, and the average annual membership is 160,000 different pupil readers.

But even better than these several ways of encouraging reading is the association with books themselves. To be surrounded with freely accessible books is sure to affect one's habits and tastes. To make books accessible in any number to children or to adults is one of the problems of rural

communities, and here again the rural school can be of the greatest assistance. Where there is no public library in a community or where the library is at a considerable distance from the school, the school itself can build up a library of its own. The library in each school district, with its own permanent collection of books, has been the goal in many states for many years.

In Indiana, for instance, there are at present literally hundreds of school libraries. N. M. McRea, writing in *Harper's Weekly* in January, 1909, estimated that there were 8000. This establishment of small school libraries in the various school districts of the state has resulted in a vast deal of unnecessary duplication. Reference books, as encyclopedias, dictionaries, and standard texts, every good working school library must have, but the number of titles of general reading that may properly be included in a school collection is great. As might be expected in the libraries of a few hundred volumes, there is much duplication of titles. In a small school library in a community that has no public library these few titles are soon read by the children and there are not sufficient funds to add enough books to keep up with the readers. The natural result is that both children and teachers soon lose interest in the library. The only present help in this situation in most states is the state traveling-library system. In many states there are maintained at state expense and operated by one state department or another, generally a library commission, collections of books, often in fixed groups, that may be borrowed by rural schools for periods averaging from three to six months. In this way general reading that is frequently changing is supplied to supplement the meager school library. For temporary reference and debate work, these state commissions can also supply material. The policy of supplying at state expense textbooks for instruction in such subjects as may be called vocational subjects is questionable and should be unnecessary. State traveling libraries, it would seem, should supply only general reading matter.

Any state system, however, with the many demands made upon its proportionally small collection of books, can, at best, help but little here and there. Some system of cooperation and interchange between school libraries of convenient districts seems the most promising method of keeping fresh the stream of reading matter. In most states south and west of the Northern Atlantic seaboard, the county is a political entity of sufficient importance to serve as a unit of school-library service. In many of these states there are county superintendents of schools who might easily and properly make their offices the administrative centers of the rural-school libraries. A supervising school librarian for each county would fittingly be one of the staff of the county superintendent's office. She could select the books purchast with the library funds of each school district and see that in the county there is no duplication of titles other than the absolute necessary references and texts. She could arrange to interchange these

collections so that each school could in time have the use of every other school's purchases. Such a system of supplementary purchasing and interchange is being successfully worked out by Miss Archer, librarian of the Talladega (Ala.) Public Library. Such a supervising librarian might also attend to the technical work of all the libraries, might instruct teachers at county institutes in the use of books and simple library methods, and might even herself give instruction to the pupils in the schools. In counties where such a librarian would be impossible, the superintendent himself could at least oversee the purchasing and arrange a system of interschool loans. The state library commission would in many states furnish instruction to teachers and aid in many other ways.

The agency, however, that more than any other, perhaps, has the greatest opportunity to mold the rural-school library of the future is the normal school. Trained school librarians can do much and library commissions can give expert advice and supervision, but the teacher pre-eminently of all persons outside the home, can arouse in the child of school age the love of books. Special librarians in small schools are impossible, and librarians in large schools, or supervising librarians of several schools, cannot, say what you please, have the direct contact with, and influence over, the individual child as can the teacher who has the child under her care several hours a day.

*RURAL-SCHOOL EXTENSION WORK BY THE NEW YORK
STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE*

EDWARD M. TUTTLE, EDITOR, "CORNELL RURAL-SCHOOL LEAFLET,"
ITHACA, N.Y.

Very rapidly the education of boys and girls in the open country is finding its sources in the rural environment. In its broadest sense, this is what we mean by nature-study: the process by which a child comes to know and to appreciate the forces and phenomena with which he comes in contact in the world about him, the establishing of his relationship to life. Children naturally reach out for knowledge when they can see tangibly before them the object or circumstance to which the knowledge relates. Interest can find its motive only in sense impression that produces desire. And interest means an awakened spirit and potential growth.

A child is born in the country. He lives for six years before he enters a schoolroom. Those six years are years of marvelous growth, as the unfolding personality struggles to find its bearings and learns to express its thoughts and feelings in the form of speech. The child's whole being is permeated and influenced by his environment as represented in the out-of-doors, the farming operations, and the home life. These three phases are included in the terms "natural history," "agriculture," and "home-making" as applied to elementary teaching.

There comes a day when the child follows the road to the schoolhouse, a place of mystery, to be entered with a feeling of awe and of respect not unmixt with fear. He crosses the threshold and a new epoch in his life begins. Have we older persons forgotten what a tremendous moment that is to the six-year-old lad or lass?

The country child comes to school with a background experience derived from the out-of-door world, the farm, and the home. This experience and the daily interests that contribute to it and are in turn suggested by it offer a natural starting-point for the teacher. Its right development constitutes environmental study, or nature-study. If the child finds that school and home have common interests, that each supplements the other, he will eagerly reach out for new knowledge under the teacher's guidance, and will grow in ability and power. If the school is merely a place of unassociated fact instruction, he may respond in a mechanical way, but the life has gone, the fact has no meaning and therefore can produce no real growth.

This is the reason why rural schools are finding the motive and basis of their teaching in the rural environment. The state of New York has made great progress in this respect, and each year sees the movement become more far-reaching and fundamental. The state department of education has provided a suggestive syllabus of work in natural history, agriculture, and home-making. The New York State College of Agriculture supplies to teachers subject-matter on these topics, together with suggestions for its use. The most important point, and the one which is constantly emphasized, is that the work shall deal with real things and shall be a natural, spontaneous effort on the part of the children, and that under no circumstances shall it be developed on a formal recitation, textbook basis. The subject-matter sent to the teachers is for the purpose of giving them a point of view and of broadening their background of knowledge to the end that they may guide the activities of the children more intelligently and effectively.

Teachers who do not understand nor appreciate this method of approach ask for definite outlines giving in detail the time and manner of presenting the various topics. To supply these would destroy the spontaneity and take the life out of the work. What is needed is to see that teachers have the ability and the desire to take advantage of the natural opportunities as they constantly arise. There are all gradations of success and failure but, on the whole, the work in New York State is well done and is already manifesting itself in the lives of the children.

Another mistake sometimes made, and one which apparently has not impressed itself on all directors of education, is that of considering the accomplishment, from time to time, of certain definite, but unrelated, pieces of work in one or the other of these subjects as the ultimate end to be attained. This is quite likely to be the case where all the work done by the children is

in the form of project or club enterprises. Undoubtedly there is valuable training for any child at certain periods of his life in doing some definite piece of practical work under competent direction; but far more essential is the need that his activity from day to day all his young life long shall reflect his environment. Until natural history, agriculture, and home-making in some phase or other constitute the vital framework of the rural school and form the basis of its daily life, their greatest value has not been found. The real result to strive for in nature-study is an atmosphere, not a record, altho to a superficial observer the record may be the only evidence of accomplishment.

Education is a very personal thing. The closer the bond of sympathy between teacher and pupils, the more fundamental the results. Likewise a close relationship between teachers and their supervisors and directors is a very desirable condition. There is no reason why officials should not show that they are human, nor why institutions should not have souls. This is a large factor in the rural-school extension work undertaken by the New York State College of Agriculture. By means of the regular publication known as the *Cornell Rural School Leaflet*, by personal correspondence, and by attendance at conferences of teachers and gatherings of school folk all are led to feel, on the part of those in the institution, a friendly human interest that produces greater opportunities for service. Every letter is an opportunity, and may be made to carry a feeling of real, as well as of official, interest. Of course, this is a matter capable of being overdone and misused. There are no rules. No force is capable of so much good, nor of so much harm, as personal power. One who uses it wisely must be sensitive and fundamentally controlled. The limit of its use varies with different persons and with different conditions.

The actual organization of the rural-school extension work from the New York State College of Agriculture includes the following considerations:

1. The work is centered in the Department of Rural Education, which also conducts courses of instruction for prospective teachers of agriculture and home-making, and which does some research work.

2. The chief extension enterprise, out of which all the others grow, is the publication of the *Cornell Rural School Leaflet*. The *Leaflet* owes its conception and development to Alice Gertrude McCloskey, who died last October. Years ago she saw the trend of rural education toward a consideration of the rural environment, and in 1907 she was given an opportunity to start the *Leaflet*. There is one large number for teachers issued annually in September. It contains material on a year's work as outlined in the state syllabus. The technical subject-matter is prepared by the various experts in the college, and published with notes and suggestions for its use. There are three smaller leaflets for children issued in November, January, and March of each year. These serve to stimulate and direct the children's interest and to supplement the efforts of the teachers.

3. The children's leaflets each contain, among other things, a message to the boys and girls in the form of a personal letter from the editor. The children are encouraged to reply, and their correspondence forms a large and interesting feature of the work. Every child who writes three letters in the school year receives a small gift picture representing some appropriate art subject.

4. Correspondence with teachers is extensive and covers a wide range of subjects. Many of the letters contain technical questions which are referred to the proper experts in the college for reply.

5. The district superintendents in the state hold local conferences of their teachers several times a year, and there are always more requests for speakers received at the college than can be met. The conference work is very important, however, and serves to supplement the leaflet and to direct its use.

6. There has developed an annual exhibit of rural-school work at the college, and this is held during the general Farmers' Week in February of each year. Effort is made to provide definite standards for each class of exhibit material, in order that the schools may prepare their work intelligently and with some degree of uniformity, altho great freedom is encouraged in the detailed execution of the work, providing the essentials are covered. There is only a limited number of classes each year—about twenty—covering phases of natural history, agriculture, and home-making. Local exhibitions of various kinds are also encouraged and suggestions are given for making them definite and fundamental.

7. Within the last year a new phase of extension work has been undertaken by the Rural Education Department. It is known as the Junior Home-Project Work, and is analogous to the movement that in many states is known as boys' and girls' club work. In New York State there are several features of the work which are essentially different, and which seem to us important. These are: (1) that the junior home-project work, or any work of a competitive nature with boys and girls, shall be directed by the educational authorities—the state department of education and its local representatives, the district superintendents; (2) that all other agencies of whatever kind, including the College of Agriculture, shall cooperate with the educational authorities, and shall not organize such work on their own initiative; (3) that the function of the State College of Agriculture is to provide subject-matter instruction to teachers and pupils engaged in project work; (4) that, while effort is made to standardize the work for the state, there is no state organization or club in any sense of the term, for the movements are local; (5) that the work on the part of the boys and girls shall consist of a certain amount of school study plus a home project, the two to go hand in hand; (6) that the home project must be properly supervised by a competent person—the district superintendent or someone designated by him; (7) that the successful completion of the work as

designated by the district superintendent shall entitle the child to regents' credit toward high school. The junior home-project work is limited to children in the seventh and eighth grades, or over twelve years of age, and while at any given time it will never affect more than a small percentage of the children in rural schools, it has an important place in their educational development, especially if it grows out of a broad background of environmental study, or nature-study, which, as has already been stated, is the ultimate end to be attained in developing the work of natural history, agriculture, and home-making in the rural schools.

Considered broadly, the use of the rural environment by the rural schools of New York State is growing quietly, steadily, and fundamentally; and the State College of Agriculture is using its resources freely to cooperate in the good work.

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—MARY E. ADKISSON, teacher, East Denver High School Denver, Col.

Vice-President—ISABEL A. ENNIS, president, Class Teachers Organization of Brooklyn,
New York, N.Y.

Secretary—MARY V. DONOGHUE, sixth-grade teacher, Stewart School Chicago, Ill.

FIRST SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. in the Ballroom of the Hotel Astor, by Vice-President Isabel A. Ennis, who appointed Estelle M. Johnson, Richmond Hill High School, New York, N.Y., secretary.

Sara Helena Fahey, teacher of English, Seward Park School, New York City, presented a paper on "Moral Education: What the School Can Do." In the discussion which followed, Miss Weeks, of Denver, emphasized the necessity of impressing upon the child the dignity of labor; and Professor Romain, of Syracuse University, urged that a distinction should be made between work that was useful and work that was simply parasitic.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by Vice-President Ennis.

The following program was presented:

"Teachers' Advisory Councils"—Thomas W. Churchill, former president, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Vocational Guidance thruout the School Course"—Emma L. Johnston, principal, Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"Waste in Education"—James Fleming Holic, head of the department of English, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Mr. Churchill spoke informally, outlining some of the changes which had been made in the course of study during the period that he had been a member of the board of education, and indicated that the rigidity of the course of study had been a drawback to progress in the public-school system. He gave it as his opinion that there was a greater proportion of efficient teachers than of efficient lawyers, efficient doctors, or efficient ministers. He advocated greater cooperation between the teachers and the administrators.

The paper by Miss Johnson was discust by Professor Romain, Miss Fahey, and Miss Ennis.

The Committee on Nominations consisted of: Anna Willson, principal of high school, Crawfordsville, Ind.; Jane McCarthy, elementary teacher, Public School No. 164, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Frances B. Meeks, Danville, Ill.; Theresa B. Clark, Newark, N.J.; and Lonoda Newton, Denver, Col.

Upon the recommendation of the committee the following officers were unanimously elected for the ensuing year:

President—Sara H. Fahey, teacher of English, Public School No. 147, Brooklyn, N.Y.

Vice-President—Anna Willson, principal of High School, Crawfordsville, Ind.

Secretary—Mary V. Donoghue, sixth-grade teacher, Stewart School, Chicago, Ill.

ESTELLE M. JOHNSON, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

MORAL EDUCATION: WHAT THE SCHOOL CAN DO

SARA HELENA FAHEY, TEACHER OF ENGLISH, SEWARD PARK SCHOOL,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

In the limited time assigned to my theme I shall not attempt to present the subject of moral education in all its relations to school life. It is my purpose, rather, to emphasize the need of a revolution in our present lax attitude regarding the subject, to point out some serious obstacles to any effective scheme of moral education in our public schools, and to suggest a few lines of moral training which it is possible for the school to carry out with profit to itself and to the community of which it is a part.

Education begins in babyhood. We all seem to agree that it should be simultaneously physical, mental, and moral, but because of our aversion to heated discussions on religious questions, the moral side is not stressed. We eliminate God as a basis for inspiration for moral life. Reverence has given way to the moral-suasion ideal that we should be good because it is so beautiful to be good. Experience teaches us, however, that when moral crises have to be met, this ideal is not a sufficient stimulus to the ordinary human being.

Some educators have assumed that the easiest way out is to leave moral education to the home and the church. They forget that, in a large number of homes, there is neither the desire, nor the intelligence, nor the time, to give children adequate moral training. Furthermore, they forget that, in our nation of over one hundred million souls, 55 per cent have not even a nominal church affiliation. The public school, therefore, is of necessity the great moral mentor of a majority of our people.

It is of little use to deplore the growing alienation of the people from all forms of religious effort so long as a vast organization, maintained at public expense, devotes itself primarily to the physical and mental side. Young people are thus indirectly educated to undervalue moral and religious life. The greatest thinkers of our age have expressed their concern regarding the evil fruits of non-moral education. Twenty-two years ago, Alexander Johnston, of Princeton, said, "The moral qualities are developed in the same way that the bones, the muscles, and the mind are, by exercise. Our educational system falls short here. Every effort is made to develop the physical and mental qualities, but the moral qualities are left to take care of themselves."

Last month President Hibben, of the same University, in his address to the graduates, on moral preparedness, said, "It is not the foe without, but the enervating forces within, which cause a nation to sicken and die, and this is our greatest menace."

We rely upon the public schools to perpetuate institutions of which we are proud, institutions which have been established thru an immense expenditure of blood, and treasure, and toil. Yet when we examine the results, we begin to fear that our reliance has been misplaced. We are led to question whether the public school is really fulfilling its mission.

If the moral possibilities of the public school were appreciated, the significance of compelling pupils to attend school would be seen. We boast an enrolment of over twenty-two million pupils in the public schools of the United States, yet this is little more than half of the actual number of children in our land from five to eighteen years of age. To be sure, many are cared for by parochial, or by private schools, but still a great number go uncared for. Furthermore, of the numbers actually enrolled, about one-fourth are absent daily.

Many, many young people in our country can truthfully say with Topsy, "I just grow'd up one fine morn." The morning, however, will not continue fine for them if the home and the school persist in leaving to chance their moral education.

Someone has said, "Life forever keeps the keynote first struck." We know that, unless the school give positive moral training, the formation of character will be left to accident, and will be determined by the habits and ideals of those with whom the child associates in his leisure hours. The characteristics of the street-gang chief, or of the leader in after-school play, have determined the future of many a lad. The "smartness" of clever youngsters outwitting their elders, as frequently shown in the movies, has been a stimulating ideal for the perversion of weak children. These and other untoward influences have developed among us today a class of young people who think that all morality is a farce, that religion is a myth, and that their aim should be to get all they can out of life regardless of the interests of anybody else. To such people, country, flag, or God means little.

We, as teachers, must set out to destroy these false ideals and to create worthy ones. We must help to establish moral and social standards for our time, and must help to influence public opinion as to the necessity for positive moral education. The pivotal thought that teachers should force home to the community is the progress of the world thru proper education. The public needs much instruction on this point.

The great American fetish is a superstitious reverence for book learning. Millions of hard-working fathers and mothers go without comforts to keep their boys and girls in school. The fact that they seldom ask what lessons the children are learning, aside from those found in books, makes it imperative that the school be awake to its responsibility.

We must recognize that our age is strenuous, complex, and democratic. The individual is, perhaps, too much exalted. He finds it difficult to substitute law for desire. His social instincts must be trained until racial responsibility is developed. The public is learning, thru daily experience, that

neglected children become a menace to the world around them. This fact alone ought to make it clear that there is no economy quite so false as that which refuses to make adequate appropriations for education.

The factor that militates most powerfully against effective moral education in the school is overcrowding. When we find, for example, that in the largest city in the world and the wealthiest city in this country, there are 836 classes of 50 pupils each, 1021 classes of between 51 and 55, 314 classes having 55 or more pupils, and, to add to the evil, 465 classes in charge of substitutes, it at once becomes apparent that with such herding of children there can be little time or opportunity for moral training. Attention has been called to the physical harm of overcrowding, as shown by the spread of disease, to the mental evil, as expressed in retardation, but the high percentage of moral failures among such groups has been little noted. When the numbers are so great, individuality is lost sight of. The absolute uniformity that becomes established is spiritually deadening. The pupils under such training actually lose the power to adjust themselves to new conditions.

Another evil is an overcrowded curriculum, which makes follow-up work impossible. Teachers tend to be constantly on the jump in the classroom. A few minutes is given to one subject, and then a rush is made to another, as if the sole purpose of each successive lesson was to obliterate all traces of previous work. This practice destroys concentration of mind in the pupil. Professor William James, of Harvard University, many years ago called attention to this weakness in method when he said, "Education is preeminently a leisurely process." We should reflect seriously on this thought. Unless the teacher has time to enter into the life of the children, she can do little for them in a moral sense.

Another great obstacle to success in moral training is the inability of many parents to deal with moral questions that are constantly arising. This inability is especially marked in foreigners who are unable to speak our language. The influence of the parent is likely to be weakened when the family has to contend for existence in a congested American city. The parents cling tenaciously to old customs and are slow to acquire new styles, either of clothing or of manner. The children, on the contrary, are quick to imitate. They are impressed by superficial values, and sometimes they feel ashamed that their parents are so slow. Here is the first loosening of respect and authority. The children imagine they have to blaze the trail, as it were. Undirected, they more easily acquire vicious habits than virtuous ones. Nature seems to tend that way.

Another drawback to moral training is what is known as "soft pedagogy." The aim seems to be to make children comfortable in the present, whatever the outcome in the future. It is an age of breathless rushing from one sensation to another. Children are led to think that there must be outward activity every moment, or school is dull; that unless they like

a subject, it is unworthy of their attention. They must be led to value the slow, silent, penetrating influence of steadiness and perseverance which makes for moral education.

Another tendency of modern pedagogy is to shuffle responsibility from the child to the adult, to an alarming degree. If a child is brought before the court, the principal or teacher, rather than the delinquent, is put on trial. Finally, the reputation of the school becomes of more importance than the salvation of the child, and school officers will tolerate his wrongdoing rather than risk undeserved public censure.

If all methods of correction are to be tabooed, then complete segregation of the vicious and abnormal should follow. The young rowdy should then be shown that he cannot successfully defy authority. The contrast today between the method of the school and that of the outside world, in dealing with offenders, is criminally cruel in its inconsistency. Common-sense suggests that we prepare children for what they must meet in life. They must be taught that the laws of the world are harsh, and are enforced by such penalties as failure, hunger, misery, and death.

Another practice distinctly wasteful is that of keeping pupils on a general curriculum after vocational interests are aroused. This is a frequent cause of moral loss.

Then there is the constant effort to standardize the human relations of child and teacher. The unobtrusive staying qualities, which often characterize the faithful, overworked teacher, are not the first things in sight during a survey. There is often a startling contrast between paper efficiency and field efficiency. The efficiency of a shop can be computed when the completed product has been turned out, but it needs at least ten years after graduation for the efficiency of a school to show itself, if moral values are to be estimated in the count. It is the resulting impress left by a school upon its pupils working itself out in their future lives which determines whether a school has been truly successful.

The energy wasted at the present time in the two greatest cities of our country in the search for efficient teachers could be more profitably spent in removing factors and conditions which create inefficiency. A hypocritical attitude toward teachers tends to weaken their moral force. The prime need in moral training is the strong teacher with initiative, high ideals, broad sympathies, and education. If teachers are not encouraged to develop desirable traits of character in themselves, how can they develop them in others? If they have no spiritual outlook, how can they recognize its value for others? Teachers must be imbued with confidence if they are to arouse confidence. If they are first to think of themselves as failures, how can they stimulate pupils to regard themselves as something more than failures?

I know of no better outline in ethics than that contained in the course of study for elementary schools in the city of New York. From it I quote

this statement: "The personality of the teacher is at the root of all moral education in the school. The teacher's poise, her self-control, ideals, and attitude toward life are inevitably reflected in the character of her pupils." If this be true, how necessary it is to eliminate as far as possible all forces that weaken this personality. We are all frail human beings, but the power we possess to cause ourselves to be idealized is the first step toward imitation by pupils. For this reason, those leaders in education who believe in vitalizing the schools by faith in the classroom teacher are rendering a distinct service to education and to youth.

Then, too, in some communities the economic situation is destructive of moral ideals. The flagrant injustice which forces teachers to the courts to obtain what they have honestly earned makes teachers, and intelligent pupils too, feel that ideals of citizenship set by the school are mere theories to be exploded in real life, and that possibly education itself is not worth while. In the last analysis a community must do right, not simply preach right. If harmonious relations are destroyed, because of the attempts of the community to exploit the teachers, they cannot work with the same singleness of purpose for the good of the schools. Wherever workers have become machines in the mind of the employer, they quickly respond to the standard set. The business world is beginning to recognize this truth, and to apply a truer efficiency standard than mere output as a measure of success.

And now a few words as to desirable moral traits, and to methods of developing them in the school. Habits which are merely the incidental results of school work, as punctuality, order, and neatness, while essential, do not assure us that moral life is in full vigor. The definite things to be established thru moral education, aside from training in useful habits for daily life, are a training to resist what is known to be evil, and a training in interests. Teachers must have in mind the characteristics necessary to a well-balanced human being. While differences of opinion exist among educators with regard to methods of teaching morals, agreement is well-nigh universal as to certain moral qualities, the absence of which makes for failure.

Pupils need to have the will and the imagination thoroughly developed. Then, one of the first things to teach them is a respect for useful work and for that knowledge which can be gained only thru steadfast application. Utilize school studies to teach thrift. Make pupils feel the sense of independence that comes as a result of paying one's bills. The school savings bank is a potent factor in developing this trait. Get the notion out of pupils' heads that they are entitled to an extravagant use of public money. They should be taught to care most scrupulously for books and other public property. Teach them to visualize the taxpayers. Give them some tangible ideas about this nebulous creature called "the public."

Train pupils in concentration for its moral value. The weakness of the ordinary man lies in being so easily diverted. Trivial social-service

work is sometimes organized to side-track social reform. For example, overcrowding in our schools is to be cured by the duplicate school. The corporations that persist in endangering public health are the most active in forming safety leagues. Officials are not embarrassed by these movements, while people get the illusion that the community is headed toward progress.

Pupils should be trained to think of the body as a temple for the spirit. They must be ambitious to make it healthy and perfect. They should understand that nervous energy can be conserved or wasted; that, if it is diverted thru vicious habits from its proper purpose, it will eventually bring physical and moral disease, and death.

Teach a sane patriotism. Pupils should be taught that there are a thousand lines of effort which demand finer courage and more intense devotion than those which center in the ordinary war. Service where our country needs us is patriotism in the best sense. This patriotism is shown in our use of the franchise and of the opportunities afforded by official position.

What subjects in the school can be most effectively utilized for moral education? As the will is synonymous with character, and becomes the starting-point, as well as the end, in all moral training, any subject or process that tends to develop the will of the student has a moral value.

Historic traditions should be interpreted in a way that will help peace. Make pupils see that a pacifist is not necessarily a dove, but just somebody who has imagination—who wants to know whether the scrap is worth while, and whether the difficulty can be better settled in some other way. Effort should be made to wipe out race hatred. Train high-school pupils, when reading history, to note whether a war is waged in defense of human liberty, or whether it is carried on because of the vaulting ambition of rulers, or the still more unrestrained ambition of plutocrats and political adventurers.

Literature, however, is more fruitful than any other subject as a means of creating and stimulating worthy ideals. It opens up a wide range of moral questions that might not arise in the classroom, and yet are well within the intelligence of the child. If a bad habit is noted, a quotation to correct it should be taught. The offenders, without feeling that a personal criticism has been made, are helped by the thought that great men and women had to combat similar weaknesses.

The potency of quotations from the world's best thought, as moral helps, is recognized by the outside world. A few days ago I read a circular on "Courtesy" posted in a station of the New Haven Railroad, signed by President Howard Elliott. The employes were shown that courtesy is a valuable asset to the road and to themselves. It closed with, "Life is not so short but there is always time for courtesy"—(Emerson). If Mr. Elliott, with his knowledge of human nature, believed that Emerson's line strengthened his advice to a body of men not distinguished for literary tastes, the practice would seem to be significant for teachers.

The greatest value that comes from this application of the ideals of great literature is that the habit is formed of communing with great minds and seeking to apply their wisdom. This practice gives young people resources for the future. The desire is created to go onward and upward—to attain perfection.

“What shall I do,” I askt an angel bright,
“When age draws nigh?”
“Then,” smiled he from his height,
“Keep growing.”

Lastly, I would say that we, as teachers, must keep growing ourselves. We must be so earnest in our desire to reach the ideals of our profession that we shall be able to make the community understand that its best investment is in education. We must have the vision to see that our effort is not on bricks or marble that will crumble away; that our business is to train character and to shape human life. Your work and mine is in things eternal. Literature again points the way to the ideal in these beautiful lines:

Build it well whate'er you do;
Build it straight and strong and true;
Build it high and clean and broad;
Build it for the eye of God.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE THRUOUT THE SCHOOL COURSE

EMMA L. JOHNSTON, PRINCIPAL, TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS,
BROOKLYN, N.Y.

The popular pastime of enriching the elementary-school curriculum has certain rules which those who have played the game successfully have usually followed. At its introduction the new subject is put in the hands of a specialist. The specialist, having the enthusiasm, the faith, the courage, the energy of the pioneer, makes a great success of his job, and convinces the school authorities and the general public that the subject is indispensable; whereupon he is provided with assistants, their number increasing until in a great school system they become an important organization of teachers, one of whose objects is to obtain as much recognition and consideration for their specialty as possible. The study given by the specialists to their subject and to methods of teaching it results in a body of knowledge that is a more or less valuable contribution to the theory of the school curriculum. But sooner or later the specialists discover that without the sympathetic and intelligent cooperation of a certain other specialist they cannot apply their theories with much success. This other is the specialist in children, the name by which I like to designate the classroom teacher. The specialist in a subject presents a well-prepared, well-organized lesson, but after he has taken his departure, the classroom teacher sees to it that her Tom, Dick, and Harry clearly understand or intelligently practice; and she does this, not in one short lesson, but at intervals thru a long period of time.

Vocational training is now in the hands of specialists, and since its field is as wide as human endeavor, it is likely to remain in their hands; but my subject is not vocational training, it is vocational guidance, and vocational guidance is, in most school systems, in nobody's hands. Yet vocational guidance is of great importance; it may be that it is as important as vocational training.

Not all the misfits in the world of workers are those who have not been properly trained for their job; there are many who have chosen the job for which they could never have been properly trained. Vocational guidance is a more difficult work than vocational training, but all sorts and conditions of persons who would hesitate to train for any calling whatever are confident of their ability to act as vocational guides. Parents have been known to select their children's vocations as early as they have selected the children's names, and with as little deference to the children's opinions. Makers of courses of study have been known to select the same few vocations for ten thousand pupils with ten thousand kinds of native endowment.

The reason vocations are selected for young people by their elders is that the young people are considered too inexperienced to choose for themselves. This is where the classroom teacher, the specialist in children, can

be of service. She can put the children in the way of obtaining experience. She can do this without adding any subjects to the school curriculum and without increasing the already heavy burden of her own preparation. What she needs to have is a more specialized aim in her teaching. She has always meant, in general, to prepare her pupils for life; but her notion of life may have been rather vague or indefinite. Now let her think of life as the using of all one's powers for self-support, contentment, and service, and let her remember that every individual in her class is an individual with unique capacities and unique limitations.

Here are offered a few suggestions regarding the way in which the classroom teacher may give her pupils some vocational guidance. It will be noted that there is nothing new in the exercises suggested. They are in general use, but they have not always been employed with the distinct purpose which is here set forth.

In the first place, school children should have an opportunity to become acquainted with workers in many fields. The father of Benjamin Franklin gives parents and teachers of children a good suggestion regarding vocational guidance. In the *Autobiography* we read:

At ten years old I was taken from school to assist my father in his business, which was that of a tallow-chandler and soap-boiler. I dislik't the trade and had a strong inclination for the sea; but my father declared against it. He was under apprehension that if he did not find a more agreeable trade for me I should break away and get to sea. He therefore sometimes took me to walk with him, to see joiners, bricklayers, turners, braziers, etc., at their work, that he might observe my inclination and endeavor to fix it on some trade or other on land. It has ever since been a pleasure to me to see good workmen handle their tools.

The classroom teacher has many opportunities to lead her pupils to observe men and women at work. The kindergartner begins the course. Her purpose is clearly defined in her own mind. To use Miss Blow's words, "She means to select from the offerings of life those that will develop in children some faint presentiment of the beauty of universal service, some responsive feeling of gratitude, and some desire to share the work that all are doing." To this end, like Franklin's father, she takes her children to walk with her in order to observe men and women at work. The beauty of service, the duty of gratitude may be the ideas uppermost in the kindergartner's mind when the excursions to the bakery, the market, the smithy, the shipyard, are made; but it is the desire "to share in the work that all are doing" which is uppermost in the child's consciousness. This childish desire to engage immediately in some definite kind of important productive labor is the first response to that call for service which will be sounded all thru childhood and youth for him that hath ears to hear. The call will be interpreted by the hearer in different ways, as his knowledge of the requirements of different vocations and his understanding of his own powers and limitations increase, but his teacher's constant aim will be to induce him

to heed the call, to try to discover for himself whence it comes, and to determine as well as he can whether or not it is his call.

Not kindergartners alone but teachers of all grades take their classes on excursions to see workers at their labors. This form of school activity is so well known that it is not necessary to give instances of the variety of occupations observed by pupils above the kindergarten, nor of the many purposes served. The point to be emphasized here is that this kind of excursion, wherever employed, should be recognized as material or opportunity for vocational guidance.

The classroom recitation or conference in which pupils give reports of their individual observations may be substituted for the class excursion and serve the same purpose. The teacher who gives the following assignment as an exercise in composition may have uppermost in her mind the formation of certain linguistic habits, but the pupils who make the reports, and their classmates who receive them have their minds on the occupations discussed. Says the teacher, "Select the occupation you know most about, and prepare a report on it for your classmates; if possible, go where the work is being done, and prepare to describe it as an eyewitness; or else ask for information from some relative or acquaintance who is in the business. In making the report the following topics may be used: interesting features of the work; necessary outfit or equipment; kind of skill or ability required; preparation required of beginners; healthfulness; dangers; beginner's wages; opportunities for promotion."

Besides being led to discover what different workers are doing, children should be encouraged to express and develop their impressions thru the activity most characteristic of childhood, namely, play. Here again the kindergartner shows the way. The young child plays everything he wants to be, and his play shows his choice of vocation for the time being. The normal child makes a new choice every day; for, like Bottom in Shakespeare's play, he desires to act each new character that is presented to him in the unfolding drama of labor, and, like Bottom, he believes that he would shine in each part.

Teachers of older children use vocational play, tho they do not call it by this name. Such are the exercises in which "make believe" is an element—playing store in the primary number class, representing the activities of a banking business in the higher-grade arithmetic class, impersonating municipal government employes in the school city. Classroom dramatization frequently has forms of labor for its theme, and the school festival, especially that of Labor Day, dignifies and beautifies vocations thru art, poetry, and music.

It is well known that one reason why boys and girls chafe at being obliged to attend school is that they consider the time spent there wasted. They do not long to escape school in order that they may play, it is that they may work, that they may be about the business of life. They want to do

something real, something worth while, something useful. In their opinion there is a great gulf fixt between school life and real life. Vocational training has been introduced into the curriculum in the effort to bridge that gulf; but as a result of this introduction another gulf has yawned, this one between the vocational branches and the traditional studies of the school, the so-called academic branches. It is the classroom teacher who can bridge this gulf. It is she who, thru her sympathetic attitude toward the pupil's desire to do something and to be something of importance, can make the three R's and kindred branches an indirect means of vocational guidance. She has only to see the aim clearly, to keep it ever before her mind, and she will have little difficulty in finding ways in which to realize her object. Every study furnishes its characteristic opportunity. Classroom teachers, it is not my purpose here to show you what any of these opportunities are. My object is merely to make this point, namely, that thru your teaching of the common branches, thru the activities connected with your classroom work and play, your pupils may come to know much of the world of labor and much of their own fitness or unfitness for the common types of vocations.

WASTE IN EDUCATION

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, CHICAGO
NORMAL COLLEGE, CHICAGO, ILL.

Efficiency engineers are necessary in education as well as in building and commerce. That the applications of science have revolutionized methods of production and distribution in the world of commodities every well-informed person knows. Simplifying the movements of the bricklayers is but one comparatively unimportant instance of what is going on thruout the world of affairs. That educators should be left behind in the race for effectiveness is not to be thought of for a moment.

For some years the movement for economy in education has been gaining headway. Under the leadership of President Harper, President Eliot, and, later, President Baker, the movement was first of all an attempt to shorten the time necessary for obtaining a college degree. A study of the actual situation soon revealed, however, that the possibilities of economy were to be found, not so much in the higher institutions, as in the early years of schooling. Consequently, the various committees on economy including that of the National Education Association and several appointed by the states, have sought means of eliminating useless subject-matter and of strengthening the methods of the elementary schools.

There need be no fear that this will result in impoverishment. The well-meant efforts of the learned specialists of the Committee of Ten resulted in overloading the grades. The result was dissipation rather than growth. We are just now seeking such simplification as will adapt the activities of

the grades to the immature children found in them. As a contribution to the discussion of this problem I venture to suggest the following simple program for reducing waste.

First of all, we must restate the aims of the school. Unless we are headed in the right direction we shall certainly fail to arrive at the goal. The older view was deeply colored with the theory of mental discipline. Pupils went to school to strengthen their minds. Added to this was some thought of the necessary rudiments of knowledge and skill as embodied particularly in reading, writing, and ciphering. The newer idea is that of growth—a natural development of latent powers and capacities. The business of the school is to provide an environment most conducive to the unfolding of the child's native being. To do this the school must become essentially an epitome of civilized life, presenting its more simple aspects to the younger child and venturing to greater complexity year by year. The activities of the school must take on for the child a sense of reality. The children must actually live and feel that they are living. The hope that the instruction which is being received may some day bear fruit is too vague and intangible to affect the conduct of little ones. In its place must come specific purposes which will result in definite access of ability. In other words, the school must aim to form helpful ideals, right attitudes, and good permanent interests as well as to establish habits, develop skill, and convey useful knowledge.

Secondly, in order to carry out the newer aims of the school, there must be a sifting of the traditional subject-matter and the addition to it of activities until recently thought to be no part of the life of the school. The sorting process is already well advanced. Anyone who will take the trouble to read the *Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, will be profoundly impressed with the progress which has been made. In the field of arithmetic, for example, there is a considerable unanimity in the dropping of subjects and problems which are obsolete because of the change in the world of business or because they are too complex to be of real value. Geography and history are being analyzed from the point of view of the reader who seeks to keep himself informed about the progress of the world. Spelling lists have been reduced from ten or fifteen thousand words to less than a third of that number, selected with reference to the actual writing vocabulary of the pupils themselves. At least half of the topics formerly dwelt upon in English grammar have been relegated to the limbo where dwelleth the gerund grinder. In composition, on the other hand, there has been a great addition to the projects undertaken, with a careful minimizing of the accompanying theory; while in literature there has actually come to be a fair agreement as to the selections from American and British authors and from world-literature which ought to be made familiar to all Americans. There is every assurance that the schools of the next decade will deal with fewer topics in each of the

standard subjects and will make these topics dynamic thru proper emphasis and the use of supporting details.

Added to the traditional studies are handwork, music, drawing, physical education, survey of occupations, health, and the care of plants and animals. Here is an enrichment of the course on the side of motor activity and appreciation. These newer subjects are rich in possibilities, both on the side of practical application to the work of life and on the side of culture, which is but another name for that maturity of experience and increasing sensitiveness which enables a man to enter vicariously into the labors of others and enjoy them as tho they were his own.

As a third important fact, waste in education is being eliminated thru the socialization of school methods. Just as contemporary life will suggest what is most worth while to teach, so the life of the home and neighborhood will suggest the best ways of teaching it. The "stiff and formal recitation" in which the teacher sat as daily inquisitor and played Sherlock Holmes to the more or less sparsely populated brain pans of the luckless youngsters is happily obsolescent. The idea of teaching is slowly but surely replacing the idea of examining. Learning is not now regarded as entirely synonymous with memorizing. Taking the cue from the newer functional psychology, the progressive educator of the day talks about producing changes in behavior, the formation of habits, the development of appreciation, etc. Above all, he regards the class as a group of equals who are to learn thru their mutual associations. One familiar only with the older type of rehash of the book would open his eyes in astonishment when introduced suddenly into the midst of a modern class in oral composition, for example, in which the pupils were actually contributing one by one from their stores of experience for the enlightenment or entertainment of their fellows. This give-and-take of the classroom, this socialization of method, is vitalizing school work to a degree not easy to realize except as it is compared with the stilted and rigid methods of an earlier time.

There is, however, the possibility that socialization of aim, subject-matter, and of method may be taken in too loose a sense, and may therefore result in a lack of continuity and throness. Fortunately, the tendency to more lifelike procedure in the classroom is balanst by another tendency in a very different direction. This is the tendency to apply to the results of school work far more definite and dependable tests than were available in the past.

Economy is to come, furthermore, by the application of better measurements of results. These measurements are essentially objective in character. They represent the united experience and judgment of many workers. They are freed as far as possible from idiosyncrasy and wavering moods. True, they are as yet limited. Nevertheless, the list includes such more or less valuable measures as the handwriting scales of Ayres and Thorndike, the arithmetic-tests of Courtis, the composition scales of

Hillegas and of Ballou, the grammar scale of Starch, the drawing scale of Thorndike, and the reading-tests of Thorndike and of Gray. Applied hitherto mostly in the various surveys which have been carried on in the last three years, they are clearly destined to become a part of the working machinery of every progressive school administration. By means of them the judgment of the individual teacher will be clarified and steadied, and by means of them also the supervisor will be able to compare class with class and school with school. Thus will be made possible the gathering of a body of data that will enable us to determine whether progress is being made and to what degree, at least in the case of the more tangible activities of the school. Such a prospect is most gratifying when we consider that it means the removal from education of the stigma under which it has always rested, namely, that it is a matter of guesswork on the part of well-meaning but rather easy-going men and women, fitted to be missionaries, but not to take any definite or business-like part in the world's work.

Obviously the four factors in the program of reform thus far outlined are dependent upon one other, which is more than ever indispensable. This is the teacher himself, or in America we should perhaps say, herself. The trained teacher is the indispensable means to advancement in education now as always—now more than ever. What the nature of that training must be, the factors already outlined may serve to indicate. That the teacher of children should know arithmetic, history, geography, composition, literature, drawing, and the rest, goes without saying. But in addition to personal knowledge and skill the teacher must have professional point of view and equipment. That this is being more and more recognized is clear from the fact that little by little the schools of the country are being closed to those who cannot offer themselves as specially prepared for the work.

To carry out our program of reform we must of necessity educate the constituency. Parents want their children educated, but they are obliged to depend mostly upon the teachers as to what that education shall consist of. Most parents are certain that their own training has been inadequate. They fondly hope that the school of their day, proudly announced in the real-estate circulars as the best in the country, will do for their children much more than the little "bulwark of freedom" at the crossroads did for them.

This merely passive, not to say pathetically trusting, attitude must necessarily yield to something more constructive if American schools are ever to rise to the level of their real possibilities. Teaching must be regarded as truly a profession, and must be safeguarded as law and medicine are beginning to be safeguarded. It must be recognized that teaching is a life-work, not a task for girls in their teens, just out of high school, and expecting to marry any day. Something of the permanence and the dignity attaching to the schoolmaster of Germany and of France must somehow find its way into America before there will be much change for the

better. When there is added to sound scholarship and training in the arts a knowledge of educational psychology, of modern school methods, and the use of educational measurements, there is built up a task not to be surmounted in a day, nor even in a summer course at a normal school. Rigorous preparation is the price of success in the new education. It must be demanded by an intelligent and discriminating public, which is ready to pay the cost, recognizing that the conservation of the precious years of childhood and the development of those inborn possibilities dependent upon the proper environment for their unfolding, is at once our greatest privilege and our greatest duty.

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—IRENE WARREN, librarian, University of Chicago..... Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—CASPER CARL CERTAIN, head, department of English, Cass Technical High School.... Detroit, Mich.

Secretary—GRACE D. ROSE, librarian, Public Library..... Davenport, Iowa

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1916

The Library Department met in the Auditorium of the Washington Irving High School, and was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by President Irene Warren. Miss Warren outlined the plans which had been followed in preparing the program.

Annie Carroll Moore, supervisor of children's work, New York Public Library, chairman of the local committee, presented the following report:

The committee of nine members representing the public libraries of Brooklyn, Queens Borough, Newark, and New York, and the school libraries of the Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, the Girls' High School of Brooklyn, and the Department of Classroom Libraries of the Board of Education, met once a month from January until June to consider how it might best serve the interests of visitors to the National Education Association. The work of the committee was defined at the outset and has been divided as follows:

1. The preparation of a cooperative folder or brief handbook of library, school, and museum work of interest to teachers. The text was furnished by the institutions included, each institution paying a proportionate amount of the cost of printing. The editing of this pamphlet was done by Alice Blanchard, of the Newark Free Public Library.
2. The preparation of a list of "Lists and Aids for Teachers" by Esther Davis and Agnes Cowing, aided by Effie Power of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and the staff of the children's department of the New York Public Library. This list may be obtained from the H. W. Wilson Company.
3. The preparation of an exhibit based on this list for elementary schools.
4. The preparation of a high-school exhibit under the direction of Mary Hall.
5. Short lists on popular subjects: Camping, Photography, Plays for Children, A Few Girlhoods, Wireless Telegraphy, Adventure, etc., printed by pupils of the vocational departments of the public schools under the direction of C. G. Leland.
6. Organization of personal service at the various exhibits and meetings.

Harriet A. Wood, school librarian, Library Association, Portland, Ore., presented the report of the Committee on University and College Libraries.

The following program was given:

Topic: The Administration of the High-School Library

"Joint Administration of the High-School Library by the Board of Education and the Public Library"—Bessie Sargeant Smith, supervisor of high-school libraries, Cleveland Public Library, Cleveland, Ohio.

"General Principles Involved"—Arthur E. Bostwick, librarian, Public Library, St. Louis, Mo.

"A Constructive Policy"—William B. Owen, principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Discussion—Henry Legler, Public Library, Chicago, Ill.; Purd B. Wright, Public Library, Kansas City, Mo.; Adah Whitcomb, Public Library, Chicago, Ill.; Adelaide Zackert, Public Library, Rochester, N.Y.; Miss White, High School Library, Passaic, N.J.; S. W. Ranck, Public Library, Grand Rapids, Mich.; John B. Kaiser, Public Library,

Tacoma, Wash.; Helen L. Price, High School Library, Oakland, Cal.; Casper C. Certain, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich.; Sherman Williams, State Board of Education, Albany, N.Y.

The president reviewed the general work of the department, and recommended that the chairmen of the various committees be continued from year to year, also the secretaries, as it is very difficult to carry on consecutive work with constantly changing committees.

The president appointed the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

Helen L. Price, High School Library, Oakland, Cal.
L. Louise Smith, Lincoln Park High School, Tacoma, Wash.
Patience Pegan, North Central High School Library, Denver, Col.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Willis H. Kerr, State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.
Mary J. Booth, State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
Sherman Williams, State Board of Education, Albany, N.Y.

SECOND SESSION— TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The meeting was called to order by the president of the department at 9:30 A.M. in Room 213, New York Public Library.

Annie Carroll Moore, chairman of the local committee, explained the various exhibits which had been provided for the benefit of the visiting librarians and teachers.

The following program was presented:

Topic: News from the Field

"Educational Value of Bibliographic Training"—Willard Austen, librarian, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

"The Normal-School Libraries"—Willis Holmes Kerr, librarian, State Normal School, Emporia, Kans.

Discussion—O. S. Rice, supervisor of school libraries, Madison, Wis.

"Report of Committee on High-School Libraries"—Mary Hall, librarian, Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"Report of the Elementary-School Committee"—Effie L. Power, supervisor of work with schools, Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Rural-School Library"—Orpha Maud Peters, assistant librarian, Public Library, Gary, Ind., and Renee B. Stern, editorial staff, *Mother's Magazine*, Elgin, Ill.

Discussion—O. S. Rice, State Board of Education, Madison, Wis.; James A. McMullan, University of Rochester, Rochester, N.Y.; Miss Bogle, director, Training School for Children's Librarians, Pittsburgh, Pa.; H. E. Legler, Public Library, Chicago, Ill.

THIRD SESSION—TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 4, 1916

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:30 P.M. in the Auditorium of the Washington Irving High School.

The following program was presented:

Topic: Source Material

"Source Material in the Library"—May Masee, editor, A.L.A. Book List, Chicago, Ill.

Lecture Recital: "The Drama of Life in the Lyrics of the Folk"—Caroline Crawford, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y., assisted by Elizabeth Rose Fogg, New York, N.Y.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was read by W. H. Kerr, chairman, and was adopted.

The Committee on Nominations recommended the election of the following officers, and the report was unanimously adopted:

President—Effie L. Power, supervisor of school libraries, Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Vice-President—Mary C. Richardson, librarian, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Wash.

Secretary—Nancy Thompson, librarian, State Normal School, Newark, N.J.

The president of the department reported that the exhibits were being visited daily by hundreds of teachers who were asking help and advice of the librarians in charge, and commended the members of the local committee who had given so liberally of time and energy in providing for these exhibits.

FOURTH SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The Library Department met in joint session with the Department of Secondary Education in the Auditorium of the Washington Irving High School at 9:30 A.M.

The following program was given:

"The Importance of the Library in the Modern High School"—William M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Need of an Aggressive Campaign for Better High-School Libraries"—Charles Hughes Johnston, professor of secondary education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

"The Value of the Library to Vocational and Technical Courses in High Schools"—Walter D. Hood, principal, Gilbert School, Winsted, Conn.

"The Administration and Maintenance of the High-School Library"—Mary Sullivan, department of English, Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Report of Library Committee"—C. C. Certain, head, department of English, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Mich.

"Symposium on the Uses of the Library in the Teaching of Subjects in the High School Curriculum:"

"German"—Lydia M. Schmidt, German department, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

"French"—William L. Milwetzky, French department, Barringer High School, Newark, N.J.

"Commercial Subjects"—Arthur M. Wolfson, principal, Julia Richman High School, New York, N.Y.

"English"—James F. Hoscic, secretary, National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

The papers of this meeting appear in the section devoted to the Department of Secondary Education.

GRACE D. ROSE, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

HARRIET A. WOOD, SCHOOL LIBRARIAN, LIBRARY ASSOCIATION,
PORTLAND, ORE.

This committee was organized because it was felt that the library work in our high schools depends largely upon the attitude and point of view of the teachers.

It was found that many of our teachers came to us from leading universities with very little idea of using a library independently themselves or of helping to train their pupils to do so. The committee recommends:

1. That every college and university should give training in the use of books and libraries in classes, including all students.
2. That there be a staff adequate to carry on this work. One of the leading universities reports in the June *Public Libraries* that "the increasing

number of students has made it almost impossible to set aside time for instruction in the use of the library. A small group of students is given some instruction in the library in the use of the library tools." Adequate provision for instruction in the use of books as tools should be made just as surely as adequate provision for laboratory work in science, and a sentiment should be aroused among college libraries that will demand the necessary assistants.

3. As a large majority of college students teach in public schools, courses should be offered on the best books for school children in the grades and in the high schools either by the department of English, by the department of education, or by the library staff. As a part of the library exhibit, helpful outlines of college instruction in libraries are included. Attention is called to the outline prepared by Ida A. Kidder, librarian of the Oregon Agricultural College. Mrs. Kidder has been carrying on this work systematically for a number of years and has brought it beyond the experimental stage. Lucy E. Fay has prepared an outline that has not yet been tried.

4. Each college should provide its students with handbooks, either printed or typewritten, explaining the resources and arrangement of the library. The handbook prepared by Vassar College is an excellent example. In the library exhibit will be found a number of such handbooks for inspection.

5. Special departments in colleges may add very much to the usefulness of the library by requiring the students to prepare bibliographies in proper form. The history department of Vassar College has issued two pamphlets which are an aid to the proper use of books by its students.

It is the hope of this committee that the next year will see a marked advance in the introduction of systematic courses of library instruction, and that anyone interested in the subject will write to any member of the committee who will be glad to make further suggestions.

*JOINT ADMINISTRATION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY
BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND THE
PUBLIC LIBRARY*

BESSIE SARGEANT SMITH, SUPERVISOR OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES,
CLEVELAND PUBLIC LIBRARY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

It is within the memory of many of us that public-school education consisted in learning facts which were between the covers of given textbooks, no matter how dry and seemingly without meaning for the present they might be. The pupil who most accurately and quickly learned those facts was held as the best student, and the pupil whose gift of imagination led him to venture on a new expression of the subject-matter of the textbook was reproved.

Happily for the child of today, teaching from the textbook has expanded into wide fields, and supplementary reading has grown to be a large part of the work which all progressive teachers require. This change in method has necessitated collections of books in the schools to furnish the child with this supplementary material. As this demand for supplementary reading has developed in all grades, the school library has followed of necessity. Classroom libraries have done much fine work in bringing this supplementary reading to the grade schools, thus laying the foundation for grade-school libraries. Where these grade-school libraries have been established, their great value has been so evident that demand for a library in every elementary school has been created. However, teachers in high schools have naturally felt most keenly this need of books to supplement their class textbooks. From this need has arisen a movement for high-school libraries resulting in their formation all over the country.

It is obvious that the two factors which must be instrumental in the establishment of such high-school libraries, are the school and the public library. What then may we expect each to contribute to the work of the high-school library? The school thru its teachers represents a specialized knowledge of the child, with an understanding of his needs from the kindergarten thru the high-school age in particular relation to his learning capacity. The public library, because of its very organization, is able thru its librarians to furnish a trained understanding of the way to use the world of books to the best advantage for the child.

Altho the school and the public library are in nearly every instance united in the administration of the high-school library, there are different ways in which the high-school library administration is worked out in various communities. Because of my familiarity with the plan of administration under the joint jurisdiction of the board of education and the public library, I have been asked to discuss this plan as it is used in Cleveland. Here, in carrying out their plan of joint administration, the Board of Education furnishes the high-school libraries with their rooms and equipment, including shelving, tables and chairs, desks, exhibit cases, magazine racks, vertical files, catalog cases, and other minor articles of furniture, all of which they keep in repair. The Board of Education also buys certain books, chiefly those of a strictly reference character, such as dictionaries and encyclopedias, and "duplicate" sets, rebinding them when required; also it subscribes for a large proportion of the magazines.

The Public Library selects the high-school librarian and pays her salary and that of any other assistants needed; but, in order that there may be entire agreement between them, no high-school librarian is appointed by the Public Library before the principal of the school is consulted. The Public Library is represented by a supervisor with assistants, whose duties consist primarily in unifying the work of all the libraries, and in bringing the ideals of the public library to the knowledge of each high-school librarian.

This is done by individual conferences and by regular joint meetings of all the high-school librarians. At these meetings the important new books of the month are inspected and reviewed, and special problems of high-school library administration are discussed.

The Public Library purchases the major portion of the books in all classes, repairing them at need. It also furnishes all the stationery, supplies, etc.

However, speaking again of high-school-library administration in general, the chief point for our consideration is whether the combined administration justifies itself by producing better high-school libraries. To discover whether this be the fact let us analyze specific details.

The library recognizes the importance of care in technical organization of the work for efficient library service, and therefore insists that its workers must have technical library training. It follows that when the public library shares the administration of the high-school library, the librarian has this point of view as to technical library routine, performing easily that which, to a teacher trained in other directions, is very difficult and often seems non-essential.

The high-school librarian stands in middle ground in relation to the pupils. She is regarded in a less formal light than are the teachers, and often because of this is enabled to become sufficiently acquainted with the pupils to suggest right lines of vocational work. Class instruction in the use of books is given by the high-school librarian to all freshmen. This instruction takes up the structure and care of the book, the printed parts of the book, the content and use of the dictionary and encyclopedia and a few reference books, the use of the card catalog, and the classification of the library. Questions on the dictionary and encyclopedia are given each pupil, and credit is allowed by the English department for the work done. A real appreciation of the value of this work is felt by the teachers, and a spirit of cooperation is evidenced by the fact that the boys in the printshop of our East Technical High School have been allowed to print 10,000 sheets of these questions for use in all our high-school instruction. This class instruction in the use of the library given by the high-school librarian is also a means of bringing her into a relationship with the pupils which affords her many chances for friendly talks or for making helpful suggestions for personal reading. The suggestions are usually accepted by the pupil and a taste for good books is frequently formed in this way. The character of the high-school library should not be that of the schoolroom, but should maintain the viewpoint of a library. While teachers must look upon the matter of public education from the academic viewpoint, a high-school library should be a place where there may be less formality than in the schoolroom. Experience has shown that this sense of freedom is another aid in bringing about the closer touch needed by the boy or girl in the high

school with a person of mature judgment and taste. As Miss Hall has so well said:

The room may fulfil all its proper pedagogical functions as a reference collection for obtaining information, as a training school in best methods of securing that information, as a laboratory for special topic work and collateral reading in connection with the subjects in the curriculum, yet fail of one of its highest functions if it fail to be a place of inspiration and recreation as well.

The public library, in its special technical departments, catalogs and classifies the books added to the high-school library, thus furthering the economy of high-school-library administration. The public library also has facilities for buying its books with much better advantage than has a school. It is the function of an order department of a public library to know the best ways and means to buy with the greatest economy. Moreover, a public library can buy its books at all times, while often a board of education, owing to its organization, in order to procure bids, can buy only at infrequent intervals and in large quantities. This means that a book in immediate demand can be obtained only with difficulty. Many teachers testify as to the benefit their classes have received from the quick purchase by the public library of a new book which otherwise would not have been available in the time of need.

All lists of books to be bought, either by the Board of Education or the Public Library, are compiled by the high-school librarian, and always include the specific titles which teachers suggest as meeting the needs of their work, as well as those suggested to the librarian by the more general needs of the school library as a whole. These lists are carefully compared with the books at the Public Library on the same subjects, that the best possible selection may be made for the school library with the funds allowed.

May we not say, then, that the great contribution of the public library to the high-school library is in its function as a reservoir of books from which the high school may draw at need? The high-school librarian, when, and because, she is a member of the public-library staff, knows more intimately the resources of the whole book-collection of the public library, than could anyone not a member of the public library staff. She can therefore use the central collection more intelligently and effectively. This close affiliation makes possible a more discriminating selection of books for loans to the high-school library. The value of these loans for supplemental work is inestimable, as no high-school library could possibly afford to buy extensively books which, in many instances, are needed only for brief periods.

New books may be borrowed from the public-library collection to test their usefulness, with a view of purchasing them for the high school. Such "trials" many times save buying of books which prove unwise for the particular high-school library. The opportunity to borrow books from the public library keeps the high-school collection free of dead wood and makes

for a working library, live and active. A very real economy for the educational funds of the community is effected on the books side; that is, needless duplication is avoided because the high-school librarian knows so well the collection of the central library and does not buy when a title borrowed temporarily from the library will serve the high-school purpose. In cases where there is more than one high-school library in the city, books may be exchanged between the school libraries. For supplying recreational reading the loans from the public library furnish an impetus which creates a lasting taste for reading and leads the boy or girl after leaving school to seek the rich stores of the public library in the way that only the lover of books knows.

Lastly, books being the very tools of a public library, library workers, to fulfil their function, must have a comprehension and understanding of the world of literature thru their wide reading and specialized training, and must have the ability to evaluate those books needed for the high-school library.

If "a fundamental truth is never trite," may we not once more say that the public library, the continuation school for life, can be brought to the high-school boy or girl more vitally when the librarian is herself part of that continuation school? May we not also say the value is greatest when the public-library's reservoir of books is brought to the boy or girl by the cooperative interests of public library and public school?

GENERAL PRINCIPLES INVOLVED

ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, PUBLIC LIBRARY, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Today's topic divides itself, in my mind, very sharply into two heads: (1) Shall the public library administer the high-school library? (2) Shall it control the educational policy of that library?

Before proceeding to discuss these divisions *seriatim* it is only right that I should state my conviction that the second has been so worded as to create a prejudice in advance against public-library administration. The high-school library can have no educational policy apart from that of the high-school itself; and that the public library should control, or attempt to control, the educational policy of the schools is unthinkable. The way in which the subject is worded fairly creates the presumption that such control is proposed, and for this reason I object to it; for I know of no such proposal.

My advocacy of placing the machinery of administration under public-library control is based on the broader thesis that when various public bodies are conducting departments whose technic is identical, that technic may be profitably put in charge of the one of them that best understands it. Thus, when a library is conducting a training school for librarians

I believe it to be proper that the administration of the school should be intrusted to a local teaching body, where such a body is able and willing to undertake it. This is practically what has been done in Cleveland. Conversely, where a school is operating a library, I believe that this library should be administered by the public body that has been created for the purpose of administering libraries, that is fitted for this task by training, experience, and by the fact that it has no other aims to conflict with the proper performance of the task.

I beg you to observe that where the public library is under the authority of the board of education, no one has ever proposed any other method of administration. Where that board has what is practically a library department there is no question that all the libraries under its jurisdiction should be administered by that department. Now the question is not fundamentally changed, it seems to me, by the mere transference of the public library to a separate board. The fact that objection arises as soon as this transference is made shows that it is an objection, not to the operation of school libraries by the public library authorities, but to intrusting anything under the jurisdiction of the board of education to what that board considers an alien body, without reference to the fact that it is an expert body. This attitude on the part of boards of education of wishing to assemble under their own jurisdiction everything that touches their work in the slightest degree is by no means confined to school libraries and has been frequently commented upon. It is doubtless a necessary attitude in instances where the city is under the rule of the ward boss and in the grasp of the spoils system—where the board of education is the only public body not permeated with graft and finds it necessary to preserve its independence and liberty of action with jealous care. Complete duplication of many things may be allowable in such a situation, where, on general principles, it would be wasteful. I am assuming, of course, that this situation does not exist.

Where the feeling is very strong on the part of the board of education that it would be improper to let another board administer anything that goes on within its buildings, a working agreement between the two boards may solve the problem. Such an agreement is in successful operation in Portland, Ore., where school libraries are in charge of a supervisor who is an official of both boards and whose salary is paid jointly by them.

One of the obvious advantages of library-control is that when such a course seems desirable the school library may function also as a branch library for the neighborhood. This plan has been successful in Cleveland, in Kansas City, in Gary, and elsewhere. There are differences of opinion about its desirability, but it certainly would not be practicable at all with school libraries wholly under the control of the schools.

I fear, however, that I may weaken my case by seeming to rest it on such particular instances as these. It does not stand nor fall with any of

them, but depends on the broad principle laid down at the beginning. What we are aiming at, of course, is to get good school libraries and to connect the habit of school reading with a general habit of reading thru life. That school libraries should be in charge of someone who has no other duties and who understands library technic, admits, I think, of no doubt. There is a priori no reason why such persons should not be employed wholly by boards of education; and they have, in notable instances, been so employed. But the fact remains that generally, where school libraries are operated directly by school authorities, they have not been put in charge of experts and are unsatisfactorily administered. The public library is not seeking for aggrandizement, but it does believe that it has the special knowledge and the machinery to reorganize and operate these unsatisfactory libraries better and more cheaply than if it were done by duplicate machinery and expert advice under the board of education. And the question is more than one of methods. The facts are that, still speaking generally, the public library does the work and the board of education does not. Boards of education have been accustomed for years to look on collections of books, outside of the text-book domain, as entirely subsidiary or even unnecessary. The present discussion is sufficient evidence that this point of view is changing. If it is desirable that it should change completely and radically, why not allow the school libraries to be taken in charge by bodies who have had the broader view for a generation, who have thought for years in terms of libraries, and whose theory and practice is all directed toward making libraries effective?

DISCUSSION

HENRY LEGLER, librarian, Chicago Public Library.—He reported new high-school libraries organized on the same lines as those in Cleveland. The Public Library undertook the work of organization for the Board of Education. Chicago has 22 high schools, and in the old buildings the libraries were in very small rooms, in closets, and even in cellars. In the newer buildings provision is made for large, light library rooms where the library will be administered by the Public Library. There has been cordial response and cooperation on the part of the school people. The first high school in which the library was established was the Carter Harrison Technical High School with large day and evening sessions, work shops, etc. The School Board appropriated \$2500 for a first purchase of books. They also furnish the room and equipment, some of which is made in the school workshop. The Public Library supplies the staff of library workers, pays salaries, and buys additional books, making an annual appropriation to supplement the collection and furnishes 80 to 100 magazines. Cataloging and technical work is also done by the Library. This school library was opened in February, 1916. In March two others were opened; a fourth will be ready in October, and plans are under way for the establishment of branch libraries in all the high schools under this same arrangement. These libraries will be for school patrons only. The cooperation and helpfulness both on the school side and on the library side is most favorable to both institutions.

PURD B. WRIGHT, librarian, Kansas City Public Library.—It is too early to be sure that the public library is the only way of administration for high-school libraries. In

Kansas City the public library is under the control of the school board. There has been a public branch library in one high school, open for two years, and this is of great benefit to the school. It is open to a grade school and to the public after high-school hours, and connects the library with the practical as well as with the educational side of life. It has been noted that many boys and girls, when they quit school, also quit the library. When asked why, reply, "Why, I am thru school." And this is the reason why the branch and general work should be connected with the high-school libraries. Kansas City has also five branches in grade schools.

ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK.—We will try the same experiment in St. Louis. Conditions differ in different cities, and what may be successful in one may fail in another. There is a large high school in St. Louis distant from any branch library and a good place where this joint-library experiment can be tried out.

ADELAIDE ZACKERT, extension librarian, Public Library, Rochester, N.Y.—Rochester will try this experiment in grade schools, but not in the high-school libraries which are supported wholly by the board of education. The largest percentage of readers are children and it is difficult to get adults to come to the school and feel the same interest.

SHERMAN WILLIAMS, supervisor of school libraries, New York State Board of Education, Albany, N.Y.—This discussion turns on large city high schools and their library conditions, and I know of many cities where the school is better able to help the library than the library the school. Often high school and the grades are in the same building and no such division as has been suggested is possible. The child who has not formed the reading habit before high school is reached, seldom forms it at all.

S. H. RANCK, librarian, Public Library, Grand Rapids, Mich.—Grand Rapids has had libraries in grade schools for twelve years past and has now ten, and from the educational viewpoint I consider that to be the strategic point for work. The undesirable class is practically nil. The library strengthens the whole system because it does tend to bring adults to the school building. The library gives free lectures attended by adults. We have one high-school library for both the school and the community about seven minutes' walk from a branch library in a separate building. The place to serve people is where they congregate. Where there is a large foreign population they come only for the foreign books. In American neighborhoods adults do come after a little time. The free lectures help to bring them and on the slips announcing the lectures are always lists of books on the subjects which may be found at the branch library. The children also take books for their parents. School-deposit libraries are in all cases administered by the public library. A school library is valuable even near a branch and is often a nucleus sufficiently large to establish a branch, providing certain conditions can be met. New problems come up constantly, but we are extending this work with schools as rapidly as possible.

We should all keep in mind the saying of Dr. L. P. Ayers, "An invincible love of reading is the most important gift that can be given to a child and both school and library should join in giving this invincible love to each child." In Grand Rapids the superintendent of schools is a member of the Board of Library Commissioners *ex officio* and the relations of the two boards are very close.

JOHN B. KAISER, librarian, Public Library, Tacoma, Wash.—The library board in some cities is the final authority on budgets but often city councils decrease the budget and it may not be possible to carry on this joint work. In Tacoma a branch could not be established on account of the action of the council but we thought that it was better to have first a successful high-school library before making it a branch library.

BESSIE SARGEANT SMITH.—In Cleveland book lists are made out by the library and purchased by the Board of Education.

MISS WHITE, librarian, High-School Library, Passaic, N.J.—In Passaic the school board pays to the public library \$600 each year which is to be spent on this work and an average of \$500 is spent for books for the high-school library. We think that grade-school branches are more important than high-school branches and the library work is continued from the grammar school to the high school.

HELEN L. PRICE, librarian, High-School Library, Oakland, Cal.—It is late to discuss libraries in very small high schools but this is a great problem and I hope it can be put on future programs. I visited forty such high schools last year and in many of them there was no library at all and often but from four to ten teachers. These teachers are most earnest and ask, "What can we do?"

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF BIBLIOGRAPHIC TRAINING

WILLARD AUSTEN, LIBRARIAN, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N.Y.

At the apex of the educational pyramid is commonly supposed to stand the scholar, the university scholar, or professor. Following in his wake comes the graduate student, in training for the scholar's position, working under his superior's direction, but reaching out into bypaths that lead from the main traveled roads. Then comes the so-called undergraduate in all stages of development. Finally comes the great group of general readers following out their free fancy, dipping into science today, literature tomorrow, liberally spiced with fiction of varying quality.

Roughly cast, these are the groups of users that the library has to deal with, and the attitude of the library toward the several classes, changing as it has been, calls for a glance in passing. With regard to the great body of general readers, many of whom mentally crystallized at an early age, the task of helping them to develop into self-helpful readers has seemed in many cases well-nigh hopeless. The easiest thing for them, and, at the moment, the easiest thing for the librarian, is to find out what is wanted (not always an easy task) and put the book into the hand of the reader opened at the right page, or to learn what to him will prove an interesting novel and give it to him. This process must needs be repeated every time such readers come to the library, so that what seems the easiest method at first really involves the more expenditure of time in the case of all such readers who come with more or less frequency to the library. Thus far comparatively little is being done in most libraries to make this class of readers self-helpful, and perhaps little can be done. The feeling that many librarians have, that the public librarian is paid to be of service to the public leads many to decide that library assistants should go to any length in serving the public, as often as the readers reappear.

The work with the school children, from the very beginning of their use of the library up to the time of entering college, and after, is a more hopeful field. At least, it seems more worth while to teach them how to help themselves, and they are more willing to make the effort to learn. What-

ever may be said in excuse for this practice with older readers, there is little to be said in defense of any failure to teach young readers how to use the library. Reading children are in possession of certain fundamental principles, altho we sometimes find them without a knowledge of the order of the letters of the alphabet, which is certainly a fundamental requisite in using a library, as it is in every form of mental activity, and when in possession of these the labor of giving them an insight into the general principles of using a library is small compared with the labor saved in the long run. Then the worth-whileness of doing this does not end with the economy of time to the library. We know not which of these young readers is a scholar in the making, and therefore all must be lookt upon as such and should be started in the training that plays so large a part in all higher research work, altho the ripe scholar is often slow to realize his own defect in this respect.

The same principles hold true all the way up thru the college and university body. If the students have had no bibliographic training in the preparatory schools, and as yet few come to the universities who have had, then the college library must do what it can to supply this lack, realizing that a still larger percentage of college students than are found among the preparatory group are destined to be workers with books. Hitherto a large part of the work of training college students in using the library has been taken up with teaching them how to use a catalog, an index, or a cyclo-pedia, and other steps fundamental to doing anything more advanst; and until students come to the university with this preliminary preparation, such library training is inevitable. The great service that public and school libraries can do for students preparing to go to college is to teach them these preliminary steps toward more advanst research problems, to give them drill in the technic with little stress on the facts found, but all stress on the methods of finding them. In this way, when they begin their use of books in a university library it will be with some such appreciation as the musician has of his music after he has mastered the technic and has no longer to consider it.

In the present crowded state of the preparatory-school curriculum and the lack of opportunity that prevents librarians from getting any systematic cooperation from the preparatory teachers, it is not easy to see just where such instruction can best be given. The librarians know that the school teachers lack the training in the use of books that would enable them to instruct the pupils. It is maintained by some that teachers should get their bibliographic training in their college courses, but with the elective system prevailing in nearly all our colleges, such training cannot be required, and unless room can be found for it in schools where work is required the problem cannot thus be solved. The student enters college and begins his special work in one or more groups of subjects. He is expected to gain more or less familiarity with the books on these subjects, but beyond those immediately brought to his attention, he has no time, inclination, nor

facility for getting bibliographic training. Cooperation between preparatory schools and college libraries may well be a subject for special attention at some future discussion of our association.

We now come nearer the apex of our intellectual pyramid and encounter for the first time the graduate student, one who is doing real research work, whose results are, perhaps for the first time, of some importance. To the student is assigned a piece of work, generally something that has not been fully worked out before. One of the first steps in the process is to gather his materials. To find just how much has been done by others along the same or similar lines. This calls into play the historical method. All this must be done by reference to the literature of the subject, if it has a literature, and there are few that have not. The master may know in a general way what has been done in the special field, but the investigator must find out for himself, and he goes to work. He begins with the most obvious thing, the latest authoritative work on the subject. Here he is sure to encounter, perhaps for the first time, citations to the literature of the subject, and his real difficulties begin. If he is working in science he is likely to encounter such references as *Comptes Rendus*, *Silliman's Journal*, *Poggendorf's Annalen*, etc. He does not know that *Comptes Rendus* in science references probably refer to the reports of the *Academie des Sciences*, altho the same words may with equal propriety be used by other writers to refer to the *Academie des inscriptions et belles lettres*; he does not know that *Silliman's Journal* is a loose way of referring to the *American Journal of Science*, started by Benjamin Silliman.

If the student is working in literature or philology, then he will sooner or later encounter such references as *W.Z.* meaning *Wiener Zeitschrift* and be wholly unable to tell among at least a dozen *Zeitschriften* published at Vienna, which one is intended.

And finally, a student working in the social sciences will find such references as the "Committee of Ten," or the committee of fifteen, or of seven, or some other meaningless number, and never know, until he is told, that the references are to the publications of special committees of the National Education Association or the American Historical Association whose number happened to be ten or fifteen or seven.

These are samples of many inaccurate and incomplete references found in the best classes of literature, that hundreds of advanced students are encountering every year. It is not too much to say that the literature of every subject is full of references to authorities that are so far from being even suggestive of the publications referred to that only a scholar of years' standing or an unusually clever reference librarian could guess what is intended by many of them. The attitude of writers making such references is well known to librarians. They argue first that because others have made such references before them, they should continue the practice. They have some of the lawyers' tenacity for following precedent. They say that all

scholars in their field know what is intended, and, furthermore, bibliographical practice should conform to the practice of scholars and not the scholar's practice to bibliographic law. They overlook the fact that the same publication is cited by different writers in different ways. Witness the citations *Leip. abh. Ges.*, *Wiss. Abh. Sach.*, *Ges. Gesell d. Leip.*, all intended for the same publication, viz., *The König. Säch. Gesell. d. Wissenschaft. Abhandlungen*. Often they do not know that the same abbreviation may be used for two entirely different works. If all scholars in a given field do recognize the usual references, which is far from being the case, they forget the hardship imposed on the rising generations of scholars who are looking up these citations for the first time. They consult the usual bibliographical lists, but fail to find anything that corresponds to their citation. In this way hours of time are wasted simply in the effort to find out what is intended by the author. These citations often bear no resemblance to the form that every bibliography worthy of the name must use to enter the work. Finally, reference to the librarian may put him right. Often it is mere guesswork with the most experienced librarian.

The limit of endurance is reached when scholars refuse to recognize a body of bibliographic law which has grown up all unknown to them, and which has attained the same dignity of authority that the specialist claims for laws in his own field of work. It would be unjust to apply this criticism to all scholars, because many of them are conscious of their shortcomings in this direction and are willing to accept the bibliographer's law when it is pointed out to them, but, as yet, the number is not large and the majority will persist to the end in doing these things as their predecessors have done. Not only does this lack of knowledge work hardship to others, but the scholar himself suffers when he comes to use the great bibliographies of the world. Let me cite a recent case of a writer of many books who had occasion to look up the well-known history of the Civil War by the *Comte de Paris*, and not finding it, appealed to the librarian to know why it was not in the catalog, he having looked for it under "Comte," and of course, failed to find it. I have known an eminent classicist, familiar with all the literature of his subject, who has difficulty in finding his materials in a card catalog, particularly the learned society publications. He looks for *Abhandlungen*, *Sitzungsberichte*, *Acte*, and other catch words, and wonders why he does not find what he wants, never recalling the simple rule regarding the entry of such materials he has been so often told. Now I am not telling these cases to hold anyone up to ridicule, but merely to show the real need that exists among the highest class of literary workers for a knowledge of bibliographic law. If this lack of comprehension of first principles exists among those who have spent years in looking up citations and following out chains of references, what can be expected of those just beginning the process, or still more, of those who have never approached the problem with any serious needs?

It will now be realized without much difficulty, I think, how great are the needs of a knowledge of bibliographic law among all classes of library-users, from the highest to the lowest, and how important it is that we train the rising generation in the right way that when they come to write books they will not follow their predecessors in the matter of citations. As yet the only workers in this field are the librarians. When the normal-school students have been trained long enough to create a considerable body of teachers in our public schools with a knowledge of bibliographic law, then librarians will be strongly reinforced, granting the need for this bibliographical knowledge.

The problem that confronts us today is to find out what can be done to extend this instruction to the widest possible number and at the earliest possible time. As has been suggested, the elements of this instruction should be given in the preparatory schools. Two difficulties stand in the way of this. There is not room in the crowded school curriculum to add any more required courses, and the teachers are not trained to give instruction in the subject. The schools that have trained librarians offer the most hopeful solution of this problem.

College and university students, especially those going out to be teachers, should get this training before graduation, in order to be prepared to give instruction to their pupils. Here again the elective system that prevails in our universities, and the large number of students, prevent such instruction being required work, altho its need may be generally recognized.

Every college and university should offer a systematic course in bibliography, dealing, not alone with the several groups of books that every educated person needs to know about, but enough of the technic of classification, cataloging, indexing, bookbinding, etc., to enable the student to use a library and to teach others to do so.

The addition of a historical course dealing with writing, printing, illustrating, etc., is less imperative, altho decidedly valuable for the complete knowledge of the subject.

In Cornell University a course covering one-half-year, two hours a week, dealing with the principles of classification, cataloging, etc., as well as the great groups of books in a systematic way, is offered to all students. The impossibility of requiring such a course in an institution with an entering class of over 1000 students is apparent.

A course in the history of writing and book-making of ancient times and printing and book-making of modern times is offered to those who have had the introductory course.

A course in paleography is offered to those qualified to take it.

For some years a single lecture on using the library was given at the opening of the college year to all new students. The difficulty of finding an hour for this lecture when any considerable number of students could be brought together, together with the fact that few students, so early in their

college experience, realized their need of such instruction, operated to discourage the continuance of this practice.

A handbook of general instructions for using the library is given to each student on registration. In this book an attempt is made to explain some of the more difficult parts of the catalog, together with a general statement as to the location of the main groups of books, and the general rules and regulations governing their use. Beyond this it has not been possible thus far to extend instruction in bibliography.

DISCUSSION: NORMAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES

O. S. RICE, state supervisor of school libraries, Madison, Wis.—The committees which have been formulating standards and collecting data relating to various phases of school-library work are doing pioneer service in an important field. The time is at hand when the indefiniteness surrounding the school-library problem, both in theory and practice, must yield to clear-cut aims and plans carried forward with energy; the halo of goodwill which surrounds this subject should be justified by good works.

Standards bring about definiteness of aim and serve the double purpose of stimulating progress and of measuring the advancement made. They enable us to know "where we're at." When a standard has been set, it is likely to be subject to criticism and this leads to discussions, experiments, and modifications which result in its being more nearly fitted to the actual needs of the situation. At the same time its principles are being carried into practice on a larger scale than would otherwise be possible.

The discriminating character of the questionnaire sent out by the committee whose report has been given by Mr. Kerr will of itself influence normal-school librarians to take stock of the condition and effectiveness of their respective libraries. At least an uneasiness will be created which only definite improvement will allay.

The question relating to a children's department in the normal-school library, for example, touches a matter of vital importance, and those normal schools which do not have a children's room will at least study the question, and as a result some will establish them. I am of the opinion that a children's department should be maintained in every normal school. It is needed as a school library for the children enrolled in the training school and as a laboratory for library instruction given to teachers.

The questions relating to the librarians and assistants, their qualifications, pay, etc., touch a vital feature of normal-school library administration. Self-examination on the part of normal-school authorities here ought to result, in many instances, in adding to the dignity and effectiveness of the library staff. Only a few years ago the normal-school librarian's name was invariably found at the end of the list of faculty members in the annual catalog, there to dangle between the name of the latest and greenest addition to the "faculty" above and that of the "clerk," and mayhap of the janitor, below. Conditions as to the librarian's rank have greatly improved lately, but the proper standard has not yet been reached in most normal schools. The teaching function of the librarian has been an effective help in obtaining for him proper consideration. I may say in passing that, owing to the teaching requirement, which is likely to increase as school-library work progresses, it would seem advisable and even necessary that the normal-school librarian should have, in addition to library training, preparation as a teacher.

Not only will this questionnaire lead to self-examination on the part of the normal-school libraries, but it will also suggest profitable topics for discussion at gatherings of librarians and teachers.

Without doubt the most important part of the committee's investigation relates to the extent to which the standardized courses of study in library instruction are being used. Reference is here made to the report of the committee on standardizing the course of study in library instruction in normal schools, which reported at last year's meeting of the National Education Association, and of which Mr. Hosis was chairman.

Only a very small proportion of the normal schools reporting reach that standard. We need not be surprised at this, but should feel encouraged that a start has been made, that a standard has been set.

It must be borne in mind here that normal-school authorities are hard prest to find time and means adequately to prepare teachers to impart instruction in the subjects required to be taught in the elementary schools. They will therefore be hesitant about introducing standard library courses for teachers, if library lessons are not a required part of the elementary-school course.

But has not the time come when lessons on the use of books and reading, including newspapers and magazines, should be made a part of the course of study in elementary schools just as definitely as geography, arithmetic, or any other traditional school subject? President Owen, of the Chicago Normal School, in his address before this department yesterday, said that he favors a definite requirement that pupils before graduation from a high school shall prove their ability to find and organize information on any topic within the range of their powers. But most young people quit school in the grades. Shall we not, then, also make definite library requirements in the grades for the further reason that it is important to start the library habit early if it is to be fully effective?

The new watchword in education is not "training the mind," for the theory of formal discipline has lost its hold; it is not "culture" alone, for ideals not backt by deeds are futile; but it is preparation for life.

In spite of this saner and better basis of education, the textbook to a large extent holds the fort against all comers. We give the pupils minute directions on how to use them—page by page, paragraph by paragraph, we follow them religiously; we proceed as if the child were going to consult textbooks daily thruout life. And yet we seldom, unless we are teachers, look at a textbook when school days are over. The kind of reading which is, or should be, done thruout life is represented by the school library. Logically, then, we should transfer much of the energy expended on textbooks to securing the effective use of the school library.

But if the teacher needs to give such explicit directions for using textbooks, then, surely, the child needs instruction in the use of the library—a collection of books—which is a more complex situation than that represented by the textbook.

Now this instruction in books and reading should be given in a definite course of study extending thru the grades. In order that this may be accomplisht the library lessons must be carefully outlined and specifically made a part of the required course.

We cannot expect the teacher to prepare a textbook for her own guidance in library work any more than in geography, history, or any other traditional school subject. Realizing this situation and finding no text of the kind on the market, the Wisconsin Department of Education had one prepared for use in the schools of the state. It is entitled *Lessons on the Use of the School Library* and was distributed at the beginning of last school year.

Teachers receive many publications in the course of the year, and it was foreseen that, if this publication was to be used in all schools, it would be necessary to incorporate its lessons in the elementary-school course. Fortunately that course has been revised within the last few months and the lessons on the use of the school library were included with the following explanation, quoted in part:

How to bring about such use of the school library on the part of pupils as will make them intelligent users of printed matter, both for reference and for general reading, is one of the most important problems of the school. In view of this fact the State Depart-

ment of Education at the beginning of the school year 1915-16 distributed to the schools of the state a publication entitled "Lessons on the Use of the School Library." In this publication will be found definite lessons to be given in the various grades and classes of the school course. . . . The work thus outlined is an integral part of the common-school course as presented in this manual.

We thus have in Wisconsin a series of library lessons thruout the grades as definitely a part of the course as the traditional subjects. Special classes are not required, since the work is distributed among the various school branches already establish in the course. For example, the thirty lessons on the use of the dictionary, given from the third to the eighth grades, inclusive, are distributed among the reading, spelling, geography, and grammar classes. Each lesson in the course is assigned to that class to which its subject-matter is most closely related. For example, the lesson on the gazetteer in the dictionary is assigned to the geography class; the lesson on farmers' bulletins to the agriculture class; the literary reference lessons to the reading class; etc.

It is difficult to see how normal schools can escape their responsibility in the preparation of teachers to give such lessons, when they are specifically made a part of the elementary-school course.

Would it not be advisable for library workers to put much emphasis in this connection on impressing state departments of education in their respective states with the need of such a course in the elementary schools, and, as a corollary, the need of training teachers to give the library lessons effectively? If we reverse the emphasis, we put the cart before the horse.

Before library lessons can, with success, be made an obligatory part of a state course of study, however, there must be, at least, a small library in practically every school. In a growing number of states such a condition already exists. The spread of this condition to all the states, the incorporation of library lessons in the elementary course of study, and standard courses in library training in all normal schools, will constitute as great an advance in education as it has experienst in a generation of unpredecended educational progress.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARIES

MARY E. HALL, LIBRARIAN, GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

The last year has been one of steady progress in the development of high-school libraries. The committee has followed closely the program of work as outlined in its 1915 report. With the cooperation of various state and local committees and librarians of public libraries, much has been accomplisht.

Our work has been greatly strengthened by the appointment of a cooperating committee on high-school libraries in the Department of Secondary Education. This committee promises great things for the future. The year has proved that each committee can made a definite contribution to the high-school library movement. That which we, as a committee of librarians, had failed to accomplish in the last five years is likely to be done by the new committee. In the past our greatest hindrance to progress has been the apathy of educational leaders and their lack of vision of the possibilities of the high-school library. The most important work of the new committee will be to secure the active support of school superintendents, state departments of education, high-school principals,

and boards of education. For the first time since we began this high-school library campaign in 1911, a brief hearing on the subject was granted by the Department of Superintendence at the Detroit meeting. The Department of Secondary Education has set apart an entire session of the New York meeting for a discussion of high-school library possibilities.

Our chief work this year has been along the line of the development of libraries in city high schools. Definite things have been accomplished in the way of laying a foundation for constructive work by all committees in the country. We submit the following brief summary of what has been done:

1. Compilation of a directory of the leading high-school libraries of each state. This will be published in the *American Library Annual*, 1915-16 (R. R. Bowker Co., 241 West Thirty-seventh Street, New York). The list will be revised and kept up to date each year.

2. A high-school library map. This has been prepared for the New York meeting of the National Education Association in order to show clearly just where the different cities stand in this reorganization of high-school libraries. By means of pins we have indicated the number of high schools in each city which are now on a modern efficiency basis and doing vital work. By the aid of the directory of high-school libraries similar maps can be prepared for exhibits at educational and library meetings. Many large cities are not yet on this map, and the lack of pins in whole sections of the country demonstrates how much is yet to be accomplished.

3. Loan collection of architects' blueprints showing floor plans and equipment of modern high-school libraries. This has been lent to architects, superintendents, and principals planning new high-school buildings or remodeling high-school library rooms.

4. Publicity work. The committee has spared no effort to bring before the public, especially the educational world, the possibilities of the modern high-school library organized on an efficiency basis and in charge of a trained librarian. Its work has been along the following lines:

- a) Exhibits at educational meetings.

- b) Presentation of the subject at educational and library meetings.

- c) Articles in educational and library periodicals and in daily newspapers.

- d) Distribution of printed material on the high-school library.

- e) Compilation of a high-school library bulletin for distribution at this meeting. This was made possible by the courtesy and generosity of the H. W. Wilson Co., White Plains, N.Y. who devoted the greater part of their June bulletin to the material the committee prepared and contributed a large number of copies for distribution.

During the last year the high-school library was a main topic for discussion at various important meetings of educational and library associations. An exhaustive library exhibit has been prepared for this meeting. Two

large corridors and three rooms in the Washington Irving High School were assigned for this exhibit and an effort has been made to illustrate the entire work of the modern high-school library, showing its relation to each department, commercial, manual training etc., as well as academic. In the planning and preparation of this exhibit we gratefully acknowledge the help given by many teachers and librarians in different parts of the country. That part of the exhibit which can be lent in the form of scrapbooks, pamphlets, etc., will be kept by our committee as a permanent loan exhibit to be sent wherever it can be of service. There is great need at present that educational leaders be given a visible demonstration of what we mean by a modern high-school library. If they cannot actually see one in action the exhibit will prove the next best thing.

For the loan of the exhibit or any section of it apply to Mary E. Hall, the Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N.Y. Borrowers are expected to pay expressage both ways. There is no further charge.

PERMANENT LOAN EXHIBIT OF HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY WORK

In order that leaders in the movement may know the nature of this exhibit we submit the following rough outline with the hope that it may be suggestive as to its scope and value for educational and library meetings. Librarians of high schools will also find sections suggestive to them in their own work.

Planning and equipping a high-school library:

1. Collection of architects' blueprints showing floor plans of leading high-school libraries which are well planned and well equipt according to modern library standards.
2. Scrapbook showing photographs of interiors of high-school libraries, floor plans, etc.

Aids in building up a high-school library:

1. Collection of the best printed lists of books recommended for high-school libraries. These cover all departments.
2. Scrapbook showing magazines on file in various types of high-school libraries.
3. Aids in buying pictures, lantern slides, post cards, and other illustrative material.

Aids in organizing a high-school library:

1. Books and pamphlets on the administration of small libraries.
2. Scrapbook illustrating methods actually in use in different high-school libraries, changes in classification, charging system, rules, printed forms, etc.

The work of a modern organized high-school library:

The aim of this section of the exhibit is to illustrate as fully as possible what the modern high-school library contributes to the entire work of the modern high school. The most progressive high-school libraries in the country were asked to prepare scrapbooks fully illustrating their work. This section of the exhibit consists of the following scrapbooks at present. It will be augmented from time to time.

1. Chicago University High School.
2. Cleveland. High-school branches of the Cleveland Public Library.
3. Decatur, Ill. High School.
4. Denver, Col. North Side High School.
5. East Orange, N.J. High School.
6. Grand Rapids. Central High School.

7. Minneapolis. South Side High School.
8. Newark, N.J. Barringer High School.
9. New York City. Girls' High School, Brooklyn.
10. New York City. Julia Richman High School, New York.
11. Passaic, N.J. High-school branch of Public Library.
12. Portland, Ore. High-school branches of the Public Library.
13. Spokane, Wash. North Central High School.
14. Tyrone, Pa. High School.
15. White Plains, N.Y. High School.
16. Winsted, Conn. Gilbert School.

Training high-school pupils to use a library.

1. Best pamphlets and books on this subject.
2. Scrapbook giving outlines and courses in different high schools. (Does not include courses already included in the scrapbooks made by high schools listed above.)

The use of a modern high-school library by each department.

1. Art department.
2. Biology.
3. Commercial subjects.
4. Domestic science and domestic art.
5. English department. Home reading lists in various high schools.
6. English department. Oral English and the library.
7. English department. Collateral or supplementary reading for English classics.
8. Julia Richman High School. Supplementary reading list on R. L. Stevenson.
9. Scrapbook illustrating the use of magazines and newspapers in high-school English; compiled by B. A. Heydrick, High School of Commerce.
10. Hunter College High School, New York City. Scrapbook illustrating how the English department uses library aids.
11. History department, Los Angeles High School. Charts prepared by Miss Stewart to illustrate the use of a library in the teaching of history.
12. History department. Scrapbook giving history reading lists for European history, ancient and modern.
13. History department. American history and civics. Scrapbook.
14. Latin department.
15. Manual Training and Technical courses.
16. Modern languages: French, German, Spanish.
17. Vocational guidance.

The report of the committee of the Department of Secondary Education which appears in the proceedings of that department should be read by those who desire to secure a good idea of the present situation of high-school libraries.

In closing, the committee wishes to express its appreciation of the splendid cooperation given by librarians and teachers in all parts of the country and to suggest the following new lines of work for the next year:

1. The establishment of a model high-school library in every college and university maintaining a school of education, where students preparing to teach in high schools may gain some knowledge of what their own high-school libraries in the future ought to be.

2. The maintenance of an exhibit of the high-school library aids in every college and university giving summer courses for teachers. If possible,

an experienced high-school librarian should be in charge to meet teachers and principals of high schools and advise with them on the care of their small school libraries.

3. The introduction of a brief course in library methods in every college and university and that this be a required course for all prospective teachers.

4. Occasional informal conferences of trained librarians in cities with teachers in charge of small high-school libraries in near-by towns.

REPORT OF THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL COMMITTEE

EFFIE L. POWER, SUPERVISOR OF WORK WITH SCHOOLS, CARNEGIE LIBRARY,
PITTSBURGH, PA.

The Elementary-School Committee of the Library Section of the National Education Association was authorized at the St. Paul meeting in 1914 and has since been continued under the same chairman with a change in members. The first report made at the Oakland meeting was in the form of an outline of organization of departmental library work with elementary schools, and was not final. Its aim was to cover the field of library work in elementary schools in connection with public-library systems in large towns and cities only, and not to encroach upon the work of the committees on rural schools nor of those on normal schools.

During the last year the new committee has endeavored to develop one point in the outline submitted in 1914; that is, the book-collection needed for departmental-library work with elementary schools.

Such a collection should contain books for intensive work in literature in the classroom, supplementary reading on all class topics, but chiefly books of literature and information for children's home reading. It should differ from a collection of the same size for use by children in a library room in the following points: the standard of selection should be higher, and the number of titles less; there should be more duplicates of standard and classic books; the local-school course of study should be more fully considered, and the collection should be correlated to all other collections in use in the local schools.

In 1914 the committee recommended five lists of books as aids toward book-selection, but was not able to find a satisfactory short list which could be used by libraries or schools beginning departmental-library work in elementary schools on a small scale. To meet this need a tentative list of 800 books has been prepared to serve as a basis for such a collection. It consists of a selection of standard and classic books for children, together with a number of books on subjects in common demand. The latter have been tested and are recommended as the best available at the present time. It is the plan of the committee to extend this list to 1000 or 1200 titles arranged by grades, with descriptive notes on each book. [As long as the

supply on hand lasts, Miss Power will be glad to send a list on request.—
EDITOR.]

The committee has kept in mind the fact that any list made for general use will need to be supplemented by books of information to meet the demands of the curriculum of the individual school. The selection has also been made on the basis of a definite plan of distribution.

The committee believes that the books used in the first grade should be limited to fifteen or twenty titles and that these should be duplicated to the number required. About five more titles have been allowed for the second grade. The oral presentation of selected folk-lore and poetry should be emphasized to little children, the book being introduced as a means toward the enjoyment of this literature. They should also be allowed to read some books in part, as a grown-up reads a book in a half-known foreign tongue, because their literature is often interpreted by means of pictorial illustration as well as by word symbols. Following these principles, the collections for the lower grades have not been limited to the child's capacity for classroom reading, and the books listed are not intended to be used as textbooks.

The collection for grade three should be more miscellaneous in character, but should be confined chiefly to folk-lore and poetry. More books of information should be included beginning with the fourth grade, emphasis being placed upon nature subjects and biography.

The next expansion should come at the beginning of the seventh grade, when the number of books should be materially increased. At this age the child's love for reading stagnates, or grows by leaps and bounds, and more variations in taste are noticeable among members of groups. It is the age at which to introduce standard adult fiction and adult books of biography, history, and science.

In listing the classics for children, particular attention has been applied to the selection of an attractive edition, but a cheaper one has been added in most cases.

THE RURAL-SCHOOL LIBRARY

I. ORPHA MAUD PETERS, ASSISTANT LIBRARIAN, PUBLIC LIBRARY, GARY, IND.

So much needs to be done toward placing the needs and possibilities of the rural-school library before the people that the question to be solved by the Rural-School Committee was, What is the most valuable piece of work this committee can do? How can we best succeed in creating an interest in the rural-school library, in causing investigation as to the existing conditions, and at the same time get results which will be of real value in the national campaign for better school libraries?

Most people who have investigated the rural-school problem realize the deplorable condition of the majority of these libraries, and are awakening to the fact that something must be done. What organization directs the

work matters not so much as that the work be done. In any case the rural teacher plays a most important part in the rural school-library and can at least assist in its general supervision. There are those who contend that the rural teacher is too busy to bother with the library; that she has all grades and that every minute of her time is occupied by her school duties. Those who advocate this, however, are considering the library an adjunct to the school when it should be a vital factor in the school curriculum.

Someone has said that the efficient country school must be a "community center of education, instructing both children and adults in terms of country life and pointing the way to community prosperity and welfare." To make the school such a community center, there must be provided, in some way, an adequate library, and the teacher should know how to judge good books and should know the fundamental principles in using and caring for them.

Realizing these things, the Rural-School Committee undertook as its chief piece of work (in addition to a small rural-school exhibit) the preparation of a bulletin on rural-school libraries which should serve as a handbook for the rural teacher. Mr. Claxton, United States Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, has kindly consented to print it, and it is now in his office awaiting publication. This bulletin, which will be distributed widely will consist of a general survey of rural-school libraries in the United States, an article on the organization of a rural-school library, an article on children's literature, a list of four hundred books for a rural-school library, and a selected bibliography on the rural-school library. Existing conditions in rural-school libraries are practically identical in many states. They consist of a collection of several hundred books in extreme need of repair, unorganized and with no provision for use outside of the school building. For this reason, the survey is not a detailed statement of the conditions existing in each state, which would be of little value to a rural teacher, but of what is being done in some of the states where experiments have been tried and fruitful results have been obtained. For example, a good article is included on the county-library method which has proved so successful in California. The article on the organization of the rural-school library by Helen L. Price, of the Michigan Library Commission, contains only the fundamental things which will be valuable to the rural teacher in making the school library of greater use, not only to the children, but also to the grown people of the community. Most states issue a list of books for use in connection with the course of study mapped out by the state, and therefore the article on children's literature, written by Frances Jenkins Olcott treats particularly (tho not entirely) of inspirational books. It also contains an outline for a year's study, for parents and teachers, on children's books. The list of four hundred books for a rural-school library is based on the one-hundred-book list and the two-hundred-book list prepared by members of former rural-school committees. In order to make the bibliography of

the greatest value to the rural teacher, only references to articles which would be really useful have been included.

To provide something which would be concise and truly a valuable tool for the rural teacher in making her school library a real factor in the life of the people of the rural community has been the aim of the Rural-School Committee.

II. RENEE B. STERN, EDITORIAL STAFF, "MOTHER'S MAGAZINE," ELGIN, ILL.

The opinions here stated are the outgrowth of several years' experience as a librarian in charge of school deposits in connection with a large public library, and also in charge of rural libraries. The last year has brought a new angle of vision—that of the club and civic-work member of the editorial staff of the *Mother's Magazine*. It is interesting to see a day's mail as it comes into that department. Here is a letter from a woman in a small town requesting a short paper on Equador, another desires material on American literature for a dozen club meetings, and here is one asking about the population of Topeka. There are many letters asking help on various phases of child-training and child-care.

Now, when a woman lives on a rural route, seventeen miles from nowhere in particular, we prepare her paper for her on the theory that predigested food is better than no food at all; but, if she is within reach of a public library or a library commission, she should do her own thinking, and we send her references easily obtainable. But the fundamental lack is not with the woman so much as with the school she attended, in not training her to look upon books as tools, and then providing her with a few simple ones for her mind's use. A small library in the school, with an intelligent teacher to direct its use, will make our children mentally self-helpful, as few of them are today. Why write a thousand miles to ask the population of Topeka, when the gazetteer in the back of the dictionary at the schoolhouse tells all about it? More than enough for several dozen programs on American literature can be extracted from the history of literature owned by the average schoolhouse, and if there is an encyclopedia or school geography on the same shelf; there are the makings of a very fair paper on Equador. The trouble lies in the fact that pupils—and teachers too, sometimes—fail to see that it is as necessary to teach the use of books as to teach the proper method of handling a pen or a hoe.

A certain indexing firm lately set out to ascertain how many topics in the high-school course are covered by one book—Bryce's *American Commonwealth*—with the result that over 150 specific subjects were found in that single volume. We may not expect children to do this sort of intensive analyzing, but it well illustrates our lack of good business methods in using our school books. The by-products are wasted. No progressive business house would do that. Paraffine is a big income-producer today; a few

years ago it was a troublesome waste product, but business cannot afford waste products and so its use was found. If, by installing a dozen small libraries in our country schools, our children can be trained to use their minds in extracting information from the volume thus provided, we have added a valuable asset for after life when there is no teacher to provide the brains for them. Then mentality ceases to be a by-product.

Choose rather a small, well-selected library than a large collection of books without proper arrangement and supervision. Books alone are like a set of fine tools. A few bright youngsters will figure out for themselves the use of these tools, but the mass of students cannot handle them. So it is with the books—the teacher's direction is required if pupils are to get full value from them, and in a large consolidated school, where there are special teachers, there should be a specialist in command of the library also, trained for her work, and ready to cooperate with the teaching force. It is asking too much of a teacher to expect expert librarianship in addition to her regular training.

Given the school library, children will be trained to get their own knowledge. After graduation they may help their town to start a public library, so that the ending of school days need not be synonymous with the ending of education. Some three dozen of our states have state library commissions, while others supply books thru the state superintendent of public instruction. No two of these have identical rules, but most of them loan books to town libraries, schools, and clubs; and some even loan to individuals. Are you making use of these sources to freshen the school library with extra-cultural reading matter for the leisure hour, to aid your students in choice of vocation, or borrowing expensive reference volumes which your own slender funds prohibit? Are you teaching the children how they can continue to borrow and use books provided by the state, or town, after school is over, making of the library commission or the nearest town library a continuation school thruout life?

If you would realize how much such training is needed, spend a week handling the mail that comes to an editorial desk. You will be surprised by the proportion of these inquiries which the writer could answer for himself by means of a little thought, a good dictionary, an encyclopedia, and one of the comprehensive yearbooks (like that issued by the *New York World* or the *Chicago Daily News*), had his school taught the full value of these volumes. Not one in a hundred knows of the free publications to be obtained from the federal, state, and town governments. And one who seeks the source finds the school rather than the individual at fault; for when the individual went to school he was taught to read, but he wasn't taught to delve into books; he was taught to write, but alas! he wasn't taught to make full use of the writings of others. The people on the farms and in small towns are awakened to art, literature, and local improvement. They want the best information obtainable on these sub-

jects, but they do not know how to get at it. The school library that will teach its pupils how to obtain information, to get literature "on the job," is the greatest source of cultural and civic improvement any community can boast.

THE DRAMA OF LIFE IN THE LYRICS OF THE FOLK

CAROLINE CRAWFORD, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

(Outline)

While the folk-story has found wide use in education, folk music has never been presented in such a way that its great artistic, as well as educational value, has been revealed.

For these lyrics are, even more than the racial epics, character-studies of the human heart. They are glimpses of the great emotions that have stirred the souls of men. The first poetry of any people is always sung, and these poems present the spiritual history of the heart of man.

Two sides of this history are portrayed in these lyrics: the personal and the social—man's relations to individuals; and his relation to society, nature, and God. Beginning with the music of childhood, the program continues with the dances and songs of youth and love. Then comes the music of adventure and conquest. After this, the thoughts turn inward, and there are the songs of dream and meditation, and those of sorrow and death.

In the second part of this history, there are given the songs of man's communion with nature, the music of social life. And, the climax of all—the prayers and chants to the Great Spirit of Life, and the songs that reveal the birth of the Spirit, the awakening of vision in the soul.

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—EDWARD B. DEGROOT, director of physical education, public schools,
San Francisco, Cal.
Vice-President—BARONESS ROSE POSSE, president, Posse Normal School of Gymnastics,
Boston, Mass.
Secretary—MARY G. LONG, supervisor of physical training, public schools. . . . Everett, Wash.

FIRST SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. in the DeWitt Clinton High School, with Vice-President Posse in the chair.

Clara Gregory Baer, professor of physical education, Newcomb College, Tulane University, New Orleans, La., was appointed secretary *pro tem*.

The following program was presented:

"Physical Training in the Schools"—Gustave Straubenmüller, acting city superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

"The New York System of Physical Training"—C. Ward Crampton, director, department of physical training, public schools, New York, N.Y.

"Physical Training vs. Military Training"—Randall Warden, director of physical training, Newark, N.J.

"Physical Training in Modern Education"—William Wirt, superintendent of schools, Gary, Ind.

"A Real Field Day in a Rural District"—Orson Ryan, superintendent, Jordan School District, Midvale, Utah.

"Folk Dancing and Athletics in the Education of Girls" (illustrated with folk dances)—Elizabeth Burchenal, inspector of athletics, department of education, New York, N.Y.

CLARA GREGORY BAER, *Secretary pro tem*

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 2:30 P.M. with Vice-President Posse in the chair.

H. E. Stewart, M.D., New Haven, Conn., was appointed secretary *pro tem*.

The following program was presented:

"A Keynote to Physical Education"—E. H. Arnold, director, Normal School of Gymnastics, New Haven, Conn.

"Physical Education from a National Standpoint"—Philander P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D.C.

Discussion—Dudley A. Sargent, director, Henenway Gymnasium, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

"The Health of College Women"—Clara Gregory Baer, professor of physical education, Newcomb College, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

"The Organization of Athletics for Girls in the Elementary Schools"—Emily A. O'Keefe, inspector of athletics for girls, public schools, New York, N.Y.

"Defining the Work of Physical Training in Relation to Playground and Recreation Activities"—Rowland Haynes, secretary, Commission on Recreation, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York, N.Y.

H. E. STEWART, *Secretary pro tem*

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 7, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Department of School Patrons in the Ballroom of the Hotel Waldorf-Astoria, at 2:30 P.M., with Vice-President Posse presiding. Charlotte Stewart, of Salt Lake City, was appointed secretary *pro tem*.

The following officers were elected for the Department of Physical Education for the ensuing year:

President—Baroness Rose Posse, president, Posse Normal School of Gymnastics, Boston, Mass.

Vice-President—C. Ward Crampton, director, department of physical training, public schools, New York, N.Y.

Secretary—E. H. Arnold, director, Normal School of Gymnastics, New Haven, Conn.

The following program was presented:

“Sex Morality or Social Hygiene”—Mabel L. Ulrich, M.D., St. Paul, Minn.

“Social Science in the Public Schools”—Elizabeth McManus, Los Angeles, Cal.

“Administration and Method in High-School Physical Training for Girls” (illustrated by a class of 20 girls)—Josephine Beiderhase, assistant director of physical training, public schools, New York, N.Y.

“The Boy Scouts of America”—James E. West, chief scout executive, New York, N.Y.

These papers will appear in the section devoted to the report of the Department of School Patrons.

CHARLOTTE STEWART, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS

GUSTAVE STRAUBENMÜLLER, ACTING CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

As long as men were hunters, fishermen, warriors, and farmers, or followed occupations requiring suppleness of body and the exercise of a variety of muscles, there was no need of purposive training of the muscular system. Work was done in the open air, muscles were trained naturally in the round of daily life, and the training was unconscious. Lack of strength and skill and endurance meant in those days dependence, or starvation, and contempt.

As, however, life in the open air became more restricted, when people began to gather in large communities, when manufacturing began, when specialization led to more processes with fewer processes for the single individual; when fewer and fewer muscles were called into play, from hour to hour, in the round of life; when some muscles were overdeveloped and others neglected; when schools were established, restricting the free and unimpeded play of the children, then deterioration threatened the human race. It was seen that health suffered and mortality was great when the fundamentals—good food, fresh air, sufficient sleep, and proper physical exercise—were inadequate, improperly distributed, and wantonly wasted. Thus the need of physical training to stop decay slowly began to make itself felt.

Like all great movements, it asserted itself slowly, and finally reached the schools. Great though its progress has been in some school systems of the world, purposive training is only just beginning to take its rightful place in education.

We know that the highest respect was paid to bodily efficiency by the Persians, Greeks, and Romans. The knights of old, by virtue of their calling and aims, gave systematic attention to developing bodily strength, skill, and endurance. But there it ended.

Sporadic attempts were made to introduce it in the schools by Basedow and the Philanthropines. Pestalozzi, in order to relieve the stress of mental education, introduced gymnastic exercises. Froebel advocated it. It grew out of its empirical stage a century ago in Germany, Denmark, and Sweden, yet its propagandists met with very little general encouragement. Sports were indulged in, it is true, but they usually meant exercise and benefit for the few with the neglect of the many.

The writer, in his experience as pupil and teacher in the public schools, recalls the time when physical training was not thought of in connection with school children; he remembers the first gingerly approaches to it, when it was still regarded as a fad. He retains the memory of its final recognition, its embodiment in the course of study, and its development under the supervision of a director and special teachers.

Now that it has been introduced in the city-school systems, exercises are being evolved, not only for the normal child, but also for the crippled, the mentally defective, the blind, and the deaf. There are now remedial exercises, not only for the handicapped, but also for the adult industrial worker.

But why emphasize muscular training in schools and life? Because it is said that one-quarter of the blood in the body is contained in the substance of its muscles and nearly half of the body is muscular, and because man is a motor animal.

What do we aim at in physical culture? The ultimate aim, broadly stated, is the development of the race (1) by strengthening the body, (2) by safeguarding the cells of the brain in establishing an equilibrium between overworked nerve tissues and neglected muscular ones, (3) by maintaining health, (4) by restoring health. But health and strength are not its only purposes; true physical training also promotes mental and moral discipline. Thus it establishes quickness of perception, it develops rapid muscular response to the dictates of the mind, it promotes good muscle habits; it fosters self-control, attention, honesty, and fairness to an opponent; lastly, it also gives pleasure.

How can strength and health be developed and maintained? How can good posture, a grace of bearing and of motion, be induced? How can joints be kept flexible? (1) By play, free and unimpeded, a great educational force; by supervised play, sports, games, running, jumping, dancing,

swimming, rowing, coasting, walking, hiking, throwing, wrestling, etc.; (2) by gymnastic exercises, including calisthenics, and apparatus work, so graded and planned as to fit the individual, or a fairly homogeneous group; (3) by manual training, such as shop work, garden work, work at home; (4) by industrial work.

By the practice of all these exercises for the muscles or the body, we are enabled to overcome physical obstacles, just as mind-training gives us the power to overcome psychical ones. But, in order that good physical habits may be acquired, and in order to make the muscles automatic agents, there must be a continuity of good training.

In planning exercises we should be particularly careful not to require nor encourage such as are harmful to health. We should not allow exercises that are too strenuous, too uniform, too dangerous, and too extreme. Nor, to be efficacious, should the planned exercises be "too softy"; they should be done with snap and vigor so that every movement counts. Nor should we, in our enthusiasm, demand a disproportionate amount of school time for it. For as fatigue is very high in physical exercise, the proper place for it in the daily program is an important consideration. We should bear in mind and impress upon the pupil that muscular strength does not necessarily mean health, that a one-sided training should not be indulged in, that foolhardiness is not manliness, that winning in contests, sports, and games, at any expense, endangers health and morals.

"Preparedness" does not consist merely in learning the manipulation of a gun and maneuvering, which can be learned in a short time. Of what use is a soldier who knows these things, but who has no physical endurance? Physical endurance, good health, and intelligence, are far more desirable in a prospective defender of his country than a knowledge of the manual of arms. The latter he can learn in a few days; the former is the resultant of years of good living and judicious exercise, that is, a proper balance of work, recreation, and muscular care. Physical-training teachers should motivate their work. The best way to get a pupil's interest aroused is to let him know "why" he is doing as well as "what" he is to do. Then he will return to the exercises again and again of his own accord, and thus he will accomplish more for himself.

The child should also have the proper conditions under which to exercise, the proper paraphernalia, and a good gymnasium.

Finally, physical-training teachers should insist upon more open-air playgrounds in order to restore to children, in a degree, opportunities for free and unimpeded play. The unnatural and restricted life in cities should be assuaged for children as far as it is possible for the teaching force to do so.

THE NEW YORK SYSTEM OF PHYSICAL TRAINING

C. WARD CRAMPTON, M.D., DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL TRAINING,
NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The Department of Physical Training of the New York City Public Schools has three subdepartments:

1. *Physical Training*.—This provides for the teaching of gymnastics, games, athletics, and folk dancing to the children of the elementary, high, normal, special, and truant schools thruout the city.

2. *Educational Hygiene*.—This provides for the instruction in hygiene to all pupils; the inspection, investigation, and supervision of all matters pertaining to the health of pupils and teachers.

3. *Athletics*.—Competitive athletics for boys in running, jumping, and chinning, basket-ball, baseball, and the like, are provided after school, and folk dancing, athletics, and games for girls are given in clubs formed for the purpose.

The system of physical training used is one specially developed by the director of the department to meet New York City conditions. The typical lesson consists of introductory, corrective (postural), educational, hygienic, and recreative exercises. The introductory action is similar in purpose and content to the Swedish system. The corrective exercises, however, are different, emphasizing elevation of depressed chest, shoulders, and head, mainly by the use of static positions which are held for five or six seconds while stimulating elevation commands are given. Educational exercises develop subjective control, alertness, precision, and inhibition. Hygienic exercises are given to rhythmic serial commands. These are large, strong, vigorous trunk and thigh movements calculated to stimulate circulation and develop endurance. In each lesson there appears some game or folk dance for the purpose of recreation and the development of objective control.

In athletics, over two hundred school district and city athletic meets are held during the year. In addition, from twenty to thirty thousand athletic badges are awarded annually to boys who reach certain standards in running, jumping, and chinning. To get all boys into athletics, a system of interclass competition has been devised. The boys all make records in running, jumping, and chinning which are compared with others of similar classes thruout the city.

A system of afternoon athletic centers for boys and girls has been introduced. One hundred and sixty-three were opened last year and the attendance exceeded four millions.

For the girls, after-school instruction classes for teachers are formed. These in turn develop after-school athletic and folk-dance clubs for the girls of their schools. The attendance is over twenty-five thousand. At the end of the year, festivals are held in the various parks. These are attended by over fifteen thousand.

In hygiene, among many features of importance, a new course of study has been introduced. This provides for a daily morning hygienic inspection of every pupil, the teaching of a daily hygienic routine, the examination of the eyes by every teacher, and the supervision of a weekly lesson on the care of the health.

The new state law provides for the military training of all boys between the ages of sixteen and nineteen after school for not more than three hours a week. This instruction will be conducted by specially qualified school teachers who, in New York City, have undergone military instruction in the specially organized Schoolmen's Battalion, and by officers delegated from the National Guard of the state of New York. It will probably consist of careful medical examination and a thoro physical and athletic training as a foundation. Emphasis will be placed upon physical training and upon outdoor excursions; in addition, marksmanship and military drill will be given.

The system of physical training, athletics, and hygiene of the New York schools is designed to use every possible means to make children healthful, vigorous, strong, happy, and efficient.

PHYSICAL TRAINING VERSUS MILITARY TRAINING

RANDALL WARDEN, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL TRAINING,
NEWARK, N.J.

One should hesitate to talk on these subjects unless he knows by experience what is meant by each, and the value to be derived from each kind of training. Congressmen and military experts are expressing opinions for or against one or the other of these subjects—opinions which are questionable, because these men know nothing of the conditions under which, at the present time, military training or physical training must be given in our great public-school systems.

It was my good fortune to be educated in Boston, where in the elementary schools we had daily lessons of Swedish exercise. I was fortunate, too, in being brought up in the Young Men's Christian Association under the famous Robert J. Roberts. It was in Boston that I learned military drill. As you know, this training continues to be the prescribed physical exercise for Boston high-school boys. These things I tell you as a sort of credential for my right to speak on the assigned topic.

Just now our country is trying to get back to an ancient principle—namely, that one of the elements of education means training the youth of the land for national defense. The idea started two thousand years ago, and is what true physical education means in the last analysis.

The two questions therefore arise, what kind of physical training is best to make national defenders of America's school children and how

shall this training be accomplished? Can it best be done by offering physical training to the pupils, or by giving them practice in military drill?

It is a wise thing in argumentation clearly to define terms. We must understand each other when we speak of physical training or of military training. Both terms are as indefinite as the north pole. Physical training is often made a farce, and to affirm that military drill will make a soldier is to insult the uniform. Military drill, such as the usual platoon and company evolutions of "four's right," of "four's left in the line," or "right forward four's right," given in the school, say two periods a week, is as puerile and useless a training toward making a soldier as could well be foisted on an already sorely confused city scholar; and by the same token, physical training, meaning exercises in the classrooms, moving arms, bending trunk, raising legs, is often just as puerile and useless and fraudulent as the endeavor to make a soldier by teaching a smattering of tactics.

Let me interrupt here to speak about the present status of physical training in our common schools. It seems unbelievable that most of our public-school systems have assigned in the curricula but fifteen minutes a day for physical training, when it is conceded that the product of the schools should be, to say the least, able-bodied, well-set-up citizens. When one realizes that this time (fifteen minutes), put in terms of days totals up in the entire school year to about forty-eight hours, one is overcome with astonishment. Think of business men countenancing an outlay of money on such a paltry subject as physical training must be, when it can be mastered in forty-eight hours a year. Can physical training do any good for the pupil where the instruction covers a period of forty-eight hours during the year? Is fifteen minutes a day long enough time to develop delicate adjustments of the neural muscular centers, motor and sensory nerves, circulation and metabolism? Can curvature of the spine be corrected in the pupil in fifteen minutes' daily practice. Will fifteen minutes' training help anemia, flat foot, chicken breast, or lumbar curve?

There is a fallacy to be exploded if the public or the educators think that two days a year will correct any postural defect, and the field of physical training is infinitely larger than mere correction of physical defect. It covers exercise which will acquire and keep health and courage, dosage that will give a symmetry to the body and develop strength and endurance. What hope is there of preparedness if the physical efficiency of our future citizens depends upon forty-eight hours of physical training per year in the schools?

To go back to the definition of terms—we must fully understand when we speak of military training hereafter that we shall mean thoro efficient training for the soldier, training, not only in the school of the soldier, the squad, and the company, but training in camp, in the trenches, with the signal squad on scout duty, skirmishing, taking care of a gun, marksmanship, and the carrying of the soldier's pack on a test march.

So, too, let us define now what we mean by "an adequate course in physical training": it means (1) exercise tending to the acquisition of health and symmetry, (2) good carriage and correct posture, (3) perfect muscular coordination, (4) manly courage, and (5) the spirit of cooperation. These attributes will be acquired thru means of: (a) tactics, (b) free standing exercises, (c) apparatus exercises, (d) group games, (e) athletics and sports.

Now we have two big ideas before us: (1) the soldier, brave, resourceful, disciplined, strong, and trained for fighting; (2) the citizens, well-rounded, living the laws of health, trained in the difficult feats of strength on the horse, bar, or ladder, individually courageous and having the spirit of team play and cooperation ingrained in character.

Having these two ideas in mind, let us see what like or unlike elements will throw the choice in our public-school work for either one or the other. For the business man the element of cost will arise, to the educator the element of time will appeal, and by the philosopher the element of demand or necessity will be considered.

1. As to cost: The cost of training a soldier is perhaps little greater than the cost of giving a well-balanced course in physical training. To be sure, the various phases of soldiering require much more paraphernalia than the latter form of training; for instance, a soldier could scarcely be of much service if he did not have a uniform and a pack, and know how to put the pack together. He must have a gun and know how to clean it and keep it in order; he must have a tent and know how to set it up; he must be skilled in building fires, and the selecting camp sites where the drinking water is fit for his canteen; and in mounting guard duty at night. This would require a rifle range, a field for maneuver and an armory for winter training. Then count must be kept of the ammunition for rifle practice.

2. As to time: It will be out of the question to develop a skilled soldier in anything less than two hours a week, indeed, it ought to be an hour a day for the best results. As to the time required for a course in physical training, previously set down, thirty minutes a day is the minimum that should be allowed. Anything less will not allow of the full development of all-round strength and manhood.

3. As to necessity: It is, however, on the third element—that of demand—on which I shall make a deciding plea. And here I shall not maintain that we do not need soldiers; on the contrary, I insist that we do, but the thought of a nation trying to make seasoned campaigners or regulars out of immature school boys is so absurd that it is astonishing that anyone should consider it seriously. Even the attempt to prepare boys so that they can, after a few weeks' training, take their places in the ranks of the standing army, is unreasonable and lacking in common-sense. It is, however, perfectly proper that boys, after they reach the age of eighteen, should be required to take up military training. At this time in life, boys are strong

enough in body and mature enough in mind to absorb some of the training which may be given to them, but before this time it is as absurd to try to develop soldiers and have them remember instructions as it would be to insist that all boys be given a course of medicine in the elementary or high school so that they could cure themselves of diphtheria or malaria.

Soldiering is a mature science and requires fully developed bodies and mental and physical self-control. The smattering of the science that might be given to under-age pupils will do more harm than good. This has been proved by the experience of nations now in the throes of warfare. Both Germany and France have at different times required military training in their public schools. But both nations have discontinued the practice as unfavorable to the best interests of the army.

Military training needs first a foundation of good health and of sturdy muscular development, and this can best be given in the gymnasium by class work on the floor, under the direction of a competent instructor; by turning on heavy apparatus, led by magnetic leaders; thru the stimulus of competition in climbing ropes and poles and ladders; by strife in individual games; by the competition of the athletic field; and the influence of the coach in our great national pastimes of baseball, football, and swimming.

In Boston, the oldest city in this country to provide military training in the high schools, you will find the training narrow and lacking the elements of physical development. The course teaches at best the manual of arms, the school of the soldier, the company, and the battalion. There is no practice in real shooting, no practice or very little in signaling, no camping, no marching, except around the auditorium, no training in the carrying of luggage, and what little physical development is given comes from carrying a gun, which for the greater part of the time is carried on the right shoulder.

This training is of undoubted value as a disciplinary measure, it teaches patriotism to some extent, and is effective in training careless individuals to work together for the sake of the personal appearance of the company. These are strong recommendations for the subject, but on the other hand the gymnastic class under the proper teaching becomes just as strong a disciplinary measure and teaches quite as much the necessity for individuals working together for the accomplishment of a given result as when the orders come from a captain. The officers of the company perhaps have an advantage in that they get valuable training in self-reliance, judgment, tact, dignity, and self-control. But here again, only the fittest are chosen as officers, and they would be distinct in any line of endeavor. So, too, on the gymnasium floor, the squad-leader, while not having the advantage of the sword and uniform, may become quite as efficient a leader of men as his more imposing brother.

Let us take up directly the advantages of physical training over military training. The growing boy, from twelve to sixteen, is in, we say, the adolescent stage. This means he is in the formative period of his career.

He needs to learn a wide range of subjects. It is the plastic time of his life. It is the time when educators develop his powers of reasoning, and it is the time when the school should look out for the development of his physical powers. This unfortunately has not been fully realized except by some private schools. The public elementary and high schools must be brought to realize that their first duty lies in building a strong foundation for mental poise and effort. Schools are failing to do this with the present means at hand.

What is needed is a thoro course in physical training with at least 150 minutes a week devoted to it. It should include, besides the gymnasium work, the teaching of swimming, and training on the athletic field. After a boy has had an elementary-school and a high-school course of this, let the military organizations of the country use such material as this will make to construct the finest army in the world.

THE HEALTH OF COLLEGE WOMEN

CLARA GREGORY BAER, PROFESSOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, NEWCOMB COLLEGE, TULANE UNIVERSITY, NEW ORLEANS, LA.

Just how far the college is responsible for the health of its students is one of the leading questions of the day. Granted that the college acknowledges its debt, the question still remains, does the well-equipped gymnasium and the well-organized department of physical education and hygiene accomplish all that is needed, if no direct provision be made for promoting the health of students individually, especially with those students whose general condition is below par? We know that there exists a strong sentiment, arising from reliable sources, against the physically unequipped student entering college at all. Just how far one is able to judge of the physical fitness of the applicant is the question (barring of course disease and deformity, mental and physical). Then, too, who is willing to assume the responsibility of determining this fitness when the college stands for catholicity in education; when the great institutions of learning of today are saying, "Give us your boys and girls; we shall make men and women of them, strong and healthy in body, clear in mind, keen in thought, earnest in purpose, self-controlled and able to control"? What the larger opportunity has done for the college woman in teaching her the care of her health and the conservation of her powers only those who have spent years in educational institutions really know. Many of our leading women of today, who have had a childhood and youth of struggle against physical handicap and physical weakness, now acknowledge the wonderful power and opportunity given them to be the result of the fostering love and care of their Alma Mater.

If education means anything at all, it means opportunity for overcoming weakness, not only of mind, but of body. We have left behind the in-

herited idea of college education—that it is merely a means of acquiring certain facts of history, language, and science. We have come to the broad concept of the dynamic, the grasp of the larger things of life by the actual doing of definite tasks, thru the education of the great motor system. Today “hygiene” is the word that stands out beyond all others as the latest thought and purpose in education and in the upbuilding of the race. All avenues of education lead, or should lead, to efficiency. As Dr. Goldthwait says, in concluding his Shattuck Lecture:

One would certainly be a pessimist of the most profound type if he felt that the splendid work of our profession along preventive medical lines was a curse to the race by preserving the lives of the slender, or delicate, physical type, which Nature, in keeping with the law of the survival of the fittest, would have thrown off; or that the splendid work of the school and college is also harmful to the race by accentuating qualities of weakness; but such must be the fact, unless something else is added to the mere saving of the lives and to the common system of education, as it exists today. If the physician and the teacher recognize these facts and apply natural principles for the proper development of these individuals, the result must be inevitable—a stronger and a finer race.

Never in the history of the world have as many intelligent influences been at work to bar the door to disease and degeneracy, and to open the gates to health by giving to men and women every opportunity to overcome inherited weakness, to fortify themselves against the inroads of modern civilization, and to enable them to join the large aristocracy of the mentally and physically fit. That the college, with reference to this matter, has one of her greatest opportunities for service is very evident. That she must take her place and do her part in the evolution of the social order of the future is also evident. The only way that she can fulfil her destiny is to stand shoulder to shoulder with the other great forces of education, working with the material at hand and making for the future a new order of manhood and womanhood, based upon right living as well as high thinking.

The character of specialized work in our colleges as suggested here does not refer, however, to those conditions that would be questioned as affecting the student's fitness to take up college work; but rather it is concerned with conditions already present, with the means employed when definite needs require specific treatment—a state of affairs brought about frequently thru the college life itself, as well as thru faulty living.

Leaving out organic disease and all conditions that require medical attention, there is a gap between illness and health that can be filled by specialized gymnastics and personal attention. Between the class work of the gymnasium and the direct need of medical attention lie the manifold conditions wherein the student requires remedial exercise, and here it is that the physical director and the physician join forces for the student's good, working together along definite lines. The knowledge of the individual student's need, gained thru careful bodily examinations and personal histories, enables the physical director to be of peculiar service. This is especially true in our women's colleges where so much must be known of

the general health of the girl if she is to enter athletics. This, combined with the talks on personal hygiene, establishes a confidential relationship between student and teacher that cannot fail to work ultimate good. In the department of corrective gymnastics and personal hygiene these confidences are further developed as the needs of the student are more definitely ascertained and provided for.

Among the conditions in our colleges requiring remedial exercises, most teachers will agree, are the following:

1. Psychic nervous conditions, sensitiveness, neuralgic headaches, fainting, insomnia, and continuous worry.
2. Defects of posture—scoliosis, kyphosis, and lordosis, drooping head, flat chest, and ptosis.
3. Defects of the respiratory organs—usually an inability to breathe normally and an utter lack of the fundamental principles of breathing; rigid chest with lack of muscular development of chest; also cases with inherited tendency to tuberculosis.
4. Derangements of the digestive organs—chief of which is constipation with its attendant ills, where frequently the student has no real understanding of how to remedy conditions. Here we often find a lack of practical knowledge as to diet and water and their bearing upon health and efficiency, altho lectures on dietetic hygiene have been given them during their college course.
5. Disturbances of the pelvic organs with functional irregularities.
6. Skin troubles, especially those that can be traced to constipation, diet, pelvic disturbances, and to the general lack of care of the body, due in many instances to a want of understanding of the efficient use of water as a therapeutic agent, and of the fundamental principles of personal hygiene.
7. Defects of the feet—especially flat foot.
8. Sprains, old and new.
9. Obesity, rarely serious, but affecting the student's general efficiency.

During the current year the writer has had some remarkably good results from the special work referred to the department by the college, or the home physician, which involved a little less than 10 per cent of the total number of students registered in gymnastics, or about 58 or 60 students. This does not include the home work prescribed by the regular teachers of the gymnasium for ordinary postural defects and faulty carriage; nor does it cover all the work that might have been undertaken. These students were taken during the regular gymnastic periods. Some were assigned work additional to their regular classes in gymnastics; others were not permitted to take the class work at all. In addition to the cases regularly treated during the school year, the work in therapeutic gymnastics rendered temporary relief in a number of cases. These and many other cases, not cited, of the students need from day to day, are their own greatest plea for the provision for specialized health work in our colleges.

One feels, in passing, that mention should be made of the head nurse in our college infirmaries. In this instance she has rendered valuable aid in discovering obscure cases where no definite opportunity had presented itself to acquire certain facts.

[Several specific cases were cited to show the method of handling and the results secured.—EDITOR]

We believe that the need exists. All over the country teachers of physical education are beginning to realize the full significance of special gymnastic work. For years there has been a feeling of unrest among us, a conviction that gymnastics as an educational factor was not fulfilling its great mission. A provision to reach all will go far toward the realization of one's hope for greater efficiency and service. Then let the vigorous, healthy students, those who can enter into the spirit of athletics and games, have the full benefit of the gymnasium and of its apparatus, but let us provide, also, for those who are not so constituted and who need personal supervision and individual attention. Then we can truly feel that the health of our college women is the chief consideration, among the varied educational and recreative activities of the college gymnasium.

THE ORGANIZATION OF ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

EMILY A. O'KEEFE, INSPECTOR OF ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

There is no longer any doubt in our minds regarding the advisability of girls taking part in athletics; there is no longer any doubt as to the type of athletics which girls should take part in, nor is there any longer any doubt as to the policy to pursue in conducting athletics for girls. The great problem which confronts us is how to bring athletics to every elementary-school girl of athletic age. I shall, therefore, only skim over the need of play in the form of athletics, of the kind of athletics, and the policy to pursue in conducting them, and tell you of our problem of organization and how we are working it out in New York City.

I am sure you will all admit that games played without law or order do not develop a sense of fairness in our girls, and I have observed that children like games with a certain amount of necessary restraint.

The fundamental policy underlying our athletics for girls here in New York City is:

1. Athletics chosen with regard to their suitability for girls.
2. Athletics to include all girls rather than to develop a few stars.
3. Athletics in which teams rather than individuals compete.
4. No interschool competitions.

The type of athletics chosen for use by girls will be shown in the following list: walking, swimming, skating (both roller and ice), coasting, rope-skipping, folk dancing, basket-ball, end ball, captain ball, punch ball, relay races.

Having worked out a policy and chosen kinds of athletics, the next thing to consider is how to bring these athletics to all girls in the elementary schools. For years we have depended and do still depend largely on volunteer service given us so generously by the class teachers. In exchange for instruction in the dances and games, they have consecrated their time and energy to the instruction of the children. The usual method is to organize an athletic club and meet with this club once a week. These clubs are necessarily rather small, and are often limited by scholarship requirements. They do not include the large mass of girls of athletic age (third year up). Out of 1500 or 2000 girls in one school, not more than 100 or 150 have been afforded athletic practice thru volunteer clubs. This is perfectly natural as there is a limit to the amount of volunteer service that can be asked of the class teachers after school hours.

The relation between the teacher and children is usually a very sympathetic one, and the class teachers generally provide for the children whatever is possible. We have had thousands of dollars worth of volunteer service in conducting athletics for girls, and still have to depend on it to a great extent. But it does not meet the wide demand.

Two years ago we started to work out a plan to provide for athletics by establishing what we called athletic centers. We have operated these centers off and on for two years and a half and their success justifies our telling you of the plan. Certain schools are selected, and teachers paid by the Board of Education are put in charge to organize athletics for the children of the school from three o'clock to five-thirty. Some of these "centers" are open for five days a week, while others are open only three or two days. Any girl wishing to practice the athletic events which she has learned in her club or during her physical-training period in school is welcome to come to the center. The centers are organized on the club plan, and all clubs are registered with the Girls' Branch Public Schools Athletic League. Each club chooses its own captain, and she in turn selects her assistants. The captains are indicated by a badge and are given charge of the records of the club. They keep a record of the attendance and of athletic activities in order that the members of the club may qualify for athletic pins at the end of the season. Each club chooses a significant name and color, and a group spirit is developed which makes the interclub contest interesting.

The teacher inspects the playgrounds of the school and decides where the different activities can be played to the best advantage—folk dancing, for example, in some indoor yard where the piano is available, or in some outdoor space where a phonograph can be used. The punch-ball court is

markt out with paint in another part, and so on until every available space is accounted for.

The next step is to plan a program assigning each club to a space for the different periods of the afternoon. The afternoon is divided into periods of a half-hour each. When the first half-hour is up, a blast of the whistle, blown by the teacher, brings all play to a standstill. The groups then pass to the next activity for which the program calls. In this way each group has an opportunity to practice several different activities during the afternoon.

The afternoon is usually brought to a close by a short period of free play, roller-skating and rope-skipping in the outdoor courtyards. The children go home happy, having had an opportunity to play under proper supervision but without undue restraint. Opportunities for developing initiative and a capacity for self-direction on the part of the children are unlimited under this sort of an organization. By this organization two teachers can easily supervise several hundred children, and we have had as many as four hundred at one time in a center, all busy.

We have encountered many difficulties. Different sections of the city offer their own problems. In one section it was only with the greatest difficulty that we were able to organize the girls, as they seemed to lack adhesiveness. It was an entirely new experience for them to play under the leadership of one of themselves. Whenever the teacher would leave a group it would dissolve. This was overcome however.

In another section the difficulty is home cares and responsibilities. The mothers expect so much of the children that they have little or no time for play. We are solving this difficulty thru mothers' clubs and mothers' days at the centers. And so it goes, each section having its own problem. Our centers, however, are organized loosely enough to allow for the working-out of these problems.

But it all costs money. With sufficient funds we could reach the great mass of girls in need of athletic practice thru athletic centers. We have increased the percentage of girls qualifying for athletic pins. In some schools where fifty or more girls used to qualify for pins at the end of the season, now 75 per cent or 80 per cent qualify. Athletic centers seem to be the most economical means of providing athletics for all girls.

DEFINING THE WORK OF PHYSICAL TRAINING IN RELATION TO PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ACTIVITIES

ROWLAND HAYNES, SECRETARY, COMMITTEE ON RECREATION, BOARD OF
ESTIMATE AND APPORTIONMENT, NEW YORK, N.Y.

This paper is based on the following convictions, gained from the observation of physical training and playground work in various cities thruout the country for a number of years.

1. Physical training has a work of its own.
2. Playground and recreation work has a task distinct from that of physical training.
3. Much work now being done under the name of either physical training or recreation is neither good physical training nor good recreation work because of confusion as to the task before each.
4. Correlation is possible between physical training and recreation work, but only when the different aims of each are clearly recognized. Much of the present correlation is superficial, consisting in the use of the same workmen and the same tools, rather than fundamental, consisting of a division of work with cooperation where that is possible and specialization where joint action is not possible.

Because of these convictions, I ask your attention to the definition of the task of physical training and of recreation work, not as an academic exercise, but because it is necessary for us to know where we are going in order to know where we will meet and where we must part company.

There would be no confusion if there were not similarities between physical training and recreation work. There is a fundamental similarity in purpose. Both are educative. Both seek to develop character. Physical training does much more than build muscle. It builds will power, since psychologically will is the habit of having action follow thought. Physical training develops alertness in the way in which physical action obeys the command of the mind. Physical training develops self-respect which, in athletic terms, is a state of "feeling fit." Likewise, recreation work attempts to develop traits of character, initiative, teamwork, and ability to meet new situations in new ways. Besides this fundamental similarity, the two are superficially alike in that both use part of the same kit of tools, namely, games. When I contrast the dull grind of stupid calisthenics, which were given me as the sole curriculum of physical training, with the enriched curriculum of physical training in the modern school, consisting of calisthenics, hygiene lectures, and game activities, I feel that we have come a long way.

Because of this similarity, we are very likely to forget certain very radical differences between physical training and recreation work. A cabinet-maker is not a carpenter because both use a saw, and a physical-training worker is not a recreation leader because he uses games. On account of this confusion we are likely to have neither the physical-training worker nor the recreation worker make the most of his special field.

Physical training and recreation work differ in activities, spirit, and purpose. It goes without saying that physical training has more in its kit of tools than games. It also should not need to be said that recreation work has more in its kit of tools than games, gymnastics, and athletics. Choruses, orchestras, story-telling, dramatics, reading, moving-picture shows, social dancing, pageants, all are methods of work essential to a com-

plete recreation program, which have no particular value for physical training.

The two differ in spirit. A man may be an excellent physical-training worker, and still lack characteristics which are demanded in recreation work. Thus I remember being taken around in one city to see the playground work under the school system. In one school I was led to a basement playroom where a man with an excellent turnverein training was giving a group of boys a wand drill, followed by a session with the chest weights. It was good physical training, but I had to stretch my imagination to the breaking point to see where it was play or recreation. I have had gymnastic work myself, and the amount of zest in pulling chest weights I found to be distinctly limited. In another city I visited a physical-training man's class in folk dancing. He had certain spots marked on the gymnasium floor. Each movement in the folk dance was analyzed. The music was sedate, if not mournful. Everything was done with precision and correctness and with about as much spontaneity as a street-car conductor ringing up fares. It was good physical training. The class was learning poise and self-control. They were having the joy of doing something just right, which in these slipshod days is immensely worth while. But the spirit of play was entirely lacking. I went into another class led by a real recreation worker where the same folk dance was being given. The music had so much spirit in it that you couldn't keep your feet still and the children were laughing for the sheer fun in it.

The two differ in purpose. Physical training has a man-sized job on its hands in combating the sedentary conditions of modern life. Its purposes are to build muscle, to train muscular coordinations, to overcome physical defects, especially of posture, to develop traits of character which come thru muscular control. Recreation work also has a man-sized job in developing leisure time from a liability into an asset.

The failure to recognize these differences is hurting physical training by crowding out, in the short time allowed to it, certain necessary developments which it should make in connection with the physical examination of children, and training in hygiene. Failure to recognize these differences is hurting recreation work because it is permitting games to be called recreation work even if conducted without any knowledge of neighborhood conditions and without any analysis of the recreation needs of the particular neighborhood in which the work is being done.

The school is now changing into an institution which is trying to learn the half-conscious ideals of the society of our time and to interpret those ideals to that society. A good teacher, as we all know, does not try to turn out the children from his class like so many bricks, all stamped in the same mold, but tries to find out what are the best capabilities in each youngster and to develop those individual capacities. The school as an institution is awakening to the fact that it is the teacher of society, that society as its

pupil must be treated, in each generation, as a teacher of individuals in a classroom adapts the work to individual capacities.

In this new conception of education for this generation both physical training and recreation work have a part to play. Physical training is to relate itself to the new era of preventive medicine in its hygiene work. Physical training in the United States is to relate itself to that preparedness which is essential to a nation in the midst of international burglars, by furnishing the inescapable foundation on which all preparedness training must be based. On the other hand, recreation has its part to play in utilizing the unused educational asset of after-school, after-work time and in stopping the educational leak whereby the children outside of school form habits which waste much of their school training. Recreation work must play its part by molding together alien interests by having the people of different neighborhoods join in common purposes in their recreation life.

As physical-training workers or recreation workers, we can render the best service to the subject to which we are devoting our lives if we make the correlation between these, not the superficial correlation of workmen and tools, but the fundamental correlation of division of labor between two specialized tasks.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

- President*—JAMES E. PEABODY, head, department of biology, Morris High School,
New York, N.Y.
Vice-President—WILLIAM HEDRICK, head, department of science, McKinley High School,
Washington, D.C.
Secretary—JOHN C. PACKARD, head, department of science, High School Brooklyn, N.Y.

FIRST SESSION—MONDAY FORENOON, JULY 3, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Chemistry Teachers' Association of New York, and was called to order by Henry T. Weed, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N.Y., at 9:30 A.M., in the Washington Irving High School.

The following program was presented:

"Applied Chemistry in Secondary Schools"—Chester B. Curtis, principal, Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.

"Method in the Teaching of Chemistry"—W. G. Whitman, science department, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.

"The New York State Syllabus of Applied Chemistry"—William J. Hancock, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"Household Chemistry for Girls"—Harold A. Holly, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"What Elementary Science Needs"—Charles S. Palmer, fellow, Mellon Institute of Industrial Research, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Summary of Session—W. A. Estabrooke, chemistry department, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.

On motion of John A. Randall, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N.Y., the chair was authorized to appoint a committee of three to consider a course in chemistry adapted to those students who do not expect to go to college, and the chair named as such committee, William J. Hancock, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Frank Husted, High School, Albany, N.Y.; B. W. Peet, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; Chester B. Curtis, Principal, Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.

Announcements were made concerning the excursions in the afternoon.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY FORENOON, JULY 4, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Physics Club of New York City and the Eastern Association of Physics Teachers.

The meeting was called to order at 9:45 A.M. by John C. Packard, High School, Brookline, Mass.

The following program was presented:

"The Relation of General Science to Later Courses in Physics and Chemistry"—Lewis Elhuff, George Westinghouse High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The Relation of the Bureau of Standards to Physical Research and to the Teaching of Physics"—Frank A. Wolff, associate physicist, Bureau of Standards, Washington, D.C.

"Applied Science in the College Course"—Robert H. Spahr, State Department of University Extension, Boston, Mass.

"Local Industries as a Source of Illustrative Material for Science Teaching" (illustrated)—Clarence M. Hall, Central High School, Springfield, Mass.

The discussion was formally opened by Raymond B. Brownlee, Stuyvesant High School, New York, N.Y., and was continued informally by F. D. Barber, State Normal College, Normal, Ill.; W. H. Timbie, Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass.; C. R. Mann, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; A. L. Williston, Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass.; R. A. Wetzell, College of City of New York, New York, N.Y.

Announcements were made concerning the excursions of the afternoon.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 1916

The department met in joint session with the New York State Science Teachers' Association, the New Jersey State Science Teachers' Association, and the Association of Biology Teachers of New York.

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by H. Morgan Campbell, High School, Bayonne, N.J.

The following program was presented:

"The Conservation of Natural Resources thru Education"—Leon W. Goldrich, principal, Public School No. 62, Manhattan, N.Y.

"Studying Fungi as a Pastime"—W. A. Murrill, assistant director, New York Botanical Garden, New York, N.Y.

"General Science in Secondary Schools"—Thomas H. Briggs, assistant professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

Report of Committee on Biology—W. H. Eddy, High School of Commerce, New York, N.Y.

The discussion was formally opened by M. C. Leonard, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N.J., and was continued by William Grady, Public School No. 64, New York, N.Y.; Fred D. Barber, Normal University, Normal, Ill.; Lewis Elhuff, George Westinghouse, High School, Pittsburgh, Pa.; C. C. Kohl, New York University, New York, N.Y.; W. H. Kilpatrick, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

On motion of J. A. Randall, the Science Council was directed to appoint a committee on biology and a committee to coordinate the work of all the science committees.

Announcements were made concerning the afternoon excursions.

FOURTH SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 6, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by Arthur L. Williston, principal, Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass.

The following program was presented:

"Method in Science-Teaching"—John Dewey, professor of philosophy, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"Training of Science Teachers" (a symposium)—C. H. Robison, Normal School, Upper Montclair, N.J.; C. H. Elliott, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N.J.; Geo. H. Sherwood, American Museum of Natural History, New York, N.Y.; C. F. Hale, New York College, Albany, N.Y.; Thomas M. Balliet, New York University, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—M. C. Leonard, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N.J.; N. A. Harvey, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; M. L. Stone, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.; William W. Clennin, Wadleigh High School, New York, N.Y.; C. R. Mann, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

W. H. Timbie, for the Committee on Resolutions, presented the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, There is a never-ceasing demand for the introduction of new materials into the curriculum, to prepare the pupil to take his place in our complex modern life; and

WHEREAS, Much time and effort on the part of both pupils and teachers in our schools would be saved by the early substitution of the international metric system for our customary system of weights and measures; and

WHEREAS, This wasted time and effort constitute an enormous loss, estimated as aggregating hundreds of millions of dollars each year, to the people of the United States; therefore be it

Resolved, That the Science Department of the National Education Association respectfully recommends to the Congress of the United States that the substitution above referred to be made obligatory, reasonable time being allowed for the necessary adjustment, and that copies of this resolution be sent to the members of the Committee on Resolutions of the National Education Association, to the President of the United States Senate, and to the Speaker of the House of Representatives; and be it further

Resolved, That the Science Department of the National Education Association express its obligation to its friends for the great pleasure and profit derived from the many entertainments which have been provided by them in such abundance.

The report of the Committee on Improvement of Physics Teaching was made by J. A. Randall. On motion of C. F. Hale, State College for Teachers, Albany, N.Y., it was decided that all officers of the Science Department elected in future, including the present officers, be made permanent members of the Science Council.

On motion of Miss Mullen, Washington Irving High School, New York, N.Y., the Science Council was instructed to appoint a committee of the coordination of the different sciences into a four-year course.

On motion of W. H. Timbie, Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass., the Science Council was instructed to appoint a committee on the training of science teachers, the committee to use the report of the Biology Committee as a basis, and to outline a definite program of action.

The following were elected officers for the ensuing year:

President—W. H. Timbie, Wentworth Institute, Boston, Mass.

Vice-President—Chester B. Curtis, Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary—Fred D. Barber, Normal University, Normal, Ill.

FIFTH SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

This meeting was held under the direction of the Committee of Visual Instruction and was called to order at 9:30 A.M. in the American Museum of Natural History, by Edward W. Stitt, district superintendent of Schools, New York, N.Y.

The following program was presented:

"The Importance of Visual Instruction"—Edward W. Stitt, district superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

"The Value and Importance of the School Museum"—C. G. Rathmann, assistant superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo.

"Collection, Organization, and Circulation of Visual Aids to Instruction by State Bureaus"—A. W. Abrams, chief, Visual Instruction Division, State Education Department, Albany, N.Y.

"The Museum as the New Force in Public-School Development"—Henry F. Osborn, president, American Museum of Natural History, New York, N.Y.

"Can the Moving Picture That Imparts Information Be Used to Educate?"—Louise Connolly, education expert, Newark Museum Association, Newark, N.J.

"Motion Pictures to Aid the Educator"—A. H. Saunders, director, scientific education department, Cushing-Perine Company, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Clarence M. Abbott, assistant secretary, National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, New York, N.Y.

At the conclusion of the meeting luncheon was served in the Philippine and South Sea Island rooms, thru the courtesy of the president and the board of trustees.

Following the luncheon Sir Douglas Mawson's bird and animal motion pictures were shown by the courtesy of Lee Keedick.

JOHN C. PACKARD, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

APPLIED CHEMISTRY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

CHESTER B. CURTIS, PRINCIPAL, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Chemistry is essentially a practical science. Thru this agency only, or thru its aid as an ally of other sciences, the industrial, engineering, and medical problems of the world are being solved. It is a pragmatic science. To the layman, chemistry is an enigma; to the student, a body of theories, of laws to be rediscovered, and of historic experiments to be performed; to the manufacturer, the engineer, and the physician, it is a means to an end.

As ordinarily presented to high-school pupils, chemistry is intended to be both an informational and a cultural subject. It was originally admitted to a place in high-school programs on the assumption that it would contribute something to the pupil's mental structure in the way of discipline and knowledge. It came nearly in the form of pure science, relieved only to the extent of the descriptive matter and the simple experiments which were necessary as illustration of the theories and principles under discussion. Fortunately, chemistry is, first of all, an experimental, observational science. This very inherent characteristic of its pedagogy saved the day. It still is, and must ever be, true that the best learning comes from doing; that the purpose of learning is doing; and that knowledge is of value just to the extent that it can be put to use in the needs of daily life. I, therefore, take the pragmatic rather than the cultural point of view in the teaching of high-school chemistry. Indeed, chemistry taught with reference to its usefulness will include the cultural as an essential and valuable by-product; but if taught as an informational and cultural subject only, the very result which is most desired will lack those cultural factors which are supplied by examples of applied chemistry.

I would not convey the idea that in secondary-school teaching we can omit the descriptive and the theoretical phases of chemistry. Not at all. These features are fundamental in any course, but they must be used with discretion. My contention is not for less theory and for fewer principles, but for the proper use of theory, the correct use of principles, and for an extension of the knowledge acquired, to its application in some concrete illustration by processes as nearly as possible those of technical chemistry.

Chemistry as generally taught today does not satisfy. The trouble is not with nature, her laws, and principles; not with the tools of pure science; not with the mutual processes required for its enjoyment or mastery. Fundamentally our trouble is pedagogical. We have not properly adjusted the material at hand to the varying needs of our pupils. It is in part a question of vitalized presentation; in part, of practical application. Applied chemistry, as such, must wait upon the acquisition of fundamental principles and largely occupy the latter part of the course.

But from the first day the teacher of chemistry should hold before his class the intensely practical aspects of the subject. Many pupils approach the study with the query "What's the use of chemistry?" Our first duty is to answer that question. The first day or two may well be spent in an enumeration and a brief discussion of the industries and their products in which chemistry is a factor. Pupils should make their contribution to the discussion from the objects and processes observed in and about the home, the street, the school. This unconscious vitalizing of the subject is a pedagogical asset of rare value. It is the first step toward inspirational teaching. It should be continued at frequent intervals, by a period set apart as the instructor's hour—or "stunt," if you please—in which he may perform an experiment, give an illustrated lecture, or talk of the most recent practical application of the science. Pupils have an increased respect for an instructor whose mastery of a subject is evident. In such an hour illustrations should be, not only up to date, but up to the minute. Wonderment should be created and satisfied. Demonstrations should be striking and skilfully performed.

Pupils should be able to use chemical formulas and equations intelligently, and to apply them arithmetically in the solution of problems and projects. The usual course in high-school chemistry stops at this point—a blind-alley course. Just as the student is ready to use his tools of chemical science in a practical way, he lays them aside. The best training in chemistry, as in mechanics, is obtained on the productive, or creative, side. Qualities of analysis can be given to advantage if they too be considered as tools for use. Gas- and water-analysis are practical and not beyond the ability of high-school pupils of the upper years. Ammonia, its compounds, and solution mixtures as cleansing agents for paints, fabrics, and glassware, is an interesting field. Books on technical formulas should be used freely and experimentally. A study of ores, pigments, and paints is practical and commercial. A paint mill is an inexpensive acquisition to a laboratory equipment. But the work on paints should be carried to the point of mixing, and of application to small surfaces of different materials as finished products. A comparison of different pigments of similar appearance, such as zinc and white and powdered silica, is valuable as a practical problem. The use of substitutes for pure paints is illuminating, at least. All the industries of a community should be investigated from the standpoint of a chemical survey, and pupils of the higher classes should have some part and responsibility in the work.

The use of commercial formulas for the frosting of electric-light bulbs could profitably replace the old-time glass-plate fluorine-etching experiments. Other suggestions are the preparation of pure carbon from the destructive distillation of sugar; the products resulting from the fractionating of oils; the study of flash points; and the preparation of salts, in crystal, amorphous, and powdered forms. The great possibilities of variety in

the making of chemical salts, mostly useful, with the attendant problems of atomic and molecular weights, balancing of equations, the weighing of ingredients, the preparation and execution of the processes involved, the purification, crystallization, drying, weighing, bottling, and labeling, of the finished product, even to the name of the student, is an experience of rare value to young people. Photography, bleaching, tanning, and the study of baking powders are other good fields of practical work.

Such a program for chemistry would necessitate an increased allotment to seven or ten periods per week for two or three years. With the coming of the senior high school this arrangement will be entirely practical. With the present tendency toward a few major subjects of three years each, and several minor subjects for varied culture and information, applied chemistry would fill a need and furnish opportunities for boys and girls who have no intention of attending college. Even with our present traditional 8-4 plan, such a course for high-school pupils would be, not only practical, but a boon to those whom it would aid in finding themselves. Boys who are permitted by law to leave school at fourteen or sixteen years of age may now attend night school and obtain, by free election, valuable technical courses which would not be possible in the day-school program. Moreover, the tremendous appeal of the night school, thru its practical courses, points the true method of retaining pupils in school. Hence I plead for changes in curriculum, such that courses and subjects may be provided which shall be adapted to the practical needs and to the capacities and interests of high-school students of chemistry.

METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF CHEMISTRY—AN ABSTRACT

W. G. WHITMAN, SCIENCE DEPARTMENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, SALEM, MASS.

The one important thing to be considered in any course of study is the need of the pupil. The needs of the college-preparatory pupils and of the vocational pupils are well taken care of in the chemistry courses offered for these classes of pupils. But there is a third class—and this is the largest group—who finish their formal schooling with the high school, and who wish a general practical knowledge of chemistry as it touches their everyday lives.

It is for this third group that we need to reconstruct our high-school chemistry course. The chemistry of formulas, equations, laws, problems, and theories, which so delights the enthusiastic teacher chemist, frequently arouses enthusiasm in the pupil; but the discourse on these subjects by the pupil at home does not spread the contagion to the parents. Some teachers have dared to break away from tradition and are teaching a minimum amount of the abstruse chemistry and a maximum of the concrete, practical, living chemistry. Where we formerly taught experimentally the

volumetric and gravimetric composition of water, we now teach tests for purity of water, and treatment of contaminated water. Formerly, we never studied milk in a chemistry course; now we not only make an extensive study of it as a food-product, but even have pupils use the Babcock tester to see whether the cow at home had better be sold to the butcher. Where we formerly taught the principles involved in dyeing, we now teach how to dye faded garments, ribbons, and neckties. Where we formerly held strictly to pure science, we now admit—even strive—to coordinate the practical arts with the chemical principles.

We formerly outlined a severe course which no appeal could change; now we court suggestions from outside our departments, and are governed to some extent by the attitude taken by the parents. It is a very good test of a chemistry course, planned for the general student, to see whether a pupil's account of what he is learning arouses the parent's interest.

For this practical and useful chemistry the project method of study seems most suitable, and it is already used successfully in a number of schools.

THE NEW YORK STATE SYLLABUS OF APPLIED CHEMISTRY

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Pursuant to the meeting of the New York State Science Teachers' Association in December, 1913, a committee was organized to consider the revision of the *Science Syllabi*. This committee decided to present two syllabi to the State Science Teachers' Association, one on general chemistry, the other on applied chemistry, and, if approved by the Association, to recommend the syllabi for adoption by the New York State Department of Education.

Practically no adverse criticisms of the *Syllabus in General Chemistry* have been brought to my attention, but the so-called *Syllabus in Applied Chemistry* has been highly commended by some and severely criticized by others; I will therefore confine my remarks to this latter syllabus.

The content of the *Syllabus in Applied Chemistry* begins, as other chemistry syllabi have often commenst, with the topic "Physical and Chemical Changes." The notion of chemical change is far from being easy for many beginners to grasp. The idea of an element losing its identity by entering into combination with another element is new to them and they feel that the oxygen, for example, of the compound must be in the compound as oxygen.

Next, quite an extended study of the compound, water, is suggested. During that study the pupil is expected to gain an apprehension of the meaning of the terms "chemical decomposition," "element," "compound," "solution," and "suspension." He is also expected to acquire knowledge concerning methods used for obtaining hygienically pure water, and for

increasing the chemical purity of water. The preparation, properties, and uses of oxygen and hydrogen, the elements obtained from water, are next studied.

The formation of a few oxids by the combination of such elements as magnesium and sulphur with oxygen, by burning the elements first in pure oxygen and then in air, is made use of to illustrate the formation of compounds by synthesis, and to give the pupil reason to believe that air contains oxygen. The topics combustion, slow oxidation, and spontaneous combustion follow the formation of the oxids by the direct combination of elements with oxygen. The condition necessary for burning to continue, and methods of putting out fires by the removal of one or more of the conditions necessary for combustion, give an extremely practical turn to the topic of combustion. Next come heat-distribution, heat-appliances—such as the Bunsen burner, gas stoves, heating stoves, the kitchen range, etc.; lighting-appliances—such as the fishtail burner, the Welsbach burner, the acetylene burner, and the oil lamp.

A student who has made a careful study of the construction of a kitchen range and understands the scientific reason for each step taken during the building and regulation of a fire in it, has acquired knowledge that evoke as much mental ability during its acquirement as the committal to memory of the customary equation for the reaction between copper and nitric acid.

But I must hasten on. The next portion of the syllabus has to do with weight relations, the law of definite proportions, the law of multiple proportions, atomic weights, molecular weights, valence, nomenclature, simple chemical formulas, equations, and problems involving weight relations.

Then follows the replacement of one element by another, leading to the notion of an acid as a compound containing hydrogen replaceable by a metal. Hydrochloric acid is prepared and studied as a substance possessing the characteristic properties of an acid.

The bases, sodium hydroxide and calcium hydroxide, are prepared and studied as examples of soluble bases. An alkali is defined as a base or a compound yielding a base in the presence of water.

The following topics are of a general nature and were selected because they were closely related to everyday life. Common uses and methods for cleaning the household metals, aluminum, copper, silver, and gold, are to be studied. A knowledge of protective coatings for iron, galvanized iron, tin plate, and enameled ware is expected. The alloys, brass, bronze, solder, and fusible alloys are considered.

Three allotropic forms of carbon and their uses are studied, and considerable time is devoted to the preparation and properties of carbon dioxid and carbon monoxid and the practical uses of these compounds.

A study is to be made of substances used as fuels; of the textile fibers, cotton, linen, wool, and silk; of common cleansing agents, including soap,

ammonia water, washing soda, borax, and the grease solvents, gasoline, benzole, and carbon tetrachloride. During this study the action of soap with hard water is brought out.

The household germicides, hydrogen peroxide, hypochlorites, carbolic acid, formaldehyde, and mercuric chloride are mentioned because the committee felt that a knowledge of the nature of these substances would tend to decrease the large number of accidents that have occurred from a lack of such knowledge. The germicides mentioned are common ones, and the public should be educated concerning their use, reliability, and keeping properties, and warned against the careless handling and storage of some of them.

The remainder of the syllabus—about one-tenth of it—has to do with foods. The food requirements of the body, and a knowledge of what constitutes a balanced ration—topics that are receiving more and more attention as the cost of living increases and the relation of food to health is becoming better understood—receive due consideration.

Is the course merely an informational course? I answer, most decidedly, "no." It contains material for all of the equation writing and problem work that the average boy or girl of fifteen or sixteen years of age can master.

Lastly we come to the most vital question, How does the course work in practice? In answering this question, I can only cite my experience with classes at the Erasmus Hall High School. The course has become established so that it is one of the features of the school. During the last term one teacher and one adult from outside the school were permitted to enter the class. These persons are today firm believers in the kind of work being done.

We are conducting a college-preparatory course in chemistry and the course in applied chemistry. Of the two courses, I much prefer that in applied chemistry, but best results are obtained when the course in applied chemistry is followed by a course in physics, and this by the college-entrance course in chemistry.

There is considerable enthusiasm over the making, and especially the discharge, of a chemical fire-extinguisher. Pupils will handle equations and problems in connection with it that would not otherwise appeal to them. When mother pronounces that a sample of baking powder made by Johnnie in the chemical laboratory is the best she ever used, chemical stock goes up in Johnnie's home, and Johnnie commits to memory the formulas for tartaric acid and cream of tartar, writes the equation for the reaction between sodium bicarbonate and cream of tartar, and calculates the weight of one compound that reacts with a given weight of the other.

The alcoholic fermentation of molasses can be used in connection with the equations for the inversion of cane sugar and the production of carbon dioxide and alcohol from the fermentable sugars thus produced. Pupils

like to test for carbon dioxide, and enjoy obtaining alcohol from the fermented liquid.

The preparation of a soap that is pronounced good at home helps over the difficult formulas for esters and the saponification equations. Later the pupil comes to understand why certain waters are hard.

When the pupil finds that he can detect the presence of cotton in a piece of flannel supposed to be wool, and learns to distinguish between silk and luster cellulose, chemistry appears to be of practical value. And so we might continue with the large number of practical illustrations that combine practical information with sound mental discipline. Yes, I believe in applied chemistry. May it live long, and prosper!

WHAT ELEMENTARY SCIENCE NEEDS

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Some twenty or thirty years ago we science people had a somewhat lively scrimmage with some of our shortsighted classical friends against whom we have no grudge, for we have no quarrel with broad education. But, in brief, we did succeed in establishing in the curriculum of preparatory and high schools this safe course, as a starter, namely: after one year of general introductory science, such as physical geography, or the like, then one year each of elementary physics, elementary chemistry, elementary biology, or related work, and preferably in this order.

Now this has worked well, but it is not all. We have still everything to do, in advancing new standards, and in adopting our ideals to practical needs and conditions. We are often hampered by local conditions, and by being "sewed up" between the limitations of public-school predicaments and college requirements.

We used to dream of more specialization in natural science in the preparatory and high schools—specialization such as that relating to Greek, Latin, and mathematics, where at least three years were devoted to each subject, and they did get results. But we were not sure which science—physics, chemistry, or biology—was the natural fundamental science; nor did we know whether the time had come for such specialization. President Eliot, of Harvard, used to tell me: "Yes, you are right in looking ahead for more specialization in science in secondary schools, but you will have to wait for another generation to see it generally adopted and accomplished." And the prophet was right. Each age has its possibilities and its limitations in possible progress. Each age, after a safe, conservative growth is then ready for further progress. It seems that just about now is the psychological moment for further advance.

But what is the special line of advance? What particular science is best suited for intensive specialization of three years in the preparatory,

secondary, and high schools?—such specialization as used to be applied to Greek, Latin, and mathematics, and such as is now coming to be practical also in English, German, or French. Now, it has come as a vision to many of us in the last nervous awakening months of world-history that the first subject of attack is the study of things, substances, and kinds of matter, and that is chemistry. And our question is answered. From now onward we should aim to specialize in chemistry, as the science of the secondary schools. Formerly we were in doubt. We did not wish to cut off all physics, tho beyond the elements it does become too mathematical for high-school students.

For the student who goes on to college and university, we hear the clear call, "More chemistry." Equally—but a thousand times more insistently—for the student who cannot go beyond the high school we hear the same call, "More chemistry." Let us then be thankful that our problem is so easily simplified. There is no conflict here between the interests of the preparatory and the high-school student. Their claims are the same.

But, specifically, what do we mean by "More chemistry"? Does it not mean the following scheme for a three-year high-school course everywhere?

1. A year of continuation and possible extension of our present course in general elementary inorganic chemistry; lecture, laboratory, recitation.
2. A year of the elements of good organic chemistry; lecture, laboratory, recitation.
3. A year of analysis, mainly qualitative, but just enough of a quantitative character toward the end to perfect the crude qualitative notions and methods; lecture, laboratory, recitation.

And over all, above all, and thru all must be given continual parallels and illustrations from the practical and useful side. This must be emphasized. (Note the use of such books as Weed's *Chemistry of the Home*, as invaluable reading.) Theory and practice must go hand in hand in all this general, analytical, and organic chemistry. With it all may well be given some of the more definite and simple results of newer physical chemistry, tho most of that may well be left to the more mature and thoro college work, which will then be in good shape, and free further to train students already started in the elements.

But some may say, "Why all this general, organic, and analytical chemistry in the high school? Why rob the college of its quota?" The answer is simple: College is already loaded and overloaded with its burden, growing, not only out of inorganic, organic, and analytical advance, but also from the many phases of physical chemistry. There is a vast field which the college should cover. And the college must cover most of this to prepare the college student for his graduate work. If one doubts it, let him make a list of subjects which now are not advanced work, but only elementary and preparatory to research for the doctorate: spectrum analysis, crystallography, pyrometry, electro-chemistry, catalysis, mass action, phase rule,

dissociation, physical and chemical, argonoids and the periodic sequence, colloids, radiography, x-ray, etc.

What are we going to do about it? Why, do the right thing about the obvious duty for the obvious need. True, one mind cannot be well-trained and equally well-trained in all these lines; but, in general, the good Ph.D. student of the future must have a speaking acquaintance with each and all these subjects to be able to do his research work, and to be able to compete with other efficient men in the modern competition of theory and practice. And if the college man is tempted to go directly and prematurely into research work without previous adequate graduate training, all the more he needs college training far beyond what he gets at present. Therefore I present these resolutions:

1. That such a course as that outlined for three years in chemistry be recommended as a tentative scheme.
2. That this be so formulated and recommended as a part of the program of the next and all of the necessary succeeding years, as shall merit its due attention and speedy realization.
3. That we all "get next" to this idea and stay with it.

THE RELATION OF GENERAL SCIENCE TO LATER COURSES IN PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

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Approaching this subject from the standpoint of the teacher, I desire to divide all teachers into two groups. These two groups are suggested by the attitude which teachers take with respect to what is commonly known as "general science." The first group consists of those teachers who teach a subject or develop a subject from the standpoint of the subject itself, and make the student conform to the subject-matter which the teacher thinks makes an ideal course, because of the worth and beauty of the subject-matter itself rather than the usefulness of the subject-matter to the student pursuing it. This group of teachers desires students to be purposefully prepared for the courses which they teach. Under our present system of class grouping of students, it is a great advantage to have the students grouped according to their previous training. It is an advantage to the learners, because under proper classification they will get more training during a given period of time.

The physics and chemistry teachers of this first group expect their students to have been trained or drilled in some of the fundamentals of these subjects and even expect them to know how to perform, in a prescribed way, experiments and write up notebooks in the form in which this group of teachers want them—just as the learning to do experiments and writing up laboratory notebooks were a business in itself. Here I will

suggest that the grandest laboratory of any high school is the whole community in which that high school is located. To use this laboratory requires a different method from that used in many laboratories, and a different attitude on the part of the teacher toward his subjects and his learners.

This brings us to the second group of teachers, namely, those who teach from the standpoint of the student and make the subject fit the student so that it will give him useful training for both the present and the future. This attitude requires the teacher to center attention on the learner and study his characteristics and previous training, and then adapt the subject-matter to suit the circumstances which the teacher has discovered. Here again may I suggest that learners who are grouped according to their previous training, will receive more training in a given amount of time than if they are not so grouped. This attitude on the part of a teacher requires the teacher, not only to know the subject being taught, but to know it so well that the subject can be adapted to the conditions in which the learner is found. The learner should be first in the mind of the teacher and the subject-matter second. Keep in mind that living human beings are to be taught and not science subjects. Is this idea new? No, the great teachers of the past, both religious and secular, who stand out in educational history had this conception of the relation of the subject-matter to the learner.

What should be taught in a general-science course given during freshman year in high school, considering the age and training of students now coming into our high schools? The answer is: "Teach the student what he needs, what he can use." To do this the teacher must be a student of sociology as well as of psychology and pedagogy, and must study the social environment of the students in order to learn as much as possible about the students' experiences and the extent and nature of their observations and previous school training. The previous school training that students have received will largely determine the method which can be used at the beginning of a general-science course or any other course.

Of all the important things to which the general-science student should be introduced, I suggest the following: (1) the student's own health, (2) the health of the family from which the student comes, (3) the health of the community in which the school is located. These are to be treated principally from the hygienic standpoint. The health of the family and community is reached thru the health of the student. Some of the things which relate to health and are common to all communities are: habits of students in school, on the streets, in the home; the home, its heating, lighting, ventilation, and surroundings, including plants and animals; sanitation in and around the home; cleanliness, nature, and kinds of food consumed; apparatus and chemicals used in the home; water-supply and its purity. These are to be studied in detail to the extent of their usefulness to the students concerned.

How should we teach general science to prepare students for physics or chemistry or any other subject? The answer is: "Teach them in the same way as you would if they did not intend to take up a more advanced subject—in other words, "Teach them how to live." We cannot teach a student how to live by his cramming and parroting, but by drawing out and developing what capacities he has, that is, by leading the student to discover himself or herself.

A general principle of all teaching is to proceed from the known to the unknown. Every student has a quantity of experience which is sufficiently understood by him to be used as a foundation and also as a basis for helping him to interpret new experiences and new facts. Every student also has a quantity of experience of which he understands a part. The part which he does not understand must be interpreted in the light of those of his experiences which are already clear and useful.

The laboratory work for freshmen should be largely outside of the schoolroom. It should be in the home to a maximum extent for two reasons: (1) the learner will see a practical value in the experiment and the experiment itself will be practice; (2) it draws the parents into educational relations with their children and the school. The habits of whole families can be changed by this method, thus producing a better environment in the home of the student. This will go a great way in preparing a student for future courses in physics and chemistry or in any other subject.

No laboratory experiment should be conducted in the school unless an immediate application of the experience gained is made to life outside of the school. Students, even Seniors, easily fall into the habit of thinking that experiments have an end in themselves, and they fail to see the use of the principles involved except to perform experiments. Students can easily consume all their time learning the things for which they have immediate use. Virtually they learn only those things which they use. When a graduate starting in practical work says that he had to learn it all over again, he means that he did not learn it while taking his course in school. By a constant effort to teach only that which students can use immediately, and by teaching it thoroughly enough so that they can use it, some mental processes are involved and developed which are very important, namely, power of selection, comparison, reason, and judgment.

One very important thing which I desire to impress upon your minds is to retain in general-science courses only the subject-matter which can be adapted to the life of the student, and to do the same in physics and chemistry.

Later courses in physics and chemistry will then contain only that which is of practical use to the student at the time the courses are pursued. Later teachers of physics and chemistry will also see that their subjects are for the student's use, and not the students for the subjects. The first year of physics or chemistry in high school can be confined to the physics and

chemistry of the daily experiences of the students. This will mean the elimination of much that is now superficially taught in some schools, and the addition of material with which the student is already partially familiar.

If later courses in physics and chemistry become what I have suggested, then how will general science be related to them? The answer is at once apparent, namely, that general science, when properly taught by adaptation to the life of the student, will have developed the student so that he will be able to think, judge, and apply information to new circumstances or conditions, and will have developed the habit of securing new information as needed to meet a new condition. These qualities in a student can be used in a home, on the street, on the farm, in studies pursued in the future, or in remunerative labor. A student possessing these properties will never fail to be benefited by a course in physics and chemistry if these subjects are adapted to his capacity and immediate needs.

What then should be the aim of the teacher of general science? Only this: Adapt the subject-matter to the student and teach him in such a way that he will be prepared for life now, and have no thought of preparing him for any subject that is to follow, except the subject, "To live, to live completely, to live abundantly." Let this be the aim of physics and chemistry teachers also, and there will be unity, continuity, and cooperation of the highest type.

THE RELATION OF THE BUREAU OF STANDARDS TO PHYSICAL RESEARCH AND TO THE TEACHING OF PHYSICS

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The National Bureau of Standards was established by act of Congress in 1901, superseding the old Office of Standard Weights and Measures which, with its limited scope, its small force, and its very meager quarters and facilities, had been endeavoring to look after the matter of weights and measures in the greatly restricted sense which had been in vogue before that time. It dealt with pounds, yards, gallons, bushels, etc., with their variegated multiples and submultiples; and with the corresponding standards of the International Metric System, which had been legalized in 1866 for permissive use in the United States.

In 1894 the Chicago International Electrical Congress defined the international electrical standards, and a few years later the Office of Standard Weights and Measures made an attempt, in a necessarily limited way, to establish such standards.

In the fifteen years of its existence, the Bureau of Standards has grown to occupy a very important position among the scientific bureaus of the government. It now has over 400 employes of whom about two-thirds are engaged in scientific and technical work. The main laboratories are

located in the northwestern suburbs of Washington on a natural hill site of about sixteen acres.

There are, in addition, two branch laboratories outside of Washington, one in Pittsburgh, Pa., for heavy-material testing and research work along certain lines; the other at Northampton, Pa., for the testing of cement furnisht to the government, principally for the Panama Canal.

The Bureau endeavors to make its work available to the general public thru four series of publications.

1. The *Bulletin* of the Bureau of Standards, now in its thirteenth volume. In this the results of the purely scientific work are publisht. The reprints of the individual papers, known as scientific papers, now number almost 300.

2. Technological papers. These are not publisht in volume form, since they include the results of work done along many technical lines; these papers are therefore of special interest to workers along corresponding lines. Of these, 79 have been issued to date.

3. Bureau circulars of information. These also are not publisht in volume form. They are intended to furnish to the public information regarding various topics of general or special interest with which the Bureau has to deal. Thus far 60 have been issued.

4. Miscellaneous publications, including the annual reports of the director, weights and measures, conference reports, and so forth.

With the exception of the *Bulletin*, for which a regular subscription charge of one dollar per volume is made, the scientific papers, technological papers, and circulars are obtainable free on request by addressing the Bureau, so long as the limited stock lasts. All are enumerated in Circular 24, list of publications, where abstracts of each separate publication, to guide in making selections, may be found.

Turning now directly to the subject assigned me, "The Relation of the Bureau of Standards to Research and Teaching," I think it can be asserted without dispute that the establishment of the Bureau of Standards has had a far-reaching influence on the development of research work in physics in colleges and in universities as well as in the industries. Boards of trustees and executive committees are not willing to appropriate funds for buildings and equipment until they are convinst that they will serve a useful purpose. The liberality of Congress in providing funds for research work in physics, chemistry, and engineering has undoubtedly been of great weight in inducing college and university authorities to recognize the importance of such work and to provide properly for it, and the same may be said of industrial organizations. This influence has also made itself felt in greater liberality on the part of school authorities for better support to physics teaching and laboratory work in the high schools.

The Bureau of Standards has also been of especial assistance to research workers having need of precision measurements in their work. The

standards in terms of which such measurements are made are referred directly or indirectly to the standards of the Bureau. In addition, the Bureau undertakes to guarantee as far as possible an international basis by having its own standards checked from time to time against those of foreign standardizing institutions. The importance of international uniformity has been recognized by us since the organization of the Bureau, and every effort has been made to bring about cooperation to this end.

Another way in which we have assisted research is thru arrangements made to furnish materials of guaranteed purity or composition to investigators, who are thus enabled to check the accuracy of their apparatus and results. Among the materials furnished may be mentioned standardized samples and pure materials for chemists, pure sugar for testing polariscopes, and sugar, naphthaline, and benzoic acid for combustion standards. Arrangements have also been made to furnish samples of pure metals for use in connection with the determination of fixed points in the high-temperature scale.

Important contributions have been made in the direction of improved construction of secondary standards and measuring apparatus, and in the development of improved methods of measurement and testing.

In more recent years equally important contributions have been made to industrial research and technology. In this connection it might be well to consider the desirability of the cooperation of the Bureau of Standards and other scientific bureaus of the government with the various institutions which would be benefited if the Newlands bill now before Congress to aid industrial research should become a law.

The Bureau of Standards endeavors to keep in touch with all the interests it serves, and that includes, most of all, the research workers and the investigators. This is done thru our publications, thru committee work, thru correspondence, thru conference and consultation, and thru meetings outside of Washington attended by members of the Bureau staff, and at Washington where an assembly room seating three hundred has been provided. Thus the regular spring meeting of the American Physical Society is held at the Bureau, and from time to time we have entertained the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, the American Electrochemical Society, and the local sections of various national scientific and technical societies, including the local branch of the Science Teachers Association.

On such occasions the laboratories are thrown open for inspection, and visitors are given the fullest opportunity for familiarizing themselves with the work of the Bureau and with the methods and equipment employed.

At various times we have entertained, as guests, scientific workers connected with educational institutions who desired to conduct researches on special lines, while on Sabbatical or on summer vacation.

Every year we have received visits from a number of graduating classes of various institutions in the East.

In connection with one of the meetings of the Physical Society a manufacturers' exhibit of scientific apparatus was arranged at the Bureau, thru which the manufacturer and the purchaser were brought together in a way which was mutually beneficial.

The Bureau has been frequently called upon to assist in the revision of data included in physical tables, handbooks, textbooks, etc.

These are some of the ways in which we have tried to make ourselves useful to science workers.

The subject may also be presented from a somewhat different standpoint. Each year the Bureau of Standards draws from the colleges and universities a considerable number of men to fill new positions and vacancies. Nearly all entering the scientific and technical branches have just completed undergraduate courses, so that it is to their interest as also to the interest of the service to encourage them to advance and to extend their knowledge. This is done thru journal meetings, general and special, held weekly and designed to keep these men, as well as the whole staff, in touch with work done in the field of general physics and chemistry, thru the presentation of the results published in the scientific and technical journals; and also thru weekly seminary meetings in which work on particular topics of special interest to the Bureau is collated and reviewed.

In addition, arrangements have been made for postgraduate courses, given outside of working hours, under the auspices of a committee composed of members of the Bureau staff. This work is arranged so that two years of a postgraduate course in physics may be completed in four or five years, and already a number of universities have given credit for such work as part requirement for the Doctor's degree. For the coming year courses in "Advanced Dynamics," "Advanced Thermodynamics," and "Electron Theory" are announced, the instructors being drawn from the Johns Hopkins University, the Carnegie Institution, and the Bureau of Standards.

APPLIED SCIENCE IN THE COLLEGE COURSE

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With one or two exceptions science instruction has improved greatly during the last decade and a half. One of these exceptions which is very far from ideal is physics, a subject with which I am more familiar than with any other subject in the science group, a subject frequently hated by boys and usually despised by girls in both high school and college. Many times I have observed the following attitude upon meeting girls in different parts of the country: "Do you teach physics?" "I hated that more than

anything I ever studied!"—a most disastrous dash of ice-cold water upon any probable ambitions of a bachelor physics teacher.

Yet from experience I know that science, and especially physics, can be made an interesting subject of study, not only for boys, but equally so for girls. Any criticism which may be offered must of necessity cover especially my early methods of teaching. Brought up, as most of you were, under the "learn by heart" method, we were so thoroly drilled and redrilled that I believe we could have given most of the so-called fundamental laws backward as well as forward with little appreciation of what they meant, how they applied to practical life, and how they workt in with other subjects studied.

There is no doubt that any subject in science is both vitalized and humanized for a large percentage of students by showing its application and usefulness in everyday life thru the use of "man-sized" illustrations. How many of our educators forget that the adolescent mind cannot and does not associate the little sticks, toys, "weightless beams," and "frictionless pulleys" used in a great many of our laboratories with real beams and working machines; I need not give you concrete illustrations. Then, too, with regard to the use of such units as the dyne, which is well enough for scientific research, it would be interesting to know how many engineers and other people in practical work have ever used it since they left the classroom.

We must not forget that pure science likewise claims its place in the sun. Our research people are extremely valuable; we must have them; but that does not mean that the students should be first to swallow bitter pills of theoretical "dope" when capsules of application seasoned with theory can probably be prescribed, for a much longer period, rendering valuable assistance to the patient.

I am not radical, for I believe that both applied and pure physics have very important rôles to play, with applied physics predominating for actual usefulness and cash value to the student. All applied physics, and especially that in the form of household physics for girls, is of very recent origin. To venture a personal allusion here. I had the pleasure of teaching a class of girls in household physics for university credit in 1911-12. With the exception of courses offered at the Kansas Agricultural and Mechanical College, this was probably the first work of its kind recognized for credit toward a degree in America. These girls may not now be able to explain the theory of cooling by evaporation; but I believe they do know, thru a homely method, how to keep baby's bottle of milk cool and sweet on a hot day during an ice famine.

I have attempted to enumerate some of the essential prerequisites necessary to bring the high-school student to graduation with the ardent desire to seek that which is beyond. Are the doors of our American colleges and universities open to him, or are obstacles thrown across his

path in the form of grueling entrance examinations, and notifications to the effect that he has not pursued the proper courses of study in the high school, that he must bring so many units of Greek, Latin, modern languages, history, English, mathematics, science, and perhaps others? Concerning the first of these obstacles, I am glad to say that as few as six of our colleges and universities do not accept certificates from recognized high schools in lieu of examinations, thus eliminating the worthless cramming process so well known. A further step is that Yale, Harvard, and Princeton have decided to modify their rigid entrance requirements and permit students to enter their freshman classes after passing an examination in four subjects instead of the dozen or more heretofore designated. Certain of the specified units for entrance, as well as requirements for graduation, in our institutions of higher learning, are rapidly disappearing, and more latitude is allowed. Especially is this true of Latin and Greek. In 1895, 75 per cent of our leading colleges and universities required Greek for entrance to the A.B. degree, while today this is true of only 5 per cent. In 1895, 97 per cent required Latin for entrance to the A.B. degree against 41 per cent today. In more than 100 leading colleges and universities today neither Latin nor Greek is required for admission to a course leading to the A.B. degree. The number of units required for entrance has not been decreased, but, contrarywise, has been increased; in many cases practical, applied subjects are being recognized.

The high schools of our nation belong to all the people; therefore they should be made to serve all the children of all the people. When we consider that the percentage of high-school students who go to college is very small, it is manifestly rank injustice to arrange the curricula to fit the few who do go to college, since they are, as a rule, better prepared financially to buy bread and butter than the masses. Sometime ago President Eliot made the following statement:

In a democratic nation spread over the continent, and in which secondary education presents local diversities, colleges and universities, if they would retain the national character and influence, must be careful not to offer unnecessary obstacles to the admission of young men of adequate tho diversified preliminary training.

True, the colleges have been slow to adjust entrance requirements, which in turn have had a wonderful effect upon the curricula of our high schools. Entrance by certificate practically eliminates the problem of any college's dictating to the high school just how and what shall be taught in preparatory physics so long as the proper time and study have been expended. No man, no school, no college, has a divine monopoly of the contents of any subject. Even where entrance examinations are yet required there is usually enough latitude to permit offering physics as an elective. Colleges and universities are coming to realize the tremendous value of applied physics. Every year brings forth many more announcements of practical applied courses in physics for both boys and girls from

many of our leading institutions. I know of nothing more needed, more useful, than a practical, humanized course in physics for girls. Call it "household physics" if you like. Statistics bear out the contention that an interested student completing a practical applied course in physics will do just as well, and many times better, when admitted to more advanced work than when he has passively memorized the laws of pure theoretical physics. A person thinks at his best when he is working out something in which he is vitally interested.

A serious obstacle which must be overcome is the attitude of some of our college and university professors. They are so thoroughly imbued with a purely theoretical spirit as almost to forget that there is a practical side. Their ideal of a physics student is one who can derive formula after formula with no appreciation or thought of use in practice. In fact, I have known one (and there may be others) who estimated the worth of the student by his ability to derive and memorize formulas. I have heard him remark, "That girl is no good," basing his judgment entirely upon her physics record, even if she was a star student in other subjects. Transformation from the purely theoretical to the more practical is surely coming. It only remains to hasten the day.

I offer, also, the following constructive suggestions:

Adequate texts in applied physics must be obtained.

Better-qualified teachers are necessary to replace those who teach their students that acceleration expressed in centimeters per second per second is an error in printing.

Methods of presentation should be improved. The teacher must discard his machine-like work and instead exhibit interest and enthusiasm which will be contagious.

The college instructor, where he has not seen the practical side, must be converted to the dual possibilities of applied and pure physics.

LOCAL INDUSTRIES AS A SOURCE OF ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL FOR SCIENCE TEACHING

CLARENCE M. HALL, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

The necessity for using illustrative material in science teaching is beyond question, but the value of such material is much enhanced if it be drawn from the environment of the pupil. It is the purpose of this paper to indicate briefly some of the ways in which such material can be obtained and how it can be used in the classroom.

The city in which this work is being done is a thriving industrial community of some 100,000 inhabitants, with a fine public spirit. Its manufacturers are almost without exception very willing to cooperate with the schools to make the science work more valuable to the community, and to

this end they are glad to contribute the pieces of material and the information about them. The city directory will be found useful in getting a list of industrial plants to which to apply for material. The Board of Trade also can be relied upon to furnish other information and to help in getting special sets of parts.

Various ways of using specimens will doubtless occur to many of you, but we have found it convenient to mount them upon boards about 2 feet by 3 feet, having a green burlap background, and to cover them with glass before hanging them upon the walls of the laboratory. Before class, any exhibit is taken from the wall whenever we wish to call particular attention to it, for example, during some demonstration period. In the meantime they remain in the laboratory performing the function of silent educators in applied science. All are carefully labeled, and often the business card of the donor appears, which seems unobjectionable, as the advertising value to the manufacturer is rather small. It is, moreover, a distinct advantage to have pupils familiar with the names and locations of some of the prominent industries of their native city. Photographs of interiors of local plants such as the electric-lighting station, and of interesting local physiographic features, are excellent, as are also specimens of the minerals in the vicinity. Thru pupils who have relatives engaged along industrial lines, it is often possible to get worth-while parts illustrating processes. Since much of the illustrative value of industrial plants consists in the actual operations there conducted, it is advisable to make inspection trips to them. To accomplish this with the science classes on definite afternoon assignments has been found difficult; but the difficulty has, to some extent, been overcome by organizing a science club called the "Cosmos Club," which makes trips every two weeks to industrial plants, to places of geological interest in the vicinity, and occasionally spends an evening at the 6-inch telescope in our high-school observatory. The club is addressed from time to time by the municipal milk-inspector, the sealer of weights and measures, and city engineers.

In closing let me sum up briefly the advantages of this method:

1. The material is inexpensive.
2. It adds much interest to the work in science.
3. Pupils gain some knowledge of the industries of their own city.
4. The collection of these materials brings the teacher into touch with men in industrial lines, and he gains thereby a first-hand knowledge of many applications which will increase his efficiency as a teacher of science.

DISCUSSION

RAYMOND B. BROWNLEE, Stuyvesant High School, New York, N.Y.—The question of the bearing of general science on later courses in physical science seems to me to be one of interrelation. There are several aims possible in general science. One, which I believe is common to all courses, is the awakening and crystallizing of interest in science,

and the development of powers of scientific observation. Another is the presentation of an elementary body of scientific instruction reasonably complete in itself—essentially a cultural aim. The preponderance of physiography in one of the books mentioned is really a revival of the old-fashioned physical geography of our own school days, as opposed to first-year biology. This may be of particular value in cities and towns of such size and situation that physiographic features may be studied conveniently in the surrounding country. Under these circumstances such a course may be made to yield real scientific training in addition to its undoubted cultural value.

Two other aims are: (1) to furnish the pupil with a scientific basis of principles and facts for the interpretation of his everyday experiences, and (2) to add science experiences as a foundation for future science study. The working out of these latter purposes is closely knit with the science courses which are to follow in the curriculum. The addition and interpretation of science experiences is particularly necessary for the city boy and girl.

The Stuyvesant High School is a technical high school, whose graduates chiefly enter the engineering field, either directly, or after taking engineering degrees at college. For three years of the course a third of the time is devoted to mechanics-arts work in shop and draughting room. The student body is so large as to require double sessions.

We have settled on five periods of elementary physical science for a group of twelve classes in the first term. In the second term all boys take either two or three periods in practical physiology, including personal hygiene, infection and its prevention, foods, and kindred topics.

The pupils who take elementary physical science have two double periods and one single period each week for twenty weeks. This arrangement of periods is due to the fact that for these boys science takes the place of joinery. Two demonstrations are given each week, one in physics and the other in chemistry, both considered particularly from the applied point of view. Each demonstration occupies about half of a double period and the remaining time is devoted to discussion of the experiments and the application of the facts and principles involved. We keep in mind that many of the boys will drop by the wayside before the more formal study of physics and chemistry in later terms.

The topics in physics include properties of matter—impenetrability, ductility, malleability, tenacity, surface phenomena in liquids, capillarity. From two to three weeks are given to this work. It is followed by the hydraulic press, Archimedes principle of flotation, atmospheric pressure, pumps and siphon, simple machines, and centrifugal force. In heat the experiments include various methods of producing heat, expansion, heat transmission, vacuum bottle and fireless cooker, heat changes in evaporation, solution, crystallization, freezing mixtures. The remaining topics are magnetism, electromagnets and their application, heating and chemical effects of electricity.

In chemistry the following topics are given: water and solution, chemical combination and decomposition, replacement, acids and bases, conditions for burning, liquid fuels, particularly the behavior of gasolene, gas flames and the Bunsen burner, blast lamps and blowpipes, oil lamps, gas lights, acetylene generators and burners, products of combustion and extinguishing fires. Hard water is made and softened, alloys made, protective coverings applied to metals, and solid, liquid, and scouring soaps made.

The effect on the boys of introducing elementary physical science has been to arouse greater enthusiasm for science and to increase their power in attacking the later courses. Another very important result is that of attracting to the school various boys who already have a scientific bent. Many boys stay in school for the later courses who might otherwise have dropped out; and boys who are obliged to go to work after two or three terms have had at least one term of physical science.

The introduction of general science in the first year should not, in my opinion, materially alter the content of the later courses, altho it will somewhat shift the emphasis on particular topics and permit a considerable enrichment of the course as a whole. Laboratory work should be left to the later courses in most instances.

The effect of the later courses in physics and chemistry on general science then is to determine the selection of material and the method of presentation, so that all the work will be adapted to needs of the students concerned. The effect of the general science on the later courses is to stimulate scientific interest and enthusiasm, to inculcate scientific habits of observation and thinking, and to develop scientific power.

THE CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES THRU EDUCATION

LEON W. GOLDRICH, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 62, MANHATTAN, N.Y.

The greatest problem of the industrial and commercial world today is to find ways and means for eliminating all forms of waste. Chemists, naturalists, and all other scientists are devoting their full attention to the transformation of hitherto so-called "waste products" into the rich by-products of industries. Modern efficiency demands that all human and natural resources shall be either conserved, or transformed to the best uses for present and future generations. Modern education must train for efficiency in life; and unless the content and the methods of education are so organized as to bring about maximum results with a minimum waste of time and energy, the educator's work will be considered a failure, judged by the standards of our twentieth-century social needs.

We can no longer separate the welfare of society from the welfare of the individual. Social demands, social needs, and social progress must be recognized in the curriculum of our schools and colleges. The content of our courses of study must be fraught with social purposes, and the greatest social need of America today is the conservation of our natural and human resources. The teacher in our American schools has, therefore, the definite task of teaching the young the absolute necessity of eliminating all forms of waste in material, in time, in energy; of securing the greatest value from things now called "wasteful"; and of conserving for himself and for others those natural resources which are God-given.

Our country has two kinds of enemies—those from within and those from without. To combat successfully the enemy from within, we need neither forts nor battleships, but an army of teacher conservators. Every schoolhouse must be a garrison and a recruiting station to aid in a campaign of conservation. America must be taught that society has an economic foundation as well as an institutional foundation; that our economic foundation consists of our natural resources, and is just as real and vital to the development and progress of our national life as are the institutional foundations composed of constitutional laws and charters. If the natural foundation be destroyed, the one reared by man will surely fall.

Notwithstanding all the efforts of all the defenders of the forests and the wild life already in the field, notwithstanding all the national and state laws that have been enacted, and notwithstanding all the forest

reservations and wild-life refuges that have been created, our forests and wild birds and quadrupeds are vanishing. Forests and wild life must have more friends if they are to be saved from complete extermination. Speed is a factor of prime importance in the conservation of all our animate resources.

In view of the manifold dangers now threatening the very existence of our wild life and forests, it now becomes the duty of all educators to enter actively and permanently into the practical work of wild-life and forest protection and increase.

Natural-history teaching in the classroom is of great importance and value, but the teacher must now seek to carry the work afield into the haunts of wild life and wild-life destroyers, into legislative halls, and even into the courts.

The ethics of wild-life protection and the legitimate pursuit of game should be taught by every teacher in America; because thru faulty ethics, or none at all, millions of game birds and thousands of game mammals have been, and now are, being killed contrary to the principles that should govern all sport with the shotgun and rifle. The enormous value of insectivorous birds to agriculture, horticulture, and forestry must be taught in every school, college, and university in America; and every nature-study teacher should accept this duty as one of paramount importance.

Four-fifths of all the forests in the country are privately owned. Only one-fifth is owned by the public. Forests cannot persist without protection and management. Private forests are not protected and managed. They are slowly but surely deteriorating, and in many places the noble species of the past are giving way to culls and weeds, much the same as our former rich bird life is yielding to the English sparrow.

The enemies that are destroying the forests may be classified in the order of their destructiveness as follows:

1. The sportsmen, heedless boys, and others who intentionally or thoughtlessly set fires and thus help to destroy each year over fifty million dollars' worth of forest property in this country.
2. The lack of effective forest-fire laws in many states and the want of public support in the execution of the laws that we now have.
3. The lack of public appropriations properly to organize and protect all forest property from fire.
4. The cutting of the best timber from our private forests without regard for the crop that is to follow, altho present gains may be followed by future losses.
5. Unjust tax laws which yearly levy a tribute on all standing timber, thus forcing the owners to cut it before its economic maturity.
6. The vast hoards of animal and plant parasites which make rapid and increasing inroads on all kinds of trees as soon as the forest is disturbed by man.

7. The great lack of public education regarding the economic, recreational, and esthetic value of forests and how they can be conserved.

The enemies of wild life may be classified in the order of their destructiveness as follows:

1. All wild-bird and quadruped-hunters who shoot eagerly and persistently, lawfully and unlawfully. In the United States each year about three million armed men take the field, and most of them are licenst. In 1915 Pennsylvania turned out over 300,000, and New York over 125,000, licensed hunters.

2. The lack of really adequate game laws and law-enforcement thruout fully one-half the entire South from Texas to Maryland.

3. The increase of hunting by negroes and poor whites in the South who kill all kinds of birds for food, including our most valuable insectivorous birds; also boys both in the South and the North who kill song birds indiscriminately for practice in shooting with .22-caliber rifles.

4. The destruction of insectivorous birds for food by Italians, Hungarians, Poles, and other aliens.

5. The financial impossibility of putting into any state a sufficient number of state game wardens to protect adequately all the wild life in its haunts.

6. In many localities all over the United States there exists traditional contempt for game laws and game wardens, which leads judges and juries to side with the law breakers and bring the wild-life laws into perpetual contempt—a very great evil.

7. The destruction of cover and wild food for birds and quadrupeds, which results in easy slaughter by sportsmen in summer, and death by starvation and freezing in winter.

8. The stubborn unwillingness of sportsmen to stop hunting when their favorite game approaches extermination, and to accord it a long closed season.

9. Finally, and worst of all, the almost entire absence of a code of ethics calculated to give the wild creatures a square deal and save species from annihilation.

The following must be accepted and become a part of the living principles of all American citizens:

1. The forests and wild life of today are not ours to do with as we please, and if we are honest we cannot ignore the rights of posterity to a just share of our natural resources.

2. The extermination of a species, be it plant or animal, is a crime. Man never yet has added a single new species to the wild life of the world; but he has annihilated many.

3. Every citizen of the state has a certain proprietary right in every living wild creature within that state; now it is the duty of the citizen to conserve his property and see to it that it is not wastefully and wantonly

exterminated. The sportsmen do not own the game of the country any more than they own the schools. The state and the nation accord citizens the privilege of hunting; and that privilege can be amended, or entirely taken away, at any time.

4. The teaching of the conservation of forests and wild life to children, and to adults also, has a strong and direct tendency toward making better citizens thru the principles of justice, mercy, economy of resources, and general square dealing. The man or boy who has no regard for the forests nor for the rights of wild life easily ignores the rights of man and becomes a bad citizen. The boy who is cruel to wild creatures easily falls into still more evil ways and becomes a criminal.

The teachers of America have in their keeping a tremendous educational force which they can exert in behalf of forests and wild life. Will they use it? This force can be exercised in every state, county, town, and village in one or more of the following ways:

1. Teach children the great recreational and esthetic value of trees, and how respect and love for them with their great, overarching crowns and long, straight stems make for a better and more wholesome life.

2. Teach children the great companionship value of the wild birds and quadrupeds, how interesting they are in their ways, and how much their ways and needs are like those of human beings. Give each species a personality, as Thornton W. Burgess does in his *Bedtime Stories*.

3. Teach children the great economic value of the forest, the place that it holds in our national economy, and the necessity for conserving it in order that future generations may have wood and all the other products that the forest produces.

4. Teach children the great economic value of birds, and what great losses by destructive insects are entailed upon our fruit, grain, vegetables, and trees by the destruction of our insect-eating birds.

5. Teach all children to respect the forest and the rights of wild creatures. Teach all boys the ethics of true sportsmanship, and what it means to hunt like a gentleman—to give the game a fair chance for its life, and not to use unfair weapons. Also teach that it is the duty of the true sportsman to stop shooting when game becomes scarce, no matter whether the law requires it or not.

6. Teach children, and all men, the absolute duty to respect all forests and wild-life laws and obey them, and also aid in enforcing these laws, both by precept and example. Much needs to be said on this point, even to judges and juries.

The National Educators Conservation Society has been organized to achieve these ends. The creed of the society is "Our American institutions are man-made; our natural resources are God-given; the perpetuation of the former depends upon the conservation of the latter." The object of the society is, "to promote the active protection and increase of wild life

and forests thru the professional educators of America." The society is now working definitely for:

1. Increase in the area of publicly owned forests until at least 50 per cent of all the forests of the country on non-agricultural land is so owned.

2. Perpetual closed seasons for all species of wild life now threatened with extermination.

3. The establishment of communal forests accessible to every important city and town in the United States.

4. The establishment of publicly-owned wild life refuges in every state in the United States where species now threatened with extermination can find food and protection.

5. The preservation of public and private forests from fire and destructive lumbering, and the encouragement of natural reproduction by natural means, and also by seeding and planting.

6. The prevention of the killing of insectivorous birds for food and of all birds for millinery purposes; the stopping of the sale of wild game; the stopping of spring and late winter shooting, and the prevention of the use of automatic guns in hunting.

7. The protection of all useful plants and animals from extermination.

We ask all teachers of America to join this society and help in the definite constructive work of conservation thru education.

STUDYING FUNGI AS A PASTIME

(Illustrated)

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It is a recognized principle that man must have two occupations—one for a living and one for enjoyment—and the enjoyment must not be entirely physical; the mind needs a change as well as the body. Walk in the woods, but have an object. And what could be more fascinating than to study the frail, mysterious, highly colored, ephemeral forms found among the fungi! The popular and widespread interest in mushrooms of all kinds is almost phenomenal, and this is due, not only to the use of certain kinds for food, but also to the beauty of their form and color and the supposed mystery surrounding their origin and growth.

Ever since "Lactaria deliciosa" was painted on the wall of a house in Pompeii, men and women have enjoyed hunting mushrooms and have gradually had their eyes opened to the wonderful variety, beauty, and adaptation shown in this humble part of Nature's domain. The use of mushrooms for food in this country is as yet very limited, being confined chiefly to our foreign-born population; and even in New York City many excellent kinds go to waste every season.

All knowledge regarding the edible and poisonous properties of mushrooms is based on experiments, either intentional or unintentional. The only safe rule is to confine oneself to known edible forms until others are proved harmless. If the person is a beginner, he is like an explorer in a new country with an abundance of attractive fruit near at hand, which may be good or may be rank poison; he cannot determine unless he tries it, or unless some native, who has learned from his own and others' experience, shares his knowledge with him.

The writer on this subject undertakes a very responsible task, owing to the vast number of similar forms among the mushrooms which are distinguished with difficulty by those not accustomed to fine distinctions; but it should be possible with the aid of colored figures to describe a few striking kinds in such a way that no serious mistakes will be made. If one knows the kinds that are perfectly harmless and as many as possible of the harmful kinds, he should be reasonably safe in collecting fungi for food.

As the use of mushrooms in this country for food becomes more general, the practical importance of this subject will be vastly increased, and it may be possible to discover perfect antidotes or methods of treatment which will largely overcome the effects of deadly species. This would be a great boon even at the present time, and there will always be children and ignorant persons to rescue from the results of their mistakes. Another very interesting field, both theoretical and practical in its scope, is the use of these poisons in minute quantities as medicines, as has been done with so many of the substances extracted from poisonous species of flowering plants, and even from rattlesnakes and other animals. Thus far, only one of them, the alkaloid muscarine, has been so used.

Observe, study, describe, photograph or paint, dry, label, preserve the specimens, and consult your collection from year to year and show it to your friends. Hardly any other subject can equal this in fascination, both for yourself and for your neighbors. Mushroom delights are not limited to summer, but when the winter comes, the fungi are still with us, tho in wholly different, tougher forms able to withstand the roughest weather. In the autumn and winter the bracket fungi flourish and may be found in abundance on trunks of trees and on dead wood of all kinds. These are mostly polypores with the fruiting surface composed of tubes, and are very destructive to trees and timber. Some of them, however, are edible when young, one is medicinal, and several supply tinder. The Romans obtained tinder from fomes and lighted it by rubbing two sticks together. Later, flint and steel were used to make the spark. Before matches were invented, the tinder box was in every home. Punk is still used by small boys on the Fourth of July.

Polypores are very easily collected and preserved and they largely retain their character when dried—which makes them excellent objects for class study during the winter months. Many of them, also, remain

in place during the winter in perfect condition for collecting. As a group, they lend themselves remarkably well to studies in gross and minute anatomy, variation, adaptation, and injurious effects on trees and structural timbers.

DISCUSSION

M. C. LEONARD, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N.J.—Like the textbook of today, the elementary-science text of tomorrow will be broad in scope and will seek to articulate school work with contemporary life, but it will possess several additional virtues.

Educators may produce a better book by following a more rational plan in producing it. I submit that the logical mode of procedure in constructing a textbook of the first order would be (1) to have experts draw up plans and specifications, somewhat as for a school building; (2) to have the plans past upon by a second body of experts representing a wider constituency; (3) to produce the manuscript; (4) to have the manuscript revised again, if necessary, to make it meet the specifications; (5) acceptance and publication.

A committee of educators, proceeding along these lines for a few years, should bring forth a book far superior to any science text that has ever appeared in this country—one edition adapted to the city and another to the rural high school.

In the brief space allotted to this paper, we can discuss but four specifications for such a book:

1. The ideal text will not be merely a reading-book in science; it should be more than a series of declarative sentences, interspersed with cuts. It must have a rather elaborate structure, and should specifically provide for those intellectual processes, omitting which, information fails to become science. It must recognize the adolescent psychology of Hall and Harris, and contain many type exercises for begetting those mental processes which are appropriate to boys and girls in their early teens. It will contain many classification exercises, logical definitions, and simple reasoning exercises based upon numerous concrete illustrations by which the teacher may lead pupils by induction to simple conclusions. The authors of this text will seek to build brains, as well as to inform the mind.

2. Under the theory that admiration for the noble traits of martyrs is a character-builder, the ideal text will contain more abundant material on the heroes of science, as recommended in the report of our committee.

3. The future text will provide for correlation with English, and will not be written entirely in prose, but will contain many appropriate passages of poetry and references to many more, recognizing that no natural object yields up its highest value to us until we view it in its literary or symbolic aspect. Bryant's "To a Waterfowl" suggests nature's device for protecting the bird of passage from cold while it is making its 5000-mile journey thru the thin, cold atmosphere "from the ice-bound desolate northern bays to the shores of tropical islands."

And as a survey of the sweep of evolutionary processes during geological time, let the book contain two or three stanzas of William H. Carruth's poem entitled "Each in His Own Tongue," the first stanza of which reads:

A fire mist and a planet,—
 A crystal and a cell,—
 A jellyfish and a saurian,
 And caves where the cave-men dwell;
 Then a sense of law and beauty,
 And a face turned from the clod,—
 Some call it Evolution,
 And others call it God.

Let us believe that the introduction of short passages of real poetry at appropriate points, and the treatment of such passages as wholes, will cultivate a taste for good literature as surely as the microscopic dissection and linguistic manicuring so common in high-school classes in English.

4. The ideal text will emphasize some of the more obvious evidences that the world we live in is not a chance world, but a thought-out world, and thus will prepare the mind of the learner for that most hopeful, most rational theory of the universe—theistic evolution—the theory so clearly set forth in the writings of John Fiske. It is a shame that teachers should plant seeds of atheism and agnosticism in the plastic minds of youths by remaining silent on great philosophical questions. The textbook should oblige the teacher to reveal his deeper thought about the scheme of the universe, and to lead boys and girls to see that the law of “conservation of energy” is an argument for immortality.

METHOD IN SCIENCE-TEACHING

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“Method” means a way to a result, a means to an end, a path to a goal. Method therefore varies with the end to be reached. Without a clear notion of the end, we cannot proceed intelligently upon the journey toward it. When we try to state the end of science-teaching, we are, however, likely to find ourselves involved in such vague generalities that all might use the same words and yet differ radically about the actual method of procedure. It is therefore only to make clear my own point of approach and not to foreclose discussion that I say that the end of science-teaching is to make us aware what constitutes the most effective use of mind, of intelligence; to give us a working sense of the real nature of knowledge, of sound knowledge as distinct from mere guesswork, opinion, dogmatic belief, or whatever. Obviously science is not only knowledge, but it is knowledge at its best, knowledge in its tested and surest form. Educationally, then, what differentiates its value from that of other knowledge is precisely this superior quality. Unless it is so taught that students acquire a realizing sense of what gives it its superiority, something is lost. If we ask how this superior type of knowledge came into existence, we find that men have been working their minds more or less effectively for many thousand years, and that for a very long time it was less, rather than more, effectively. But the most efficient ways of using or working intelligence have gradually been selected and cultivated. And science as a personal power and resource is an equipment of those found most successful, most effective. A man may have a great deal of cultivation, a great deal of information, correct information at that, about things, but if he has never made a first-hand acquaintance at some point with scientific ways of dealing with a subject-matter, he has no sure way of telling the difference between all-wool knowledge and shoddy goods. He has no sure way of knowing how, or when, he is using his mental powers most capably

and fruitfully. The ability to detect the genuine in our beliefs and ideas, the ability to control one's mind to its own best working is a very precious thing. Hence the rightful place of science in education is a fundamental one, and it is correspondingly important to see to it that methods of teaching are such as to fulfil its true purpose.

When we pass from this generality, it seems to me that the first need is to discriminate certain stages in the educational development of science. The first stage belongs, of necessity, to the elementary school; for I do not think that any amount of pains and ability in the high school can make up for a wrong start, or even a failure to get the right start, in the grades. This is contrary in appearance to a common assertion of secondary teachers, that they prefer that their pupils come to them without any science instruction at all—which is paralleled by a similar statement on the part of college teachers. I think the inconsistency is only in appearance. The remark is really proof of the necessity of a right start. I do not believe that the problem of successful science will be met until teachers in college and high school exchange experience with those in the elementary school, and all take a mutual interest in one another's work.

At this stage the purpose should be to give a first-hand acquaintance with a fair area of natural facts of such a kind as to arouse interest in the discovery of causes, dynamic processes, operating forces. I would emphasize the phrase "of such a kind." I think the chief defect, upon the whole, in our present elementary nature-study is that, while it may arouse a certain interest in observation and accumulate a certain store of information, it is too static, and hence too miscellaneous. By "static" I mean that observation is not directed to some active process. No amount of information of this sort can supply even a background for science. Space, however, forbids my dwelling upon this point, and its underlying point can perhaps be brought out by reference to something which lies within the high-school program, namely, so-called "general science." Like the nature-study movement, the tendency to general science courses is animated by a praiseworthy desire to get away from the specialized technicalities of a highly matured science. I will not say that these reduce themselves, for the average beginning student, to mere acquisition of a vocabulary, tho there is danger of this. But, except with the few, this science of the accomplished specialist remains, even when fairly well understood, just an isolated thing, a thing of a world superadded to the everyday world, when it ought to be an enlightening and an intellectual control of the everyday world.

As an attempt to get back nearer to the world in which the pupil lives, and away from a world which exists only for the scientist, the general-science tendency has, as I have just said, its justification. But I have an impression that in practice it may mean two quite different things. It may take its departure from sciences which are already differentiated, and

simply pick out pieces from them, some from physics, some from chemistry, some from physiography, some from botany, etc., and out of this varied selection form something to serve as an introduction to sciences in a more specialized form. Now this method I believe to be of the static type after all. It gives scope for variety and adaptation, and will work with the right teacher. But, urged as a general movement, I believe it retains the essential mistake of any method which begins with scientific knowledge in its already-made form, while in addition it lends itself very easily to scrappy and superficial work, and even to a distaste for the continued and serious thinking necessary to a real mastery of science.

General science may, however, have another meaning. It may mean that a person who is himself an expert in scientific knowledge forgets for the time being the conventional divisions of the sciences and puts himself at the standpoint of pupils' experience of natural forces, together with their ordinary useful applications. He does not, however, forget the scientific possibilities of these experiences, nor does he forget that there is an order of relative importance in scientific principles—that is to say, that some are more fundamental, some necessary in order to understand others, and thus more fruitful and ramifying.

While, then, he may take his subject-matter from any of the ordinary and more familiar materials of daily life, he does not allow that material, in its obvious and superficial form, to dictate to him the nature of the subsequent study. It may be varnish, or cleansers, or bleachers, or a gasoline engine. But he never for a moment allows in his educational planning that thing to become the end of study; when he does, we have simply the wrong kind of elementary nature-study over again. To him, as a teacher, the material is simply a means, a tool, a road. It is a way of getting at some process of nature's activity which is widely exemplified in other phenomena, and which, when grasped, will render them more significant and more intelligible. While the student's attention may remain, so far as his conscious interest is concerned, upon the phenomena directly in front of him, it is the teacher's duty to see that he gets below the surface to the perception of whatever is scientifically in the experience. This need not be labeled a principle or law—in fact, if it is so labeled at first, the name "principle" or "law" will be merely a label. But if further material is selected so that what the pupil got hold of before serves as a means of intellectual approach and understanding, it becomes a principle or law for him: a law of his own thinking and inquiries, a standpoint from which he surveys facts and attempts to reduce them to order.

This same method of procedure means, of course, that choice is made in fixing the kind of familiar material with which one sets out. The interests and occupations of the environment will play a part. A farming environment would tend to provide one point of departure, a district in which electric apparatus were made, another, a railway center a third,

and so on. But in each case there will always be room for choice between material which tends to begin and end in itself, and that from which something may be easily extracted which will give pupils a momentum to other things.

My point may perhaps be stated by saying that the right course lies between two erroneous courses. One method is the scrappy one of picking up isolated materials just because they happen to be familiar objects within the pupil's experience, and of merely extending and deepening the range of the pupil's familiarity, and then passing on to something else. No amount of this process will make an introduction to science, to say nothing of science, for an introduction leads or draws into a subject, while the scrappy method never, save by accident, gets the pupil within range of the problems and explanatory methods of science. The other erroneous course is taken when the teacher's imagination is so limited that he cannot conceive of science existing except in the definitely segregated areas, concepts, and terms which are found in books under the heads of "physics," "chemistry," etc., and who is thus restricted to moving within these boundaries. Such a person forgets that there is no material in existence which is physical or chemical or botanical, but that a certain ordinary subject-matter becomes physical or chemical or botanical when certain questions are raised, and when it is subjected to certain modes of inquiry. What is desired of the pupil is that, starting from the ordinary unclast material of experience, he shall acquire command of the points of view, the ideas and methods, which make it physical or chemical or whatever.

I return to what I said at first about the dynamic point of view as the really scientific one, or the understanding of process as the heart of the scientific attitude. What are called "physics" and "chemistry" deal in effect with the lawful energies which bring about changes. To master their method means to be able to see any observed fact, no matter how seemingly fixt and stubborn, as a change, as a part of larger process or ongoing. In this sense they are central (along with mathematics which only deals with the fixt, the formal and structural side of the fact) in all scientific understanding. There is a sound instinct in the tendency to insist upon them as the heart of the secondary course in science and to look with jealousy upon whatever narrows their sphere of influence. But it does not follow that the material which is found in the texts which segregate certain considerations under the heads of physics or chemistry is the material to begin with. That is the fallacy against which I have been arguing. Plant and animal life, the operations of machines, and the familiar appliances and processes of industrial life are much more likely to furnish the actual starting material. What the principle calls for is that the pupil shall be led in his study of plant and animal life, of the machine and its operations, to the basic operations which enable him to understand what is before him—to be led inevitably to physical and chemical principles.

Nothing is more unfortunate for education than the usual separation between the sciences of life and the physical sciences. Living phenomena are natural and interesting material from which to set out, especially in all rural environments. But they are educationally significant in the degree in which they are used to procure an insight into just those principles which are not plants and animals, but which, when they are formulated by themselves, constitute physics and chemistry. It is the failure to carry nature-study on to this insight which is responsible for its pedagogically unsatisfactory character, and the movement toward general science will repeat the failure unless it keep the goal of physical and chemical principle steadily in view.

An extension of the method I have spoken of should, in my judgment, constitute the bulk of the secondary course in science, which ideally should be continuous thruout the four years—or the six. We must remember that, altho in school we are always treating pupils as embryonic scientists who somehow are interrupted and cut off before they get very far, the great mass of the pupils will never be scientific specialists. The value of science for them resides in the added meaning it gives to the usual occurrences of their everyday surroundings and occupations. None the less, we want a high school which will tend to attract those who have a distinct calling for specialized inquiry, and one which prepares them to enter upon it. I can only express my belief that there are many more such in the pupil population than we succeed at present in selecting and carrying on; and that I believe this is largely because we follow to so great an extent the method of feeding them all from the start as if they were full-fledged minute specialists. As a result, large numbers who might otherwise be drawn later into the paths of scientific inquiry now become shunted off into the more concrete and appealing paths of engineering, industrial invention, and application, simply because they have been repelled by a premature diet of abstract scientific propositions, lacking in meaning to them because abstracted from familiar facts of experience.

I believe there are scores, if not hundreds, of boys, for example, who now go from courses of abstract physics into automobile factories and the like, who, if they had begun with the automobile under a teacher who realized its scientific possibilities, might have gone on into abstract physics.

I can sum up by saying that it seems to me that our present methods too largely put the cart before the horse; and that when we become aware of this mistake we are all too likely to cut the horse entirely loose from the cart and let him browse around at random in the pastures without going anywhere. What we need is to hitch the horse of concrete experience with daily occupation and surroundings, to a cart loaded with specialized scientific knowledge. It is not the duty of high-school science to pack the cart full—that will come later. It is its part to make such a good job of

the hitching that every pupil who comes under its influence will always find in himself a tendency to turn his crude experiences over into a more scientific form, and to translate the bare science he reads and hears, back into the terms of his daily life. When we do this we shall find, I am confident, the crop of scientific specialists increast, not diminisht, while we shall have a citizenship of men and women really intelligent in judging the affairs of life.

TRAINING OF SCIENCE TEACHERS

I. C. H. ROBISON, NORMAL SCHOOL, UPPER MONTCLAIR, N.J.

"Taking a year off" is serious business for an indifferently paid public-school teacher. The year is nearly always one of suspended earning power. The student is nearly always a candidate for the Master's degree and usually gets it. Too many, however, are not given what they most wish or need. Too many have set so strongly before them the idea that the degree is the great goal, that their sense of relative values is dulled. Some, valuing the degree for home consumption, seem to see baked clay under the outside glitter.

As a working basis let me maintain (1) that from one-half to two-thirds of a well-balanst year of graduate study should be along the line of primary teaching interest; (2) that so-called research work should consume not over one-fourth the time, and might better be incidental to an advanst course; (3) that at least a fourth of the time be devoted to pedagogy, preferably of science-teaching.

A grounding in general educational theory is a real problem with the teacher whose college days antedated well-organized departments of education, much more so than with present undergraduates. A real need exists for a single synoptical course in which the one-year graduate student deficient in pedagogy, can touch the high spots in history and principles of education, in educational psychology, and methods of classroom-management. No less real is the need for genuine courses in special methods of teaching the sciences, conducted by persons acquainted with the general field of education as well as of science, and with experience in high-school teaching. Trying to keep up with demands, college science instructors are too often offering courses in methods without knowing present tendencies in educational theory, else we should hear fewer and less extravagant claims for supposed disciplinary values; without knowledge of the high-school pupil, else we should see entirely different sorts of textbooks written by college men.

As little question will be raised about the science courses, which should broaden the horizon and deepen the scholarship. Many of the newly developpt courses in industrial science should serve these ends better than most courses designed for the college professor of tomorrow and little

related to the affairs of actual life. But unfortunately the former kind is relatively unavailable. A resulting fault in high-school teaching is the often-deplored perpetuation of the miniatures of college courses, similar to them in approach and method, but attenuated in content and interest. To gain breadth would not a teacher, fifteen years from her undergraduate days, gain more from repeating a course in general chemistry or biology with a view to learning of their recent magnificent progress? Yet how difficult it is to convince the average college registrar of this fact. For we must keep in mind the type of teacher who has so many classes or subjects to teach that she cannot find time to read even a small part of the endless output of monographs. Such a general course, to be really helpful, should be for graduate students and not largely taken by lower classmen.

The requirements for this degree tend to differ in the institutions of the East as opposed to the larger ones of the West and Middle West. The eastern trend has long been toward attainments in general and broadening courses rather than in highly specialized problems, and toward reserving research work for the doctorate. Many western and near-western institutions apparently lacking candidates for the Doctor's degree, have inflicted this work on the only class of advanced students they had. This was brought out twenty years ago by an investigating committee of the Federation of Graduate Clubs. Signs of a survival of this presumable viewpoint still persist too frequently; and its appearance in certain prominent eastern universities has followed the importation into their science departments of western men. Too many one-year graduate students fall victims of a mania of science staffs for sending forth from their laboratories an impressive multitude of "preliminary notes" or "reports" on matters of negligible scientific importance except as by-products of some large problem.

The value of research per se is not called into question. The value of such research as a one-year graduate student can, or should do, both to science and to the student, both absolutely and relatively, has been greatly overestimated. That is why so many teachers entering a school system must serve a year or two of apprenticeship before they are good for much. It often takes longer for a teacher to cast her useless mental luggage overboard. Organizations of public-school science teachers should compile a blacklist, and boycott college professors and departments of science that waste, in the manner indicated, the few precious months at the disposal of their students.

II. THOMAS M. BALLIET, DEAN, SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The teaching of science has past thru three stages within the memory of teachers still in the service. The first stage was characterized by textbook teaching, supplemented occasionally with illustrative experiments

made by the teacher. The second stage was characterized by individual laboratory work, following the laboratory manual as a guide. The student made his own experiments under the teacher's guidance, observed the result, formulated his own generalizations, and copied them in his notebook. No applications, except a few traditional ones, were made.

The third stage improved upon this second stage by leading the pupil, after formulating his generalization, to apply it to the facts and phenomena of nature. This is where the science-teaching of most schools is today.

But we must advance to a fourth stage, and some of our best schools are taking this step. We must not only apply scientific generalizations after they have been made as a means of making their significance clearer, but make the explanation of the facts and phenomena of nature—the interpretation of nature—the very goal of science-teaching. We must find our problems in nature out of doors, bring them into the schoolroom to be solved, and use the laboratory experiment only as a means of determining their meaning. The problem found in nature must determine the experiment, and the experiment, the apparatus. I have known the reverse process to be followed, beginning with the apparatus, and we have all known courses in physics and in chemistry prescribed for high schools by the colleges in terms of so many specific experiments.

Science-teaching must begin out of doors by finding its problems there, and end out of doors by making the generalization of the laboratory explain as many phenomena as possible. The educational value of science—the training in thinking which it gives—lies in the explanation of nature, not in the mere making of experiments that are prescribed by the teacher or by the laboratory manual; and the drawing of inferences from them, also guided more or less by the teacher, requires but a minimum of mental effort. It is the discovery of problems out of doors, the invention of ingenious experiments to solve them, and the application of the resultant generalizations in the explanation of similar phenomena, that train in scientific method and in scientific thinking. There is more educational value in formulating one generalization and making a hundred applications of it than in making a hundred generalizations and simply copying them into a notebook.

It is seldom that a phenomenon in nature can be explained by a single science. Nature is complex. Hence the necessity of what has come to be called "general science" as the first course in high-school science.

But this fact has a very important bearing on the training of science teachers for secondary schools, and, I should say, for the first two years of college, which are a part of secondary education. I refer, not to the undergraduate-training in college, which is under any circumstances inadequate, but to the training in the graduate school of the university. The degree of Ph.D. is professedly awarded only to students who have made an important research. This requires narrow specialization to a degree that is often fatal

to later success in secondary schools. Such training, if really thoro, fits a man to teach in a university, where a high degree of specialization is absolutely essential; but it fails to give him that broad knowledge of the whole field of the natural sciences which enables him to draw illustrations from them all in teaching any one of them, which is so vitalizing in the teaching of immature minds.

High-school instruction is, after all, extremely elementary, viewed from the standpoint of real scholarship. The perennial interest in secondary education lies in the teaching of children, not in the teaching of subjects. Any teacher at all gifted can easily master in college and in the graduate school all the natural sciences sufficiently to enable him to teach any or all of them effectively in a high school. This indicates what the character of his training should be. It is not the highly specialized work in one phase of a single science which is required for the Ph.D. degree that is wanted, but a broad general training, which shall, however, in all cases include training in scientific method.

As students properly desire a degree which places upon them the imprimatur of the university, it has long been a conviction of mine that the A.M. degree, which is now almost a meaningless half-way flag station on the road to Ph.D., should be rescued and given a new dignity equal to that of Ph.D.

It should stand for this broad training here suggested, should require as long a course as that for the Ph.D. degree, and should be distinctly the teacher's degree. I suspect that most professors in the universities would look askance at such a suggestion, as very few of them have any comprehension of the problems of secondary schools. It remains, therefore, for a body like this to enlighten the universities, and press upon them a well-devised plan by which the preparation of secondary-school teachers can be more effectively provided for in our graduate schools.

THE IMPORTANCE OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION

EDWARD W. STITT, DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

In the *Schools of Tomorrow*, the recent inspiring book by the Deweys, occurs this sentence: "The school, like other human institutions, acquires inertia and tends to go on doing things that have once got started, irrespective of present demands." In my judgment, this tendency to tradition is still shown in the desire on the part of so many educators to make instruction a pouring-in process, in which the teacher becomes a sort of personal phonograph. She talks, talks, talks, so that she really makes a conversational "record"; the child is first to listen, and his instruction becomes entirely too ear-minded.

The Department of Science Instruction of the National Education Association has therefore wisely created the Committee on Visual Instruction, and this gathering today is to emphasize the fact that in the future the province of the teacher shall include the realm of the eye as well as that of the ear. Later, the committee intends to prepare a report which shall emphasize those features in all phases of school work, from the kindergarten to the conclusion of the high school, in which the various ways which appeal to visualization shall accomplish more effective results than by former methods.

The following are suggested as useful ways to enlarge the plan and scope of the work: (1) lantern slides for instruction purposes; (2) educational motion pictures; (3) stereographs for work in science, history, and geography; (4) display of maps, charts, and models in classroom; (5) greater use of the blackboard by both pupils and teachers; (6) illustrations in reading-books and textbooks generally; (7) souvenir post-cards and pictures from magazines and newspapers; (8) school exhibits displayed in accordance with approved methods; (9) educational museum in some central building, and distribution of visual aids by municipal or state bureaus; (10) clay-modeling, molding in sand trays, etc.; (11) homemade apparatus in elementary science work; (12) visits to museums, art galleries, libraries, etc.

Two hundred and sixty years ago Comenius—one of the greatest of educational reformers—emphasized the value of pictures to illustrate the idea symbolized by the word, and set the first real standard for visual instruction. A century later Pestalozzi advanced beyond the picture stage by insisting that teachers must either bring things into the school for study, or else take the children out of the school to see them. Thus further emphasis was placed upon the visual side of school work.

The advance of science has brought to the aid of the teacher modern methods of visualization of which the teachers of the past never dreamed. The wonders of the stereoscopic pictures, by which objects stand out in three dimensions and seem to be solids as in nature, show a wonderful advance over the ordinary pictures of textbooks. The marvels of motion pictures, bringing into the schoolroom actual reproductions of scenes from real life, mark a still further advance. The next step in progressive pedagogic development, however, will be a release from the passive reception of the wonders of film reproductions, by enlisting the active energies of the pupils so as to awaken their self-activity.

THE MUSEUM AS THE NEW FORCE IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

HENRY FAIRFIELD OSBORN, PRESIDENT, AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY NEW YORK, N.Y.

There is a new educational force which is especially exerted and manifested in our large cities, where great museums of natural history and art are beginning to use every means possible to extend their treasures to the children of the public schools.

The new definition of the purpose of a museum is: "To bring a vision of the world to those who otherwise can never see it." Children are wonderful observers; as a rule they see things even more quickly than their parents, whose powers of observation have been largely dulled thru disuse. The invaluable childish powers of wonder, surprise, and reverence are all cultivated in a museum. This inspirational movement is, perhaps, the most precious outcome of the extension of the museum to the school, for those who can never travel and to whom a journey even from a distant point in the city to a museum, where are brought together all the wonders and marvels of nature in its various forms, is of itself a great event.

The American Museum of Natural History of New York was one of the pioneers in this movement, under the leadership of the late Albert S. Bickmore, who in 1880 inaugurated a series of lectures for the teachers of New York City, which during the next decade was so extended as to embrace the teachers thruout the state. It was not until 1904, however, that the first lectures to the public-school children themselves, designed to illustrate and supplement their work in the schools, were given at the museum, and still later, in 1914, that the Museum arranged to give series of lectures at the schools, especially in the crowded districts of the city where the transportation of children to and from the Museum was difficult.

In 1902, when nature-study was first introduced into the city schools, a system of sending out to the public schools small nature-study collections was instituted which reacht annually no less than 1,200,000 pupils. In 1906 the plan was adopted for providing instructors for public-school classes visiting the Museum, in order that the teachers and pupils might utilize their time to the best advantage. In 1915 the Museum began the system of loaning to the public schools its lantern slides, derived from explorations in all parts of the world.

Another advance in the Museum's educational work was the provision in 1909 for instruction to the blind. Classes for blind children from the public schools are held regularly at the Museum, at which opportunities are afforded for actual contact with the specimens; and this work has since been extended, thru special endowment, until now courses of evening lectures are given for the adult blind. The system of placing in the public libraries special exhibits on various subjects of travel and exploration

was inaugurated in 1907, with the result that there is a very great demand for books on these topics. This system was extended in 1915 to the regular circulation of the Museum exhibits among the branch libraries of the city. A similar movement was begun in 1887 by the Milwaukee Public Museum.

Step by step measures of extension similar to those taken by the American Museum have been adopted by other institutions, and the movement has gradually extended over the entire United States; for example, in the Commercial Museums of Philadelphia, the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, the Charleston Museum, Charleston, S.C., the Museum of Fine Arts of Boston, our own Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Art Museum of Worcester, Mass., and that of Toledo, Ohio.

The American Museum is now visited daily by hundreds and sometimes by thousands of children; and the arrangement of all the collections in the more abstruse as well as in the simpler fields of natural history is designed to be self-explanatory and educational. The great principles of natural science, the elucidation of which represents one hundred and fifty years of exploration and research, which were first set forth by the great French naturalist Buffon thru his popular expositions of scientific truths in Paris in the year 1739, are made clear not only in the text of the labels accompanying the specimens but in the arrangement of the objects themselves. This arrangement calls for the highest and rarest gifts of the museum exhibitor; for the truth as well as the beauty and harmony of the laws of nature must be evident. In fact, the reason the Museum has become the great new force which it is in public education is that the old conception of a museum as a storehouse of curiosities has been entirely abandoned and replaced by the newer and truer conception of illustrating the underlying principles of the laws of nature.

The practical aspects of this new museum movement in art and science are no less important. In art, all the beauty which has been created by the mind of man is brought together in orderly form as an inspiration to esthetic development and individual achievement. In nature, the book work of the classroom and the experimentation of the laboratory are supplemented and filled out by the intensive study of exhibits of the best that has been found thru the centuries. As an example, the studies in botany in several of the high schools of New York are followed by direct observations in the Hall of Forestry, originally arranged under the direction of Professor Charles S. Sargent, author of *Silva Americana*. The school studies in biology and zoölogy are rendered real by visits to the wonderful Darwin Hall, with its vistas of life on the land and in the sea, originally planned by two of the most talented zoölogists of this country.

THE VALUE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE SCHOOL MUSEUM

C. G. RATHMANN, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Nearly 300 years ago Comenius wrote: "As far as possible men are to be taught to become wise, not by books, but by the heavens, the earth, oaks and beeches; that is, they must learn to know and examine things themselves, and not merely by the testimony and observations of others about the things." This doctrine, forgotten for centuries, is being recognized again and is rapidly finding its way into the schools of our country.

We are moving away from the idea that all teaching must be done in the schoolroom. The school excursion is becoming an important factor in our school life. Teachers take their pupils to field and forest, to river bank and quarry, to shops and public institutions, to the zoölogical garden, the museum, and the art gallery to observe the work of nature and man. We are being freed from the idea that the textbook is the only means of teaching, the only source of information. We are beginning to supplement the textbook by the photograph, the lantern slide, the stereoscope, and the motion picture. Lately we have begun to add to the pictorial representations of things, the things themselves, mounted specimens from the animal world, plants, minerals, products of the soil and the industries from all parts of the world.

We are beginning to realize that to make the child acquainted with the world in which he lives we must bring him into personal contact with the world. We must, as O'Shea says in his *Education as Adjustment*, "take him into the world or bring the world to him."

1. We can do this thru the school museum with a stock of well-selected and carefully arranged material.

In home geography, for example, we must give the child adequate concepts of facts, conditions, and processes in his physical and human environment and experiences, leading to a better understanding of them thru his observation and study of concrete material. We must do this either by taking him to the material or by bringing the material to him. As far as possible we should do the former.

Opportunities to study the physical conditions are offered in park, field, and forest. In them we find roadbeds, slopes, hills, brooks, and ponds, the careful study of which will enable the children to picture to themselves the earth's principal land and water features. For the study of human environment, man and his wants, his industrial and commercial pursuits, opportunities are found in abundance in the immediate neighborhood of every schoolhouse in the cities. Shops, houses in the course of construction, foundries and quarries, etc., should be visited, and the actual work and conditions observed and studied, not in the vague, inaccurate way in which the children may have looked at them before, but with a conscious and definite aim.

On the other hand, many things with which the children must become acquainted in home geography must be brought into the schoolroom, for instance, the materials for fuel, for food, for clothing. Some of them may be supplied by the children and, whenever possible, should be furnished by them.

Mathematical geography and physical geography in the higher grades are considered by nearly all teachers the most difficult parts in the whole domain of geography to present to the children intelligently and intelligibly. We cannot make the children thoroly understand the rotation of the earth, points of the compass, change of seasons, cloud-formation, the cause and direction of the wind thru text and verbal description; the children must see these processes by means of simple apparatus, and make the experiments with such apparatus under the guidance of the teacher. The St. Louis School Museum has twenty-five different sets of such apparatus which are sent to the schools with the necessary information and directions.

Of seacoast, erosion, volcanic action, geysers, divides, canyons, falls and cataracts, glaciers, plains and deserts, no text or verbal description can give concepts sufficiently clear and strong. This should be done by the lantern slide or the stereograph; and these pictorial illustrations should be furnished in well-selected sets by the school museum.

How can the museum help in imparting to the child more interest in and more adequate knowledge of foreign countries? After considering on the relief map the location, the physical conditions, climate, and rainfall, etc.; after determining what parts of the country will lend themselves to agriculture, herding, mining, lumbering, manufacturing, and the various other occupations of man, the children should be transported, figuratively, into the country by means of the photograph, slide, and stereograph.

In local geography—the geography of the city and state in which the children live—they should be made acquainted with the leading industries of their city and state.

Nature-study should be taught as far as possible outdoors, in park, field, and forest; but when taught in the schoolroom, living specimens should be used for illustration whenever they can be secured. The surroundings of every city afford ample means of illustrating plant and insect life and the mineral world.

The children know, as a rule, but few of the birds they see around them every day. Thru the judicious study of the mounted specimens supplied by the museum in the schoolroom we can awaken their interest and encourage them to find the living birds in their proper surroundings, to observe their life, their song, how they procure their food, how they build their nests, how they protect themselves, and give the results of their observations to teacher and classmates.

Elementary physics should have a place on the program in the higher grades of the grammar schools. Without the proper apparatus, however,

such teaching is valueless, a waste of time. The school museum should furnish the apparatus. The museum in St. Louis sends to the schools the necessary material, such as iron, copper, and platinum wire, glass tubes, alcohol lamps and Bunsen burners, microscopes, sonometers, organ pipes, magnets, dry batteries, force and lifting pumps, air pumps, small steam-engines, etc.

There should be much visual instruction in history. Thru photograph, stereoscope, lantern, and motion picture, the children should be transported into the situations to be studied and should be given clear and convincing pictures of important historical events.

The school museum may be of great help in the teaching of music. In St. Louis many of the schools have graphophones, by means of which the pupils become acquainted with the best in music, and are made to love and appreciate good music. The museum furnishes the records for the instruments.

2. What should a school museum contain, and how should the material be used in the schoolroom? There should be nothing in a school museum which cannot be used in direct connection with the work in the schools. It should contain no mere curiosities, no abnormalities nor freaks of nature. It should not be a "cemetery of bric-a-brac, but a nursery of living thought." The school museum must have a stock of material quantitatively and qualitatively sufficient to illustrate important types of the work in the different subjects of the curriculum. This is necessary to give the children vivid and concrete images, to teach them to observe and to discriminate, to understand the objects, phenomena, processes, and conditions of their environment, and to gather educative experiences.

Let me present a few concrete examples. Teacher and pupils have before them the rice-exhibit from the museum to be used in a nature-study lesson or to make the children acquainted with one of the chief products of the southern states or of other countries. The collections contain the rice in the plant, the rice unhulled, hulled, and bleached, rice flour, rice starch, rice paper, a number of stereoscopic views and lantern slides, and a large colored chart showing the rice plant and its parts.

The pictures take the children into the rice fields of South Carolina, Nicaragua, Mexico, Japan, the Philippines, Siam, and Madagascar. The children are led to discover and develop thru their own observation the following facts and processes: The soil in which the rice is grown is low and marshy. In some of the countries the rivers overflow their banks and cover the fields for miles. People actually sow the grains in the water, and when the floods go down the seed sinks into the soft mud at the bottom and springs up there.

By means of the objects and pictures the children are also made to see how the rice is harvested, hulled, whitened, packed and sent to all parts of the world; how rice flour, rice starch, and rice paper are made. The

stereographs and (in the review lesson) the lantern slides make the children acquainted with the people who are engaged in growing rice, with their manner of life, their homes, and their state of civilization.

The material in the Educational Museum in St. Louis consists of:

Food products.—Cereals in the plant and the grain and their products; coffee, tea, sugar, cacao, in the various stages of production; spices, etc.

Materials for clothing.—The various animal and vegetable fibers of the world and the fabrics made of them.

Tree products.—Domestic and foreign woods; rubber, gutta percha, camphor, cork, etc., in all processes of preparation; materials for dyeing and tanning, etc.

Industrial products.—Showing the various stages in the manufacture of glass, paper, leather, ink, the pen, the pencil, the needle, paper made of rags and pulp, the screw, the pocketknife, the broom, the electric lamp, the shoe, terra cotta, etc., besides such products as are made from the materials mentioned in the former groups.

3. How should the material be made accessible to the schools? A school museum must be a traveling museum with a well-planned system of delivery. The teacher must get what she needs to illustrate a lesson when she needs it. She must not be compelled to postpone a lesson because the material is not at hand when the program calls for the lesson. The program must not adapt itself to the museum, but the museum to the program. Naturally, in many cases, different schools will want the same material at the same time, and therefore there must be a sufficient number of duplicate collections. In order to supply the teachers of a large school system with just what they need at the time they want it, a well-working system of delivery must be established.

We have found the plan which has been followed in St. Louis for a number of years efficient and satisfactory to the schools. Each teacher has a catalog on her desk from which she orders what she needs to illustrate her work. The material is sent to the schools by a large automobile truck exclusively in the service of the museum. The schools of the city are divided into five groups, each of which has a delivery day once a week, the same day every week.

4. How can a school museum be established? Now, if it is valuable, what is the best way of securing a school museum? It is not as difficult as you may imagine. In cities in which there is a public museum, opportunities for the systematic use of its material in the schools should be given, and are given in many cases. The museums of our country have in late years extended the scope of their work of disseminating knowledge to a field where it is of inestimable value. They have opened their great storehouses of information to the public schools, and they ask the teachers to make use of the wonderful things from all parts of the world.

The museum whose guests we are today (the Museum of Natural History of New York) has for years cooperated with the schools of this city by sending them collections of carefully selected illustrative material. The Field Museum of Chicago thru its Harris Public School Extension, the Commercial Museum of Philadelphia, the public museums of Milwaukee, Charleston, S.C., Buffalo, and other cities, are doing the same valuable work. But even in places where there is no public museum the establishment of a school museum is not so difficult a matter as is generally supposed. St. Louis has no public museum. The United States Departments of Agriculture and Forestry supplied us with plants, fibers, woods and tree products, and descriptive literature; and the National Museum in Washington, with minerals and fossils. Owners of mines and quarries all over the country sent us minerals, rocks, and ores. Commercial firms in the United States and abroad presented to the museum natural and industrial products, such as cotton, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, coffee, tea, cacao, the various spices, rubber, cork, glass, aluminum, carborundum, etc., and exhibits showing the various stages in their development. We gathered pictorial illustrations from magazines and from railroad and steamship advertisements, and arranged and classified them. Teachers and pupils, patrons and friends of the schools helped enthusiastically in adding to the material.

The Board of Education of St. Louis appropriated for the public-school museum this year, the eleventh year of its existence, the sum of \$13,500, that is, 14 cents a pupil. The institution has now 2000 individual collections of illustrative material and 15,000 duplicate collections, each collection consisting of from 4 to 10 objects. The pictorial illustrations consist of 7000 lantern slides, 10,000 stereographs, 2000 photographs, 1000 large colored charts, and a large supply of descriptive literature in booklets and pamphlets. Motion-picture apparatus was placed in six schools last year. The museum is now making arrangements to furnish the films for them.

Visual instruction, as made possible by a good school museum, is becoming an important factor in our school work. I hope that the time is not far away when every school system of our country will have a well-stocked and well-arranged school museum.

COLLECTION, ORGANIZATION, AND CIRCULATION OF VISUAL AIDS TO INSTRUCTION BY STATE BUREAUS

A. W. ABRAMS, CHIEF, VISUAL INSTRUCTION DIVISION, STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, N.Y.

A state bureau of visual instruction in the preparation of a loan collection may properly have in mind the two general purposes of pictures, namely, entertainment and serious instruction. The latter purpose,

however, should unquestionably have first consideration. Other agencies can be counted upon to provide entertainment rather abundantly.

It does not fall within the scope of my subject to discuss the pedagogical principles underlying visual instruction, tho I must necessarily imply some of them in considering the selection, organization, and circulation of a state collection.

The acquisition of knowledge thru the eye is not a new method. Visual instruction is essentially a very old process. What we do have new in this line today is the greatly increased means of bringing the world to the learner thru pictorial representations. We are indeed highly favored in this respect. Advantage should surely be taken of the means offered; on the other hand, the laws governing the principles of observation, which is the kernel of visual instruction, have in no way been modified; and any use of pictures that fails to recognize the necessity for voluntary attention and genuine mental reaction must be devoid of true educational results. It would be unfortunate indeed if the general introduction of visual instruction should become an end in itself, and should increase the number of exercises in an already overcrowded educational program. The use of pictures should be treated rather as the substitution of a more direct and effective means of instruction for a too-exclusive dependence upon words, which are merely symbols of ideas.

In preparing a loan collection of pictures, a state bureau may well be expected to maintain a high standard and to consider relative values. First of all, a picture should be authentic; it should stand for something definite and specific. Visual instruction is chiefly an inductive method of study, and the right attitude of approach should be early acquired. "What?" "When?" and "Where?" are essential questions for consideration in an inductive study that is scientific and orderly.

Attractiveness is a desirable quality in a picture, but a picture should rarely be selected merely because of its striking effects. There are abundant opportunities to secure the beautiful in combination with the important. In selecting pictures, the aim should be to secure the best representation of types, characteristic views, and essential steps in processes, to the exclusion of pictures of what are merely incidental, occasional, or unimportant features, and hence tend to confuse and obscure larger values.

The quality of pictures provided by a state bureau should unquestionably be of the highest order. The increased cost of making slides and prints of higher excellence is little more in the long run than that of inferior ones. In the matter of quality, many of the lantern slides that are offered to educational institutions and the general public are on the order of chromos and song slides. They are crudely colored, poorly constructed, and printed with little or no regard for good composition; the entire work is slovenly executed. Half-tones and various crude prints are freely

reproduced; photographs that were poor at the start have been copied and recopied until detail and gradation of light and shade are almost wholly lacking. Unfortunately, we continue to tolerate such pictures in lantern slides and also in books, tho we object to a book if the paper is poor, the type is dirty, or the binding is loose.

The surest way for a state bureau to build up a satisfactory collection of pictures and to be in a position to multiply copies and meet the increasing demands of numerous borrowers is to procure its own negatives and to make its own pictures. These negatives should be made directly from the original objects, should be of superior quality, and should be sufficiently large for contact prints as well as for slides. It is entirely practicable to procure such negatives. In the long run it is cheaper to do so than to depend upon the trade. This procedure goes far toward making the administration of a large collection effective and practicable.

Shall pictures, specifically lantern slides and prints of various kinds, be filed and circulated in fixt sets, or shall they be filed according to a scientific system of classification? It should not be necessary to offer arguments for the use of a scientific basis of classification of a state collection of pictures intended for general use.

If a state bureau aims to do anything better than to provide, for general purpose entertainments that have no special relation to each other and no serious educational ends, it must classify its material on a scientific basis. Under such a classification the popular illustrated lecture is entirely possible for those who want it, but under a grouping of material by fixt sets, a scholarly use of the collection is altogether impossible.

Shall prepared lectures be furnisht with lantern slides? My answer is involved in what I have already said. If a bureau is to furnish lecture sets of slides, it is but logical that it should provide the lectures; but there is really no place in a sound system of visual instruction for "canned" lectures, written by one person to be read or recited by another.

The method of circulation is naturally determined quite largely by the character of the collection and by the primary purposes for which the collection is maintained. In the case of the New York State collection, as time has gone on the character of the material and the purposes of its use have gradually changed.

Any institution that desires to take advantage of the state collection for its own use or for the use of its patrons is furnisht with catalogs of all available material and with official application blanks. The pictures wanted must be separately listed by call number. The burden of selection rests with the borrower. In principle this practice is regarded as sound, tho in the case of small organizations just beginning to use the collection some unusual aid may be given.

When an individual or an organization, not entitled to borrow directly from the bureau, asks for pictures, a handbook of information is sent and

the party is referred to his local library or school. As time goes on each city or village comes to have its local institution thru which full service can be received. The local school or library is not compelled to cooperate with the state bureau. It is, however, supported by the local community and has an obligation, usually recognized, to the public from which support comes. The local school or library is regarded, not as doing the work of the state bureau, but rather as receiving from the state an important aid in carrying out its own efforts to render the community larger service.

A plan that is carried out in some states is to route pictures, usually films or lantern slides, in fixt sets. Such a plan is inconsistent with the fundamental conceptions now underlying the preparation and circulation of the New York State collection. It means that all borrowers receive the same combinations of pictures, tho evidently the purposes and immediate needs of different borrowers should, and actually do, vary; it means that the pictures are received by a particular community at a time determined by the routing order, when generally it would be better to have them at a time chosen by the borrower. Under the routing plan, having pictures for use tends to become an end in itself, while under the arrangement above described, they are selected and used as a means to an educational purpose locally determined. Routing gives a partial service, is less universal in its adaptation, and fails to respond to a scientific and orderly plan of instruction.

Pictures intended for use with school classes or with larger groups of persons are most advantageously studied when projected upon a screen. For this purpose certain apparatus is required. It would seem to fall properly within the functions of a state bureau to determine the relative adaptability of various types of projection apparatus for the purposes it regards as most important to subserve. The bureau should possess the facilities and trained employes to make such a determination of the most suitable types of apparatus and to aid the establishment of proper standards. Too much projection apparatus now in the schools has been procured with the proceeds of candy sales and various entertainments, or earned in voting contests conducted by fairs or newspapers, and has been selected to satisfy the inexperienced judgment of an individual, or has been purchast on the advice of the sales agent.

The apparatus feature of visual instruction will be satisfactory only when projection apparatus is purchast by the board of education the same as other equipment intended for the serious work of the institution. To proceed in any other way is to admit at the outset that visual instruction is without official recognition.

Potentially, pictures are a very important educational agency. They may be made a remarkably interesting, accurate, and effective means of expressing ideas and material facts. Much needs yet to be done to develop

judgment in selecting them and to establish a pedagogical method for their use.

DISCUSSION

CLARENCE M. ABBOTT, assistant secretary, Nation Board of Review of Motion Pictures, New York, N.Y.—It will be well for me, I believe, to speak very briefly concerning the work of the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures. The National Board is composed of a very large number of men and women, many of them chosen from church, civic, and social organizations in New York City, who voluntarily pass upon the product of film-manufacturers. The Board views the motion pictures made by all American companies making regular releases. It estimates that it sees 99 per cent of all pictures exhibited in this country. Such pictures as it sees, it passes as a whole, or condemns, or passes subject to eliminations. Most pictures are of such character that they can be past without any change, but in a considerable number eliminations requested by the National Board are made by the manufacturers, and the films are then circulated for public use.

In addition to this criticism of pictures, the National Board also does constructive work thru its children's department and in connection with the "Better-Films Movement." Altho computations show that 85 per cent of the individuals attending motion-picture performances are adults, it is important to provide amusement for children in motion pictures of a kind which can be subject to no criticism. In furthering this object the National Board selects pictures which are especially valuable for children, and also stimulates the organization of special performances for them. In order that there might be adequate reason for the selection of pictures for children, the National Board sent a questionnaire to over two hundred child psychologists, educators, and others working with children, asking them definite questions with reference to the reaction of motion pictures upon children, and invited their discussion of the general subject. The replies received were then condensed by the National Board into what it calls "Principles for the selection of children's pictures." These principles are elaborate, but explicit, and every picture viewed by the review committees of the Board is voted upon with reference to its availability for children. In addition, fifty members of the review committee are specially charged with the selection of these pictures. As the Board is in a very strong position to make both a wide and a wise selection of pictures, its recommendations are of value. The pictures which are chosen are listed in a monthly bulletin which is available for use upon request to the National Board.

The "Better-Films Movement," which is being sponsored by the National Board, means the selection of pictures which are especially good for the family circle of father, mother, and children. These pictures are also chosen by committee members and are listed monthly. In addition, the National Board has printed a catalog called *A Garden of American Motion Pictures*, which contains a very wide selection of films of especially fine character. Included among them are many educational pictures.

The National Board will be very glad to supply these pamphlets upon request and to correspond with any person or organization who may be interested in educational, or especially fine, films.



DEPARTMENT OF CHILD HYGIENE

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—LINNAEUS N. HINES, superintendent of schools. Crawfordsville, Ind.

Vice-President—LEWIS M. TERMAN, associate professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.

Secretary—C. WARD CRAMPTON, director of physical training, city schools. . . New York, N.Y.

FIRST SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, JULY 6, 1917

The meeting was called to order by the president at 9:30 A.M., in the Sage Foundation Building.

Papers were presented as follows:

"The Work of the New York City Bureau of Child Hygiene"—S. Josephine Baker, M.D., director, bureau of child hygiene, department of health, New York, N.Y.

"Social Aspects of School Hygiene"—Donald B. Armstrong, director, department of social welfare, New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York, N.Y.

"A Practical Course of Study in Hygiene"—Francis M. Walters, State Normal School, Warrensburg, Mo.

"Child Hygiene, First Aid to the Uninjured"—Woods Hutchinson, president, American Academy of Medicine, New York, N.Y.

The session closed with the appointment by the president of a committee on nominations.

SECOND SESSION—SATURDAY FORENOON, JULY 8, 1916

A joint meeting with the American School Hygiene Association was opened in the Sage Foundation Building, at 9:30 A.M., by President Hines.

The following themes were presented:

"Schoolhouses and the Fire Hazard"—Frank Irving Cooper, architect, Boston, Mass.

"The Teaching of Home Nursing and the Care of Children to Elementary and High-School Pupils"—Isabel M. Stewart, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

"The Physical Care of Rural-School Children"—Taliaferro Clark, surgeon, United States Public Health Service, Washington, D.C.

"Cooperation in Health Administration"—Willard S. Small, principal, Eastern High School, Washington, D.C.

"The New York System of School Hygiene"—I. H. Goldberger, M.D., assistant director of educational hygiene, Department of Education, New York, N.Y.

President Hines then appointed the following committee to cooperate with similar committees of other organizations to prepare a report on the "Minimum Essential of Physical Education":

Walter S. Cornell, M.D., director of medical inspection in the public schools, Philadelphia, Pa.; Lee L. Driver, county superintendent of schools, Winchester, Ind.; Francis M. Walters, professor, State Normal College, Warrensburg, Mo.; Willard S. Small, principal, Eastern High School, Washington, D.C.; Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.

Upon recommendation of the Committee on Nominations, the following persons were re-elected for the ensuing year:

President—Linnaeus N. Hines, superintendent of schools, Crawfordsville, Ind.

Vice-President—Lewis M. Terman, associate professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.

Secretary—C. Ward Crampton, director, physical training, city schools, New York, N.Y.

The meeting then adjourned.

C. W. CRAMPTON, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

THE WORK OF THE NEW YORK CITY BUREAU OF CHILD HYGIENE

S. JOSEPHINE BAKER, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF CHILD HYGIENE,
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The New York City Bureau of Child Hygiene was the first to be established in the United States. It was created in 1908, and stands as a recognition of the policy that health in childhood is a government function, ranking in importance with compulsory education during childhood. This policy is no longer an isolated one, for at the present time at least five states and a large number of cities and towns have organized bureaus of child hygiene; under control of boards of health.

The fundamental policy of the New York City Bureau of Child Hygiene has been, since its inception, (1) that it should include supervision of all activities relating to the health of all children of the city, from birth to adolescence, in so far as a municipality can control such conditions; (2) that these activities be so coordinated and correlated as to provide continuous and adequate supervision of child life and child health; (3) that the fundamental basis of all efforts of the bureau must be educational and preventive, that its prime object must be not only to keep children well, but to assure to them such vigorous health that they may become healthy adults; consequently corrective measures must be used only as temporary expedients; (4) that the social aspect of public-health work, in relation to children, is of primary importance and must be developed to the utmost extent.

In all health work for children there are two points which must be emphasized: First, the recognition that we are dealing with an age group. Until such children were dealt with in a class by themselves, practically all health activities had a specialized object; that is, certain organizations were devoted to the control of tuberculosis, others to the reduction of infant mortality, and still others to the supervision of food-supplies or the

control of sanitation in general; but the formation of the Bureau of Child Hygiene in New York City was the first recognition that the early period of life is of supreme importance from the point of view of health.

The starting-point of such health work is the child, and not the environment; and all work in the Bureau of Child Hygiene has been based upon adapting environment or surroundings to fit the child's needs rather than trying to reconstruct the child to fit an environment created particularly for adults.

The second, and perhaps the more important, object of treating the child's life as a whole rather than in specialized parts, has been the growing recognition that public-health work, in order to be effective, must be preventive, and not corrective, in its activities. It is a practical impossibility to carry on real preventive health work with adults whose habits are already fixed and whose status of health has usually been determined. The only persons who respond to true preventive work are children, and even here we find that the value of true preventive work in health lines is successful in proportion to the early date of its inception. The healthy baby usually becomes a healthy child (at least, it is far better fitted to resist the diseases that pertain to childhood), and the healthy child furnishes the material for the healthy adult.

In the Bureau of Child Hygiene the test of efficiency has been based, not upon the number of children who live, but upon the number of children who grow up well and strong. Thus, while New York City has had a remarkable reduction in its infant-mortality rate, ranging from 150 deaths of infants under one year of age per thousand children born in 1905, to 90 deaths under one year of age per thousand births for the first six months of 1916, the value of its work is more truly reflected in the fact that for the last five-year period, as contrasted with the previous five-year period, the reduction in the death rate of children between one and two years of age and between two and five years of age has been greater than the reduction in the death rate under one year of age. So also, the lessened number of babies dying in the first year of life has been due in large measure to the efforts made in the line of instruction of expectant mothers, a work which assures to the baby its natural birthright of health and vigor.

Thruout the entire life of the child the functions of the Bureau of Child Hygiene are continuous and coordinated. Starting with the supervision of midwives and of foundling babies boarded out in private homes and the instruction of expectant mothers, it carries on its work for the reduction of infant mortality during the first year of life by the provision of sixty infants' milk stations and of a large number of doctors and nurses for home instruction of mothers.

The next step in the care of the child between infancy and school age falls under various branches, including the sanitary supervision and medical control of day nurseries, the supervision of institutions for dependent

children, and finally, and perhaps the most direct method, the examination and supervision of the children from two to six years. This is done by using the infants' milk stations as welfare centers where such children may be brought and kept under control. This "preschool-age work" is of particular importance because, in the entire field of the control of child hygiene, it has been the one period of life which has been most neglected. It is difficult to reach these children. The birth certificate affords an easy means of access to the baby, the school provides an easy means to reach the child of school age, but the child "in between" has been in danger of being lost. We now keep many of these children under control, thus completing the continuous supervision of the child.

Next to the supervision of the child during infancy and the preschool period, the most comprehensive part of the bureau's activities lies in the supervision of the health of children of school age. I have used this term advisedly, for I feel that in the past too much emphasis has been laid upon the so-called "school child" rather than upon the "child of school age." Health-supervision in schools was not instituted primarily for the purpose of helping children to pass examinations, nor should it be pursued because of that reason. It may be maintained, without fear of contradiction, that a healthy child is more receptive and has a chance of showing better scholarship than the child who is not healthy; but the real object of so-called "school medical inspection" should be the health of the child as a child, not in its relation to its school surroundings nor to any other part of its environment, but as a unit, with a desire to place the child in such good physical condition and so to teach it the value of health measures and sanitary surroundings that it may reach adult life in normal physical condition and be prepared to withstand the diseases incident to middle or later life.

The term "school medical inspection" is also a misnomer. The term "health-supervision" should take its place, and the system should form, not an isolated instance of the community's desire to protect the welfare of the child, but simply a part of a well-rounded plan to conserve child life from birth to puberty.

The system of "health-supervision" or "school medical inspection" in the New York City public schools is carried on under a special division of the New York City Bureau of Child Hygiene, under the Department of Health. The control of contagious diseases has been successful because of insistence upon early exclusion. In other words, we do not wait until the disease has developed before excluding a child from school attendance, but send him home from school if he shows any symptoms of illness of any form. Diagnosis is later made at the home by the school doctor. In this way it has been possible to avoid school epidemics. Special attention is paid to classrooms where more than one case of any disease is found to have occurred among the children of the indicated class. Under this system of supervision

it has not been found necessary to close any public school in New York City in the last six years on account of an epidemic of contagious disease. Similar, but even more definite, results have been achieved with the contagious eye and skin diseases. This is particularly true with regard to the elimination of ringworm and scabies—diseases which have become practically extinct in the New York City public schools.

The school authorities are especially concerned with the general health of the child, that is, the so-called "supervision for the prevention and correction of physical defects." We may assume that the standards of progress in the education of the individual are based upon the assumption that the child in question is in normal mental and physical condition. The school program is formulated for the normal child.

Without considering the question of the mentally defective child, the number of children with physical defects in our public schools is so great as to present an enormous problem. The conditions in New York City are not different from the conditions thruout the country as a whole. Seventy per cent of the children examined show some hitherto undetected physical defect. The defects to which I refer are those which are not predominant enough to have been detected by the parents or the teacher. The more noticeable physical defects, such as blindness, deafness, or lameness, are so obvious in their nature that it has been the practice to provide special classes, with particular methods of instruction, for these groups. Similar action has been taken, to a certain degree, with regard to children with markt malnutrition. Here the open-air or, better still, the open-window class, has shown excellent results; but the great mass of children in the school are not visibly handicapt by the defects which are of such a nature that their effect upon the general health of the child is insidious, but none the less serious.

The prevention of these physical defects lies, not in the period after the child has entered school, but primarily in the period of infancy and preschool age. During school life, however, no new defect should develop, and here the school and the home bear an equal responsibility. The school doctor and the school nurse have performed only part of their function when they have cared for the child in school. Probably the more important part of their work is done in the child's home. The readjustment of the child's daily life, so that its health needs may be met, is primarily the work of the school nurse, and I cannot too often record my appreciation of her value as a public-health official.

In New York City the system of prevention of these defects, with their detection and correction if they occur, has resulted in a markt diminution in the number of children in the public schools who are suffering from defects of this nature. Among the most prominent defects I may state that defective vision has been reduced from an incidence of 13.1 per cent in 1909 to 9.9 per cent in 1915; defective nasal breathing, which means the

presence of adenoid growths, has been reduced from 18.1 per cent in 1909 to 10 per cent in 1915; enlarged tonsils, from 22 per cent in 1909 to 11.6 per cent in 1915.

The most important problem we have at present is that connected with malnutrition among the children. Serious cases are easily recognized, but the more subtle forms of the disease often pass unnoticed, and many such children are considered normal, because they form so predominant a group among certain racial types. In the control of this class of cases it is necessary, not only that the home and the school unite, but that every possible aid be applied from both sources. Open-window classrooms, school lunches, better hygiene and food for the child at home, and proper medical care are requisite, but here again the time to prevent malnutrition in school children is during the period of infancy.

The final method of control of the school child comes at the time when he leaves school for the purpose of going to work. In this state, between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years, such children must obtain employment certificates from the local board of health. It has been possible, thru the establishment of the Bureau of Child Hygiene, to make this work continuous with the supervision of the child during his or her school life. We consider adequate physical examination of these children to be of the utmost importance, and no child is allowed to receive an employment certificate unless perfect health can be shown. The children who are in obvious need of health-supervision are kept under control.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOL HYGIENE

DONALD B. ARMSTRONG, DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE, NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The New York City Department of Health budget request for 1915 included an item of approximately \$27,000 for additional dental clinics. This was justified on the ground that the 1913 records of medical inspection of the school children showed that about 59 per cent of the school enrolment were in need of dental care and that there were about 524,000 cases of dental defects in the city schools. But, the request failed of approval, altho the Board of Education devotes about \$3,000,000 annually to the re-education of children held back in their classes probably in part at least, by incapacitating, tho preventable and curable, physical and mental defects. The sum of \$27,000 refused for prevention, \$3,000,000 authorized for re-education, part of which is for ineffective cure!

There are many things to be realized in a complete consideration of the social aspects of school hygiene of which only those of apparently greater importance can be considered here.

It is estimated that in the year 1914 there were probably about 950,000 cases of physical defects among the school children of New York City. This indicates, not only a tremendous loss in efficiency, a great economic waste, an extremely poor conservation of human resources, and a severe handicap upon the workings of the educational system, but it is placing an unnatural and an unnecessary limitation upon the social and economic welfare of a vital part of our national structure—the children, our potential citizens. Much of this disability is preventable or curable. Ought we not to realize that this is not only possible but worth while?

The contrast between wise and unwise health expenditures is no more clearly illustrated than by the appropriations for health departments, particularly in some of our smaller cities and towns. Here is seen most clearly the necessity for popular education which shall make possible rational value judgments concerning matters of health importance. The school hygienists, struggling for health-department funds, frequently meet in battle with the plumbers and nuisance-abaters before the august judges clothed with appropriating powers, and almost as frequently go down in defeat. In Auburn, N.Y., in 1913, out of a health appropriation of \$12,320, \$7000 or 57 per cent was spent on garbage-disposal, leaving approximately \$5000 for such measures as the control of communicable diseases, anti-tuberculosis work, infant-welfare work, and school hygiene. In 1913 Elmira appropriated \$6000 for health and spent \$1200 for plumbing-inspection. At the same time Elmira is credited with having no school-inspection. This \$1200 spent on pipes and drains would be immensely more effective if devoted to the removal of defects in human plumbing, such as the adenoids and tonsils of school children. It is a contest between soil pipes and windpipes, with the odds all in favor of the non-human variety.

On the distinctly social side of the question there are various points, many of which are generally applicable to all health work and a few of which are of special significance in school hygiene. Perhaps we can briefly present the more important of these as follows:

1. In all health work in the prevention of physical defects among school children, it is essential that we be not blinded to the underlying, indirect, economic, and social factors in the etiology of our problem. Frequently those interested, suffering from an almost inevitable myopia association, with close contact with the details of a problem, fail to see it in its entirety; they do not see the necessity for the correction of such predisposing factors as the inadequate family income, lack of adequate instruction regarding economic expenditures for, and the proper use of, foods, our unimaginative, individualistic, competitive system of industrial organization, the economic dependence of the mothers of the school children, the effects of bad breeding on the racial stock, and the necessity for healthy soil in which to sow the seeds of education.

2. Health work in the schools may perhaps be outlined from one point of view somewhat as follows:

- a) The detection, isolation, and suppression of communicable disease;
- b) The discovery and correction of non-communicable physical and mental defects;
- c) The encouragement of strength and resistance to infection and the development of healthy normal bodies and minds.

In great part the types of health work we have been used to in the past have been of an eliminative, suppressive character. In school hygiene, for instance, there was first attempted the control of communicable diseases. This was health work of a suppressive character. Of late, however, we have been giving increasing attention to the more constructive phases of school hygiene. We are now attempting, tho indeed with grotesquely inadequate measures, the elimination of non-communicable defects and the prevention of improper and insufficient feeding and the resultant malnutrition by the establishment of lunches in the schools—an experiment in itself of great social importance, significant as a demonstration of the economic and social value of group-feeding. We are now going still farther in the use of prophylactic dental clinics, dental nurses, to say nothing of the comprehensive program for physical training and development.

This constructive element in modern health work is exceedingly promising and is to be found in all phases of health activity. In the factories, for instance, where industrial dusts and disease are associated, not only are shower baths provided where the dusts may be washed off and industrial disease suppressed, but there is added to the equipment bathing pools where health and resistance to industrial disease may be constructed.

Thus modern, constructive, creative health work presents a previously lacking social content. In school work it indicates the realization of the social value of healthy children. It is attempting there to lay a firmer physical foundation upon which the world may hope to see constructed a finer social state. It realizes that without a physically sound substratum social evolution is bound to be abortive. It is from this point of view that school-health work is of very high significance when socially interpreted.

3. The foundations of health education must be laid in the schools. This is of particular importance in the light of our modern conception of health work. In our more advanced communities we scarcely need speak longer of public-health work. It is possible now to drop the word "public" and to talk of health. This means that personal health, personal hygiene, is to be the keynote of modern sanitation. The schools are, beyond comparison, the most valuable instruments for the instruction of society's members in the matters of hygiene.

A great deal is said regarding the use of the school as a social center. Indeed, there is seen on all sides the increasing use of the schools as centers for community life, and in no field is this development of greater importance

than in the dissemination of knowledge regarding infection and health-preservation. Special literature on various municipal health problems is being constantly prepared and presented to the children. Health days of all kinds are set aside for special observance. Recently, indeed, a plan has been proposed for the development, in connection with school community-center work, of a self-supporting medical center for meeting the sickness and health needs of the school neighborhood.

Such potential channels for education as the school-lunch system, not designed originally for special educational use, is now employed for the enhancement of knowledge regarding sanitary, dietary, economic, and culinary food values. If the schools are to serve a further socio-hygienic purpose, every effort must be made to bring to perfection the physical equipment, so that it may serve during school hours as an example to the children of the essentials of a hygienic and sanitary environment.

4. While it is customary for us to classify disease, according to its origin, as environmental or constitutional, one can, with justice, say that all the former and most of the latter class are of distinct social origin, depending upon social habits and customs for their transmission or development, and to be combated by social instruments. This conception of disease is certainly applicable to the affections of school life, and, as the child is the ward of the state, society has here a most urgent obligation to maintain healthful conditions. This society is doing to the extent to which there has been developed a sense of social responsibility. There is the additional necessity for this basis of health in the schools of the educational system is to bear its best fruits. A physical foundation is essential to the successful and economic working of the educational mechanism. The pouring of pure wine into cracked vessels was ever a wasteful and futile process. An active social consciousness will make possible the avoidance of such tremendous wastes as are involved in an educational system which, because it refuses to use well-known and tested preventive measures, turns out annually an army of incompetents, misfits, physical defectives, and sufferers from mental inadequacy, all of whom will serve society abominably and exactly after the manner in which society has met its own obligations to them.

A PRACTICAL COURSE OF STUDY IN HYGIENE

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In matters of health knowing and doing are widely separated. Knowledge influences, but does not determine, action. We are largely controlled thru an automatic nervous mechanism which reacts to the influences by which we are surrounded, and only slightly controlled by conscious effort. The excited will can for short intervals govern the body, but this instrument

only too readily succumbs to our instincts, appetites, desires, and habits. These are always on the job, and they do not easily take orders from the higher authority. Why does the young woman persist in her use of unhygienic clothing and footwear when she knows better? Why does the laborer continue to overwork when he realizes each day its harmful effects? Why does the obese patient disobey the injunction of his physician and overeat? Why does the victim of delirium tremens go on using alcohol? Why do we all put into practice much less hygiene than we know? It is the compelling nature of the forces that automatically determine the course of life. Our main problem, as I see it, is to adjust, and to some extent reconstruct, for the pupil his controlling mechanism. We must implant in his inner nature habits, tendencies, desires, ideals, and prejudices which will cause him to do, without very much thinking, what is best for his health, and we must so strengthen his will that it shall be able to regulate and supplement his lower controlling mechanism. While methods for the accomplishment of this essential purpose may vary with the teacher, there are certain aims which should be kept in mind by all.

The pupil must be brought into an understanding of the nature and value of his instincts, appetites, and natural inclinations, and also of their limitations. He must know to what extent it is advantageous to follow their leadings and in what respects they fail to be a true guide. I may illustrate this point by reference to the sensation of fatigue. While positive fatigue resulting from prolonged muscular exertion truly calls for rest, negative fatigue, which results from slight exertion when one is not used to exercise, and chronic fatigue, which results from constitutional causes, call just as loudly for rest, altho exercise instead of rest is frequently needed for their relief.

Perversions of the automatic system should also be understood, and in their study I believe that we may improve greatly upon our usual presentation of stimulants and narcotics. Instead of a detailed study of the effects of alcohol and nicotine upon the body, expecting thereby to establish a deep and abiding prejudice against their use, I would suggest the giving of a few illuminating lessons upon the effects of these and other substances upon the automatic mechanism of control, showing how they render it unreliable as a guide for the admission of materials into the body. We would then not be required to argue the question as to whether tea, coffee, alcohol, tobacco, soft drinks, or anything else, appreciably affects the health of this one or that. Our great concern is their effect upon our mechanism of control. The point is thus easily made that drug habits are to be broken, not so much on account of their immediate effect upon the health as for their effect upon one's ability properly to manage his body. It is useless to talk about controlling health until we are able to shape the grooves along which the life-forces expend themselves. Man must be master of his habits. To demonstrate this principle, and as exercise in

training the will, I insist upon my pupils breaking what some consider trivial habits, such as tea- and coffee-drinking, habits that waste their nervous energy, wrong habits of work, and habits of an antisocial nature; and upon their substitution for these, habits that lead in the right direction.

2. We must supply for the pupil an impelling motive.

3. We must provide actual drill in the application of hygienic principles. These are both problems which greatly tax the skill and ingenuity of the teacher. In my own work I have found a valuable aid in their solution in the requirement of corrective work on the part of the pupil. Advantage is taken of the fact that perfect health is seldom attained, to place before the student the general problem of putting his health upon a higher plane. He is told that he will receive a grade upon his health, based largely upon his ability to control and improve his physical condition, which will be averaged with his other grades in determining his final standing in the subject. When, at the close of the course, the physical tests and measurements are repeated, inquiries into bodily conditions are again made, and the health account with each student is cast up, the results are most encouraging. For example, in our two hygiene classes for the spring term of this year, in which 57 students were enroled, the following results were obtained:

Number who made noticeable improvements in health, 55. Number whose health was the same on entering and on leaving the class, 1. Number whose health was not so good on leaving as on entering the class, 1. Of the 55 who improved in health, 15 increast in weight, this being a desirable change, and 8 who had had an excess of weight were able to make perceptible reductions, one girl losing 15 pounds and another 13. Twenty-one made substantial improvements in posture, while 32 of the girls showed an improved condition of the muscles. Nine cases of constipation were cured and an equal number secured decided improvement. Ten of the students were able to rid themselves of mild nervous disorders, such as headache, insomnia, nervousness, and the tendency to worry. Nine of the girls improved their complexions, a large number stopt drinking coffee, and one of the boys broke the tobacco habit. Twenty with blood-pressure above the average for young people succeeded in lowering it, the fall varying in different individuals from 5 to 25 millimeters. Seven having a disturbed circulation (too much blood moving toward the head and too little toward the feet, indicated by chilliness of the extremities) obtained relief, and 10 having pulse rates of above 85 were able to secure advantageous reductions. Thirty-seven increast their lung capacity, the greatest increase being 40 cubic inches. From the results obtained with the hundreds of students who have taken this course, I feel justified in suggesting that much subject-matter relating to the use of exercise, posture, diet, proper methods of eating, nervous conservation, etc., as a means of correcting bodily ills and defects be included in the course.

4. The subject-matter of a practical course in hygiene must be carefully selected, arranged in logical sequence, and simply presented. Truths which require daily application must be expressed in phraseology easily translated into action. Such a course, to be sure, will include much subject-matter relating to diseases caused by germs. Every person should, in keeping with our militaristic tendencies, be a good fighter of germs. He should know how to fight them offensively and defensively. He should understand the simple methods of preventing germ invasions thru the skin and the mucous linings, and of dislodging such of his invisible enemies as have entrenched themselves upon his body domain. He should know how to intercept germs in their passage from one to another, how to destroy them outside of the body, and how to keep his environment from supplying harboring and recruiting stations for his bacterial foes.

To understand the operation of the forces that influence health we must understand something of the nature and plan of the body, and this necessitates the teaching of some physiology and anatomy. This, however, must be subordinated to hygiene, and taught for the purpose of illuminating it. In the past we dragged in so much physiology and anatomy that little time was left for hygiene. Today, in some places, teachers are going to the opposite extreme of asking pupils to accept and apply the laws of health on faith. We need to strike the happy mean of supplying enough physiology and anatomy to make health laws understandable, while avoiding technical and unimportant details.

It is up to the teachers—those who teach thru the press and from the platform, as well as those who toil in the classroom—to bring about this condition. But I would not overlook the reaction of work of this character upon the teacher himself. It is a constant reminder to him of the necessity for keeping up health and efficiency. He is made happy by expressions of appreciation from pupils, parents, and school officers. He realizes increased power from functioning in a new field. And he ceases to be merely a teacher, but becomes teacher, preacher, physician, and general adviser combined.

CHILD HYGIENE, FIRST AID TO THE UNINJURED

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If the World-War rid us of militarism and of the drill-sergeant idea in the schoolroom, it may be worth all it costs. Modern war calls for science, and science is precisely what our present system of education doesn't give as yet. Military training in the schools may prove the great emancipator for whom we have been waiting to free our system of education from the clerical shackles and classical absurdities of the past, and place it upon a hygienic, rational, and scientific basis. Instead of deploring it, we should

meet it half-way and see whether we cannot easily obtain in the name of war what we have not been able to obtain for the bodily welfare of the child in the frivolous name of play. Instead of a hard-won and barely tolerated section on school hygiene, we may be able to make all schooling hygienic and all education improving to the body and health of the child as well as to his mental development. To paraphrase Scripture, if we seek first the kingdom of Mars and its efficiency, all other things may be added unto us.

Modern military ideals can be made to work a real transvaluation of educational values. It would do us no harm to reverse our ideals for a few decades, for there is no danger of our being dragged too far out of the rut.

First and foremost the war-school curriculum demands and aims at a vigorous, healthy, well-balanced and well-trained body, "a first-class fighting man," or, what is equally important, fighting woman—a real militant. Get that under modern conditions and you also get all the brain power and all the beauty that the individual was born with. Scholars can be made in any kind of a cell or garret, but soldiers must be manufactured in the open air. This solves the problem of ventilation, also of eyestrain, and of crooked backs from too much desk work.

The things that the soldier must do, the things that the engineer must do, the things that the munition worker, the hospital nurse, and the army cook must do, are the very things that children of both sexes are most keenly and intensely interested in—the very things on which they get no practical information in the present curriculum. We have so-called science courses in the schools, but they begin at exactly the opposite end from the child's interest. They are making him hate science almost as much as he now hates good literature. The war point of view would reverse all this and solve the great pedagogic problem of interest.

Modern war is not just pulling the trigger or lunging with the bayonet. It is electricity, it is aeronautics, it is chemistry, it is machinery of every imaginable sort and description—motors, submarines, telephones, heliographs, mines, dams, cement work, road-building, house-building, blacksmithing, every art and craft of modern civilization. Not only so, but one half of modern war is fought in factories, and another fourth on railroads and in supply departments. Every soldier on the firing line requires to support him there and keep him supplied, three men and four women, on the railroads, in the munition works, in the equipment-factories, in the hospitals, and on the farm. Education for modern war would solve every problem of vocational training. Conscription covers, not merely every possible soldier, but every worker, both male and female, in the entire nation, and assigns to each one his or her place in the team. We are all enlisted for this war. As the old traditional discipline, both in the schoolroom and on the drill ground, tried to crush out individual differences,

to reduce us all to one monotonous similarity, the new discipline looks out eagerly for differences and proceeds to utilize each one and fit it for its own special "hole" or gap in the great picture puzzle.

War, terrible and pitiable as it is, may be the hammer which is smashing the way for a new era, for the long-delayed triumph of science and common-sense over tradition. Already it gives a new feeling of interest in life, a new sense of solidarity with one's kind. Commonplace duties, prosaic tasks, menial services even, become interesting and worth while and dignified in the name of the safety of the nation and the protection of the homeland. Rich and successful business men, fashionable society women, highbrow scholars and professional men, high-school girls and college boys, are all eagerly drilling, and camp-draining, and tent-pitching, and hiking across country, and cooking, and taking first-aid courses, and learning to supply their own wants, and protect their health, and work with others for the safety and happiness of the community in a way that they never can forget as long as they live, in a way that augurs most happily for the future. The "democracy of the dog tent," of the munitions-factory, of the hospital ward may be the forerunner of a new and happier state, when only those things that make for true manhood, true womanhood, will count, and all other distinctions be wiped out.

SCHOOLHOUSES AND THE FIRE HAZARD

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Every day in the year two and one-half schoolhouses are on fire in the United States, but in the face of this fact the state legislature of Massachusetts has shown this last winter that it will risk the lives of its school children in fire-trap school buildings until another legislature meets, and this state of affairs will probably continue as long as you permit the legislative mind to consider dollars as of more value than the lives of the school children. Believing in the old adage that lightning never strikes twice in the same place, the Massachusetts legislature will continue to hazard the children in school buildings of a past generation that are carefully built for quick burning. The Massachusetts legislature has said to its bodies of petitioning citizens, to its state chief inspector of school buildings, even to the governor of the state, that it will do nothing to safeguard the hundreds of old school buildings which, for two hundred days in the year, its children are, by law, forst to attend.

The legislature closes each day's session with the petition, "God save the commonwealth of Massachusetts," but its members turn away from the state commissioner of education when he asks them for laws which shall protect the children and safeguard the old buildings, while it listens

with solemnity to the head of an institution who asserts that the fire-stops which would make his building safe will injure it as a show piece of architecture.

One school officer declared that he was convinced from his long experience of fifty years that there was no fire hazard, that there was nothing that required the attention of the law, and yet twenty-one little school children were burned to death in the front vestibule of a school building without fire-stops in the town of Peabody, Mass., on the twenty-eighth day of last October. The official report states that the building was a substantial, large, and roomy structure, and the egresses were thought to be ample for the number of children who occupied it. Many times at the sound of the bell it had been vacated in a minute and a half, the children were well trained and disciplined, but they had only been trained to leave the building by way of the two exits prepared for them, and unfortunately on the day in question this line of march led directly to a vestibule into which the smoke and flames were pouring. While the egresses provided were all the law required, it now appears evident that there should have been additional exits.

The state of Massachusetts was deeply stirred by this repetition of the schoolhouse fire in Collinwood, Ohio, where the loss of life occurred from a similar cause. Public meetings were held, committees were appointed, and the usual investigations were made. In the city of Boston on November ninth, following the Peabody fire, a conference of officials of the cities and towns of the commonwealth and of citizens distinguished in various lines of work connected with schools, met at Faneuil Hall to consider methods of safeguarding the old school buildings. This conference was opened by the governor of the state. A state-wide committee was appointed at this meeting to consider what measures should be taken to safeguard existing schoolhouses and insure the proper construction of new school houses.

Its report, which was published by the Massachusetts fire-prevention commissioner, advised in part that in basements all ceilings be plastered on metal lath; that any wood partitions be replaced with masonry, or covered with fire-resisting material; that in rooms used for cooking or manual training or in other places where elements of danger were introduced, sprinklers should be installed for fire protection. It advised that special care be taken to fire-stop all openings, that stairways be freed of any inclosed space under them, that they be shut off with partitions of metal lath, and plastered, and stairways entered thru fireproof, spring-closing doors. It advised that such inflammable material as waste paper, oils, etc., be placed in metal receptacles and be kept in plain sight. It also advised that first-floor rooms have exits directly to the outside, a most important recommendation, as children from first-floor rooms would then not congest the main exits, and, moreover, such exits would provide a way out from the center

of the building if the other exits became blocked. It advised that the 4-4 signal recommended by the fire chiefs be universally adopted for the fire signal. This signal is given by four distinct rings followed after a slight pause by a second four distinct rings. It was also recommended that fire drills be an accustomed exercise, the time taken to be considered as a period for a lesson in order and discipline.

The report of this state-wide committee brought favorable comment, and soon a demand arose for legislation to prevent a repetition of the tragic fire at Peabody. The state-wide committee took up this work, and that this proposed legislation for the control of existing school buildings should fully meet requirements, the committee solicited opinions of officials and educators from all parts of the commonwealth.

While absolute data were not available it was shown that the basement of a school building was the danger point, as from the records consulted over 90 per cent of the schoolhouse fires originated in that part of the building; that the spread of fire was due chiefly to lack of fire-stopping and other means of preventing draughts into corridors and stairways; and that the loss of life in schoolhouse fires had been due largely to smoke and fire gaining entrance to the stairways and vestibules which are the means of exit. Professor Breed, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, testified that there had never been a loss of life in a schoolhouse fire where the fire did not start in the basement.

After many meetings a bill was drawn up and presented to the legislature. The committee to whom it was referred gave a single public hearing. I will quote from the newspaper account, "The remonstrants talkt almost entirely on the question of dollars and cents which this legislation to prevent deaths of school children might cost."

Altho urged to report the bill favorably by a strong body of representative citizens, including fire chiefs, architects, school commissioners, a representation from the trustees of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Massachusetts commissioner of education, and many others, the committee reported the bill adversely.

Governor McCall, disapproving the adverse report, offered a substitute bill. The legislature refused to substitute and side-stepped its responsibility by referring the bill to the next general court, thus risking its children for another nine months in schoolhouses which it obliges them by law to attend.

The United States spends over a hundred million dollars every year for new school buildings and the greater part of this large amount of the people's money is spent without expert advice on the subject of protection from the fire hazard. Moreover, this great sum is spent mostly, says Mr. Baldwin—business agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education—by committees who have no knowledge as to whether the architects they employ work on economic principles, because there are no authoritative data.

Few authorities have investigated the percentage of floor space in school buildings of a known number of rooms that should be allowed in each case to corridors, schoolrooms, clothing flues, walls, etc. A plan called a model, lately brought to my observation, had less than 40 per cent of the floor area devoted to the working space of the building. Consequently if the building cost \$100,000, only \$40,000 of the taxpayers' money was spent for the pupils' actual requirements. Would men at the head of a business allow such a waste? Should not school authorities have the same care over the expenditure of school funds for school buildings as they exercise in the employment of teachers or the purchase of supplies?

Except the United States Bureau of Education, the National Education Association is the only body which deals with country-wide problems, which has direct connection with all communities, and the recommendations of which have influence and a degree of authority.

I earnestly suggest that you consider the school-building problem and that you establish standards of planning, construction, costs, fire protection, heating, ventilating, and sanitation in school buildings.

THE TEACHING OF HOME NURSING AND THE CARE OF CHILDREN TO ELEMENTARY- AND HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

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I am using this term, "home nursing," because there seems to be no better one. It is not an apt expression, because it can be interpreted in so many ways, but the sense in which it is popularly used is fairly well understood. Like "home carpentering" and "home dressmaking," "home nursing" is applied to the work of the amateur as distinguished from that of the professional, or expert. The term "home care of the sick" is preferred by many, but this narrows the subject down to the consideration of sickness only, while "nursing" in its original and broadest sense means the care of the well and the prevention of illness quite as much as the care of the sick. According to Florence Nightingale, "the very elements of what constitutes good nursing are as little understood for the well as for the sick. The same laws of health, or of nursing (for they are, in reality, the same) prevail among the well as among the sick. The breaking of them produces only a less violent consequence among the former than among the latter." She called this art, "health nursing," and insisted that it should be a part of every woman's education. The problem before us is whether we desire to teach anything of this kind in public schools, whether such courses are desirable or advisable. Such courses are already pursued in divers schools, societies, and clubs in all parts of the country. In the bulletins on *Education for the Home*, prepared by Dr. B. R. Andrews for the Bureau of Education in 1914, it is stated that out of 163 colleges imparting instruction

in home economics, 35 had distinct courses in home nursing, and 10 in the care of children; 42 elementary schools had courses in home nursing and 37 in the care of children; and practically every one of the hundreds of high schools where the household arts are represented includes under this general title similar instruction. This is only a fraction of the number of courses provided by outside clubs and societies, and tho the numbers of these are not known, there is every evidence that the demand is increasing rapidly.

It is not only society ladies with a passion for the more dramatic and sensational excitements of "war" nursing, who are clamoring for Red Cross courses in home care of the sick and first aid; requests come from all kinds of groups, from school children and college students, camp-fire girls and boy scouts, factory girls and women's clubs.

Then, too, in spite of the multiplication of hospitals and dispensaries, and the extension of visiting-nurse services, there are still many families where expert nursing care is an economic impossibility, and where more or less heavy responsibility must be borne by sisters, mothers, and other members of the family. This is especially necessary in long, chronic illnesses, in convalescence, and in the minor diseases of childhood. Even where there is no economic problem, on farms, in camps, and rural settlements, situations may arise at any time which require prompt and intelligent care if life is to be saved.

In order to get various points of view on these matters, and to balance up my own observation and experience with that of others, I have gathered together the opinions of a number of representative teachers, physicians, nurses, and other citizens, which will be summarized in the discussion following. The general opinion seems to be that the dangers of over-zealous and injudicious use are more than offset by the dangers of ignorance. Practically every person consulted agrees that there is a distinct need for instruction in home nursing, first aid, and the care of children, and that some place should be found for it in the regular scheme of education. One or two disapprove of home nursing unless the courses are to be handled by professionally trained instructors, a few would confine such instruction to especially selected groups, and one objects strongly to any responsibility for child-care or assistance in illness being put on any elementary- or high-school pupil.

A few, mainly teachers, suggest that such courses should also help in preparing specially qualified girls to act as children's nurses, mothers' helpers, or convalescence nurses. This vocational type, of course, will be discust later, but in the meantime we will speak only of the general informational course.

It is assumed by those who are familiar with the school system that the teaching of hygiene will have been begun in the kindergarten and continued up to about the sixth grade in the form of incidental and informal

teaching rather than thru set textbooks and exercises. By the time the child is twelve years of age he should have formed habits of personal cleanliness and routine physical care, and should know something of the essentials of home and community health. At the age of thirteen or fourteen many children will be helping at home in the care of younger brothers and sisters, and often will be depended on for much more responsible duties in cases of a mother's illness or special family emergencies. This condition of things may be abnormal and altogether undesirable, as some people maintain, and the school may seem to be encouraging a form of child labor by assuming that such duties are to be expected of twelve- to fourteen-year-old boys and girls.

It seems to be the consensus of opinion, however, that since the vast proportion of elementary-school pupils never reach the high school, if they are to have any systematic instruction at all, it must come before they graduate from the grammar school. Moreover, among our great foreign population particularly, the only way to reach the parents seems to be thru the children.

Instead of formal topics, such as "infant-feeding" and "common diseases and disorders of childhood," the school child should be considering some such concrete problem as "how to help in keeping a baby well in summer," or "how to help when there is sickness at home." The ordinary matters of bathing and dressing and sleep, etc., both for the baby and for the slightly ill person, the making of a bed or a child's cot, keeping the room fresh and clean, the cooking of a few simple invalid foods, and the methods of making people comfortable in bed—these are not complicated nor technical matters, and can well be grasped by seventh and eighth-grade pupils.

It seems to be the general opinion that in the elementary school this teaching will necessarily be handled largely by the grade teachers, since even where school nurses are employed it would be impossible to take their time from more pressing duties.

Toward the end of the high-school period, when the girl has covered some elementary work in science and has reached a stage at which she may safely be intrusted with wider knowledge and more responsibility, the consensus of opinion is that a second course should be given which would be based on good, sound physiology, with some knowledge of bacteriology, sanitation, and dietetics. Whether this course is called "Home Care of the Sick," or "Home Economics" or "Applied Biology" does not matter so much; but it is important that the information given be soundly scientific, and that any procedures taught should be actually carried out in as careful and thoro a manner as possible. Such a course might include the planning, furnishing, and care of the sick room, the making and changing of a bed for a sick person, devices for comfort and relief in passing ailments, bathing and attention to ordinary physical needs, the giving of medicines and

common treatments, such as the simple enema, a mustard plaster, and cold and hot applications, the observation of important symptoms, and first-aid treatment in fractures, sprains, cuts, burns, and common injuries.

The primary object, however, is to make the pupil understand and appreciate the whole problem of sickness, not only as it affects her and her home, but as it affects the community and state. This is the time to show her the results of ignorance and quackery, and to give her sound facts regarding the various causes which produce ill health, and the measures which have proved most effective in safeguarding human life. All this can be made concrete and dramatic, supplemented by actual studies of conditions in her own community. If the much-discussed subject of sex hygiene is to be taught, there is no place where it can be brought in more naturally than in such a course as this; but the prejudice of some parents has to be considered.

A visit to very carefully selected departments of an up-to-date hospital to point out the elaborate precautions that must be taken, and the complicated services employed in caring for sick people, not only impresses them deeply with the highly technical and responsible nature of a real nurse's work, but also shows them the vocational possibilities in that profession in a concrete, and usually an attractive, way.

The brain work must be done largely in the school or college building, with a simple equipment for demonstration, and a laboratory where each member of the class can carry out each procedure as far as possible. The cost of such an equipment will depend on the number of students in the class and the method employed. It might range all the way from \$50 to \$300. The lecture and demonstration can be carried on with a class up to about 40 members, but for practice the number should not exceed 12 to 16 or at most 20. For demonstrations it is best to secure a "live" patient or subject, but a large doll can be used fairly satisfactorily for many procedures. Students usually use each other for subjects as far as possible, tho this has its disadvantages because so much time is likely to be wasted. A two-hour period is almost necessary, and in many cases a three-hour period is not too long.

It is not necessary to repeat procedures here to the point of high efficiency, since the purpose of the practical work is more to enable the pupil to grasp the idea of the thing and to apply the principles than to develop skill. A simple textbook on home nursing, such as that which is published under the auspices of the Red Cross, is helpful if the teacher is inexperienced, but a more satisfactory way is to assign readings from a variety of sources and have pupils take notes on the nursing procedures. Frequent quizzes are needed to clear up misconceptions and fasten important facts in mind.

The question, "Who should teach these courses?" cannot be settled arbitrarily, as so much depends on where the course is given and the people

who are available. It is generally recommended that physicians teach first aid, since this is a form of amateur medical practice. Courses in the care of children are given by domestic-science teachers, physicians, and nurses. I am inclined to say that for very elementary courses the teacher who has had special instruction in the hygiene and care of children could quite safely teach the subject, supplemented, perhaps, by one or two talks by a nurse. The high-school course on children demands a wider knowledge and greater skill, and, on the whole, would be more satisfactorily handled by a woman physician or a nurse. Every city and town has medical organizations and nursing organizations which would gladly advise and assist in working out a practical and safe course of this kind. Hospital training schools, visiting-nurse associations, boards of health, or Red Cross organizations, can also be of distinct assistance, and their cooperation could, I am confident, be readily secured.

Finally, I will suggest that a joint committee be appointed from representatives of the National Education Association, the American Medical Association, and the National League of Nursing Education, with the idea of studying this whole question, making recommendations as to its handling, and working out a course of study which will be suggestive and helpful for those who are considering the introduction of such work in the public school, or in outside clubs and organizations.

THE PHYSICAL CARE OF RURAL-SCHOOL CHILDREN

TALIAFERRO CLARK, SURGEON, UNITED STATES PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE,
WASHINGTON, D.C.

The value of a maximum efficiency of the individual citizen as a national asset has become more apparent than formerly during these days of widespread interest in national preparedness. It is of interest, therefore, to know how this may be secured. Just as it is wiser during peace to prepare for war, so it is better, if good results are to be attained, to institute measures to promote individual efficiency at an early age of development rather than later in life when these processes have slackened or come to a standstill. In this respect health-supervision of school children is an effective instrument, because the school offers such ready opportunity for the institution of measures designed to promote normal development.

The need for more extended supervision of the health of school children is shown by the large number of individuals revealed by physical examinations who have not attained the highest physical development by reason of defects and abnormalities of growth that are preventable, or at least controllable in their incipiency. Experience has shown that the greater number of such defects have had their origin in childhood, at a period when their early recognition gives greatest hope of correction.

For example, a table, compiled from the records of the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, United States Navy Department, for the year ended December 31, 1914, shows that, of the 72,410 applicants for original enlistment in the Navy and 20,674 in the Marine Corps, 76 per cent of the former and 82.4 per cent of the latter were rejected for physical and mental disabilities; and that, during the year ended December 31, 1915, there were 73,028 applicants for original enlistment in the Navy and 21,676 in the Marine Corps, of whom 75.4 per cent were rejected by the Navy and 83 per cent by the Marine Corps for like causes.

Furthermore, other observers have stated that, in the case of volunteers for military service, rejections because of physical unfitness were in direct relation to the number of years spent in school. It follows as a corollary, therefore, that unhygienic school buildings and failure to provide for medical inspection of school children might be responsible in a measure for a large proportion of the adults in the general population who have not attained the highest physical efficiency.

The physical care of school children demands serious attention in every community. Intensive studies of rural-school conditions conducted by the Public Health Service have revealed a special need for health-supervision of rural-school children because: (1) they constitute 60.7 per cent of the total school enrolment of the country; (2) they are largely denied medical attention by specialists, such as may be had in hospitals and clinics in cities; (3) they cannot be protected *en masse* by health laws as is the case in urban communities; (4) and they are more unduly affected by endemic diseases which diminish vital resistance and exercise an unjurious influence on physical and mental development, such as malaria, hookworm, and pellagra.

The school itself should be made a place in which the healthy child may grow in a normal manner, and where the best development of the weakened child may be secured. In this connection we have recently compiled the physical averages obtained during an intensive survey by the Public Health Service of all the rural-school children of a county in a middle western state. It was found that the relative physical development of boys and girls varied at different age periods in a manner not entirely in accord with that recorded by a number of other observers in other localities.

Variations in the growth of the child call for great expenditures of physical and mental energy at certain age periods. Great care must be exercised in the school at this time to maintain correct postures, to provide suitable exercises, and to adapt the curriculum to the special needs of the child in order to secure the best physical development.

The important consideration in connection with the physical underdevelopment, observed in the rural-school population of this county was to determine the cause. Malaria and hookworm are not present in this

community, pellagra is unknown, and there is but a limited prevalence of tuberculosis and typhoid fever. These diseases, therefore, are eliminated as causative factors. On the other hand, our observations tend to show that the habitual diet of these children was largely responsible. For example, the breakfast of 40 per cent of them was composed almost exclusively of carbohydrates, and but 60 per cent of them had a mixt diet of carbohydrates and proteids. Furthermore, 57 per cent used coffee, only 15 per cent drank milk, and 1.16 per cent did not habitually eat breakfast. The need is plain, therefore, for the general establishment of domestic-science classes in the schools, and the teaching of food values and food preparation.

Furthermore, no suitable facilities for play were provided, and no systematic physical exercises were practised at any of the rural schools of the county. The beneficial influences of these on health and physical development are now matters of common experience. Their absence may account in part for the subnormal physical development of a number of these children.

Ranking in importance with measures intended to increase vital resistance thru maintenance of the normal physical development of a school child are those directed to the discovery and correction of physical defects. Physical defects among rural-school children are potentially of more serious consequences than those among children in cities. This is due to the limited medical facilities in most rural districts, and in part to poorly constructed and equipt school buildings. Many examples illustrative of this observation have come under our personal notice. Witness the case of a small child between six and seven years of age who, figuratively speaking, was standing, on the edge of a threatening volcano, so far as life was concerned, by reason of a neglected inflammation of the middle ear. The otoscope revealed in this case a slit in a very congested eardrum thru which pus was oozing in great quantity. Neglect of such a condition leads to deafness and not infrequently to death. The parents of this child were unaware of the danger. Many cases similar to this occur in rural schools and remain unrecognized thru the lack of medical supervision until too late to prevent destructive changes.

Our investigations in the rural districts have revealed an almost complete disregard of visual prophylaxis. The faulty illumination so frequently observed in rural schools is largely responsible for much of the impaired vision encountered. Recent measurement of the desk-illumination of an eight-room school on a cloudy day showed that the illumination of more than half of the desks in a number of the classrooms was less than one-third of that demanded by the minimum standard. The effect of such faulty illumination is to promote eyestrain and to increase nearsightedness. The illumination of these classrooms could have been doubled by the proper tinting of reflecting surfaces; but the school authorities were without

competent advice in this important detail of school-construction. The need for such advice is largely responsible for many of the undesirable features of rural-school life.

Furthermore, a number of rural-school children had never been refracted and were sorely in need of glasses. The rural-school child cannot step around the corner to an eye clinic and secure the free services of a specialist. These children are frequently found wearing glasses entirely unsuited to them, as was a girl with one eye hyperopic and the other myopic, who was wearing a farsighted lens in front of the nearsighted eye.

The rural-school child is greatly in need of instruction in the care of the teeth and in need of adequate dental service. This is shown by the fact that 49.3 per cent of the children had defective teeth, 21.1 per cent had two or more missing teeth, and only 16.9 per cent had dental attention. Furthermore, 14.4 per cent of these children never used a toothbrush, 58.2 per cent used one occasionally, and only 27.4 per cent used one daily.

We have collected data relative to the occurrence of communicable diseases among rural children while attending school. The compilation of this material has not yet been completed. Sufficient evidence has been adduced, however, to indicate that the school is a factor in the spread of these diseases in rural communities, owing largely to the fact that the children of individual families are rarely in intimate contact except in school. An undue prevalence of these affections is measurably responsible for an increase in the number of children with impairment of the organs of special sense.

The field investigations of the Public Health Service show certain problems of rural schools which require special consideration. For example: What is the remedy for the conditions just enumerated? How can the physical efficiency be increased? How can hampering physical defects be avoided? How is the control of communicable diseases to be brought about? How is improvement in rural school-construction to be secured? The answer is: (1) by abolishing school districts and establishing a county unit of school administration; (2) by establishing an efficient system of health-supervision of school children; (3) by consolidating rural schools. Let us consider these three facts further.

1. Educators have long advocated the abolition of separate school districts for administrative purposes, and the substitution therefor of the county unit. By so doing uniform school facilities can be provided for the county as a whole, which would include courses of study, requirements of teachers, duration of school term, and the pro rata distribution of school funds. In the absence of such a system of administration, generalized health-supervision of school children is well-nigh impossible.

2. Measures for the health-supervision of school children are of prime importance for educational purposes and the protection of health.

Unfortunately, only a small part of the rural-school population of the country enjoys the benefits of such supervision.

a) The interest of rural communities in the matter of medical inspection can best be secured thru intensive school-surveys. The value of this procedure lies in the fact that, by calling attention to unsuspected physical defects in their children and school conditions requiring attention, the necessity for some form of health-supervision is brought home to parents. We have had practical experience of the educational value of such investigations thru reports of an increase number of children seeking relief following surveys of this character.

b) The medical inspection of schools in rural districts is accompanied by a serious handicap, owing to the impossibility, under existing conditions, of securing the services of a person properly qualified for this position.

c) The restricted financial resources of most rural communities preclude the offering of a salary commensurate with the attainments of a desirable school-inspector. This difficulty can be overcome, in great measure, by combining the duties of the school physician with those of the district, county, or local health officer, with a salary equivalent to the combined salaries of the two positions. The trend of recent practice is to place the health-supervision of school children under the direction of the health authorities. Indeed such is the case in a number of our largest cities, namely, Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh. By so doing it becomes possible for these communities to secure the full-time services of a trained sanitarian for health work and school-inspection.

3. The possibilities of rural-school consolidation for the protection of the health of the children is an important consideration in the adoption of this measure. The sanitary requirements of school-constructions can more readily be secured in the larger buildings of this type and the child thereby placed in a more healthful school environment.

Lastly, no system of health-supervision will be effective without the cooperation of the parents. This can be secured thru the employment of tactful school nurses to do follow-up work. The practical application of the principles of sanitation by an efficient nurse in time of sickness will do much toward educating parents regarding measures for safeguarding the health of their children. In addition, the cooperation of social workers and the formation of civic leagues and of home- and school-improvement associations among rural-school children lead toward a better understanding of good citizenship and of the obligations of the individual to the community which, in time, should bring about improved social conditions and an increase efficiency of the individual.

COOPERATION IN HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

WILLARD S. SMALL, PRINCIPAL, EASTERN HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Within the last year the United States Bureau of Education has collected a large body of information with regard to health-teaching agencies in the country. The number and variety of such agencies are truly amazing. They are both official and voluntary, commercial and philanthropic, single in their aim—to promote health—and merely incidental to the main purpose of the institution to which they are auxiliary. A few illustrative examples will suffice: department of health, state, county, and local; departments of education, state, county, and local; insurance companies; industrial corporations; department stores; labor organizations; fraternal organizations; anti-tuberculosis associations; safety-first associations; medical societies; social-hygiene organizations; Youngs Mens' Christian Associations; charities organizations; boys' and girls' clubs; schools, colleges, and universities; bureaus of the federal government; and many others. Needless to say there is overlapping, duplication, and waste motion.

Beginnings have been made in cooperation and coordination. Mostly however, these attempts at cooperation have been voluntary or quasi-official, and consequently of doubtful permanency. A typical example of cooperation of the quasi-official sort is the Minnesota Public Health Association organized in March 1914. It was an independent organization financed by voluntary contributions. It served as a coordination center for investigation and propaganda and had recognized relations with the State Board of Health, the State Department of Education, the State Federation of Womens' Clubs, and other voluntary organizations. The salary of the executive secretary was paid in part by the State Board of Health for his services as publicity agent for the board. In the first year of its existence it performed valuable service in school-health work, both in the way of investigation and in the dissemination of information.

In the second year of its existence, however, its efficiency was greatly reduced on account of lack of funds and the breaking of the quasi-official relations with the State Board of Health. This illustrates aptly the tenuous nature of all such coordinations.

Quite generally the supporting agency for such cooperation is the public school. By reason of its universality and its specific organization, it naturally serves as a means of coordination. Too frequently the part played by the school is that of a complacent distributing agency for properly authenticated propaganda and for alien health-supervision. There is, however, a rapidly increasing tendency for the public school to become the effective coordinating agency—to organize cooperation. This, of course, is markedly the case in communities in which the health-supervision of the schools has been assumed by the educational authorities; but there are

cases of well-organized cooperation in cities in which health-supervision is still managed by the health department.

It should be recognized that the promotion of health is at bottom an educational problem the effective solution of which demands the most complete and sympathetic cooperation of the public-health and the public-education organizations. Volunteer organizations of all kinds will play important accessory rôles; but it is these governmental agencies upon which will rest the real responsibility. There has not been as complete cooperation of spirit and coordination of effort between health and school departments as there should be. Indeed, too often there has been mutual suspicion and misunderstanding. In the last few years there has been rather a markt tendency for the schools to take over the administration of phases of educational hygiene including "medical inspection." It is not at all certain that this tendency is permanent in character. As the supervision of the public health becomes better developpt, it becomes evident that the control of health before school age is quite as important as the control of health during the school period. This phase of public-health work obviously must be administered by the health authorities. It is not at all improbable that "efficiency and economy" may require continuous administration of "child hygiene" by the health authorities, as is already the case in New York. At present the locus of administrative authority is largely a local question. In reality it is not important; the only matter of importance is that the highest possible efficiency be secured.

There is one modification, however, of administrative machinery that could easily be made, and, if made, would be a long step toward effective cooperation between school and health authorities. If the executive officer of every health board—state, county, local—were a member of the corresponding educational board, and vice versa, if every school superintendent—state, county, and local—were a member of the corresponding health board, there would be set up an effective legalized addition to the administrative machinery that could not fail to produce results in mutual understanding and unification of effort. It hardly need be said that a full-time health officer is necessary for the complete success of this plan.

There is one other opportunity for cooperation that is big with possibilities for the development and improvement of health work in the public schools. The federal bureaus that have to do with health and education should have the equipment and the resources to meet the growing demands that are being made upon them for information, advice, and guidance by local communities all over the United States. The Public Health Service should have the resources to make many such surveys as that described by Dr. Clark in his paper this morning. The Bureau of Education should have the resources to give adequate information and advice with regard to plans of administration whenever and under whatever conditions such advice and information are askt—and the requests are very numerous and

varied. The fields are distinct and the lines of cooperation equally clear. At present neither bureau can perform the necessary services. In the public-health service more adequate support of work well begun is required; in the Bureau of Education the crying necessity is the creation of a division of educational hygiene, which now is entirely lacking.

THE NEW YORK SYSTEM OF SCHOOL HYGIENE

I. H. GOLDBERGER, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF EDUCATIONAL HYGIENE, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Viewed from the standpoint of health, the New York System of School Hygiene has for its purpose the protection and preservation of the health of school children and teachers from the deleterious influences which frequently accompany school life. To accomplish this the Department of Hygiene has served in part as follows:

1. Consultation with the Department on Care of Buildings regarding the proper form of seats and desks; provision of lights, and the conservation of sufficient light in dark rooms; resurfacing of worn blackboards; sanitation of swimming-pools; prevention of dust; regulation of temperature, ventilation, and various other sanitary conditions in school buildings; methods of disinfecting; methods of cleaning, care of blackboards, board-rubbers, etc.

2. Consultation with the Supply Department on the color and texture of paper, type of textbooks, type standards, crayons, sanitary floor-dressing, soap, and towels.

3. Consultation with the Department of Health on medical inspection, dental hygiene, Gary schools, sanitation of school buildings, nuisances, joint publications on hygiene, joint investigations, and methods of hygienic care of children, etc.

4. Cooperation with eleven different outside agencies supporting special health work.

5. The provision of definite sets of instruction to teachers on the hygienic control of pupils in the classroom, with a series of instructions on the conduct of the daily morning hygienic inspection, health day, observations for evident physical disabilities, symptoms of illness in children, and the provision of a pamphlet to be given to parents on *How to Safeguard the Health of the Child*.

A system of instruction in hygiene, which gives simple counsel on all important health matters, has been provided. The method pursued in teaching the old hygiene was that of mere instruction. Children were assigned lessons from books on anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, and then told how to care for their health on the basis of this knowledge. This was all very well, but the instruction started from the structure of the bones,

the heart, the lungs, etc., proceeded to the function of the same, and finally arrived at the care of the health—a logical method, but wasteful and ineffective, as it expected children to think as adults, with full reasoning powers.

The recently adopted course of study in hygiene emphasizes the practical affairs of daily life, such as keeping the scalp and hair clean, brushing the teeth, attention to clothing, study, play, and rest. The children are taught to apply the lessons of personal hygiene to the neighborhood, the school, and the city. Alert to note all matters affecting health, pupils work in sanitary squads, and attend with profit lectures on hygiene, demonstrations and exhibitions of pure food, temperance leagues, anti-tuberculosis and first-aid-to-the-injured societies and anti-cigarette leagues. The formation of good hygienic habits by daily practice is illustrated by the "Daily Routine," which pupils make out, under the direction of the class teacher, to take home for constant reference. The following is a typical program:

1. Rise promptly.
2. Take breathing and setting-up exercises appropriate to the grade.
3. Wash (warm water and soap) hands, face, neck, and chest. Cold splash on face, neck, and chest. Clean finger nails.
4. Clean the teeth. Brush the gums and the whole mouth and rinse the mouth. Drink a glass of water.
5. Dress with inspection of clothes as to cleanliness.
6. Eat slowly at breakfast and chew well.
7. Attend the toilet and wash afterward.
8. Prepare for school. Books and clothes, clean, and in order.
9. Observe regulations as to entering school.
10. Care for outer clothing. Attend to order of desk and prepare for daily morning hygienic inspection.
11. Keep correct sitting and standing posture in school.
12. Drink water at recess. Use individual drinking cup.
13. Return home for lunch without loitering. Wash hands before lunch. Eat slowly.
14. Play in fresh air after school.
15. Study. Pay attention to lessons and finish the work.
16. Wash and prepare for the evening meal.
17. Prepare for bed early. Attend the toilet, wash, put clothes in order, and open window.

The new course of study in hygiene allows ten minutes a day for a daily morning hygienic inspection, the purpose of which is: (1) to inculcate habits of personal cleanliness and pride in the pupil's personal appearance by an individual inspection, (2) to discover early signs of illness and to prevent contagion, (3) to establish cooperation between the home and the school, and (4) to establish a close cooperation between the school medical-inspection service and the class teacher for the benefit of the health of the children.

Tooth-brush drills are practised thruout the term, and time is spent in drilling the child how to brush the teeth properly, instead of spending hours on the anatomy and physiology of the teeth. There is no question as to

the effectiveness of the former method. The child is told to do things. He is taught to clean the teeth before breakfast and before going to bed. He learns that it is important to use his own toothbrush, that a dentist should examine his mouth at the beginning of each school term, that a small cavity should be filled before it grows into a large one, and that the need for artificial teeth for young people should never arise. At the beginning of the term a prescription for tooth powder, written on the blackboard, is copied in the pupil's home-lesson book for the information of parents as well as for the child's own instruction.

Instruction in the New York System of Hygiene is not based on simple cleanliness alone. Even more important are the prophylactic measures carried out by the class teachers in an attempt to counteract and eliminate the health-depressing influences of school life. At the beginning of the term the teacher pays special attention to seating pupils with regard to height, and defects in vision and hearing. Not later than two weeks after the beginning of the term, seats are adjusted by the janitor, so that the pupil can sit with hips well back, the thighs resting on the seat, and the feet flat on the floor. The desk and seat are so adjusted that the proper writing position may be taken, i.e., hips back, body straight, inclined forward (never flexed nor twisted), forearms resting on the desk near the edge. These precautions are instrumental in preventing orthopedic deformities, particularly spinal curvature. With the aid of the school medical-inspection service, defects in vision and hearing are discovered early, so that affected children may be placed at a proper distance from the blackboard and teacher's desk. Vision defects are guarded against by adjusting window shades so that sunshine does not fall upon the book or work, and care is taken not to have two connective periods of close eye work. Coughs and colds from overheating are minimized by maintaining the room temperature between 65° and 68°F., when artificial heat is used. An accurately registered thermometer is attached to each teacher's desk and an hourly record of the room temperature is made. If the temperature is not satisfactory, the principal is notified at once. Good ventilation is maintained by having the room open on at least two sides. Transoms are kept in repair for this purpose. Fatigue is guarded against particularly among the younger children by an alternation of tasks, standing to recite, group and blackboard work. The day's work is punctuated by "two-minute drills" as a tonic to relax muscles, and for the refreshment of the heart and lungs a period of vigorous exercise is given everyday. Pupils are not restrained from leaving the room to go to the toilet, unless the teacher suspects that a pupil is abusing the privilege.

Every child receives instruction in safety-first measures, emergency measures, and first-aid-to-the-injured, in an endeavor to minimize the large number of street accidents. Of the 659 persons killed last year, 44 per cent were children.

In using the text of the new syllabus in hygiene, teachers are supplied with special bulletins and circulars of instruction issued by the New York State and City Departments of Health, and other health agencies. When necessary, pupils are furnished with circulars of instruction to parents on the care of the nose, the care of the mouth and teeth, the care of children's hair and scalp, the care of the eyes, all of which are supplied by the New York City Department of Health.

The New York System of Hygiene includes a plan whereby teachers shall make certain simple tests to discover whether children have defective vision, hearing, teeth, nasal breathing, and nutrition. The adoption of this procedure has become necessary because of the large number of children in our schools who have undiscovered and uncorrected physical defects. During the school year just completed, a cooperative experiment with the Board of Health has been in progress. This work brought the officials of the two departments in closer personal contact, and has done much to establish a more friendly relationship between the two. During the course of this experiment, 234 teachers were instructed by means of clinical conferences as to the methods of discovering evident physical defects of eyes, ears, teeth, nasal breathing, and nutrition. Five or six typically defective cases were demonstrated. The use of the Snellen chart in discovering acuteness of vision was illustrated and the method of recording acuteness of vision and other physical defects was explained. The need for constant and careful classroom observation to discover cases of evident physical defects was emphasized.

The clinical conferences were followed by practice work by teachers on four or five children in other classes. A conference quiz was held with the teachers, based on the subject-matter of former clinical conferences, on their practical experience, and on the difficulties that they met in testing children. This conference was found very valuable. Difficulties or uncertain points were explained and the path was made clear for a satisfactory health day. A health day was held in each of the four experimental schools during the week of October 18, 1915. The teachers, with the exception of the kindergarten teachers, were able during the day to examine all their pupils for these five defects and fill out the notification blanks for the home. About 10,316 children were examined. Before the notification blanks were sent home to the parents, the findings of the teachers were supervised by the assistants to the principal and a department of health physician, to eliminate any gross errors. The notification blanks were sent out for limited groups of classes at time, care being taken not to flood the neighborhood dispensaries.

It is of interest to note that in the section of the school in which the teachers were not only to examine their pupils, but also to follow up their defects to treatment and cure, 900 children received treatment as a result of health day. This indicates that nearly one-third of the children

who needed treatment have either been improved or cured as the result. In justice to our teachers it may be added that they have shown a sufficient degree of accuracy in their work to make the experiment worth while.

The instruction in the new hygiene endeavors to be practical. It is an everyday affair. It provides a personal and objective method of instruction rather than a didactic, and, above all, considers health in a positive, prophylactic, and corrective phase. Should it develop to the extent of its promise and intent, health should become a habit for every child. The children of today will be sound and vigorous, and the inheritance of health will insure a sturdy America for tomorrow.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL PATRONS

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

President—MRS. LOUIS HERTZ, Council of Jewish Women San Francisco, Cal.
Vice-President—MRS. PHILLIP N. MOORE, trustee, College for Women, University of the South,
St. Louis, Mo.
Secretary—MRS. E. L. BALDWIN, state chairman, department of school patrons, San Francisco, Cal.

FIRST SESSION—FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 7, 1916

The department convened in the Ballroom of Hotel Waldorf-Astoria, at 9:30 A.M., Helen Varick Boswell, New York, N.Y., in the chair.

P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education delivered a brief address on "Community Interest in the Public Schools."

The following papers were read:

"The Teacher's Responsibility as a Civic Factor in the Community"—Frances E. Harden, president, League of Teachers' Associations, Chicago, Ill.

"Education of the Immigrant"—Elsa Alsberg, secretary, department of immigrant aid, Council of Jewish Women, New York, N.Y.

"Report of Committee on Education, Council of Jewish Women"—Fannie Saxe Long, Wilkesbarre, Pa.

"Report of the Southern Association of College Women"—Virginia S. McKenney, vice-president, Southern Association of College Women.

The following officers were elected:

President—Hattie Hoover Harding, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—May L. Cheney, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

Secretary—Sarah F. Clarke, Public Schools, Scranton, Pa.

LOUISE FARGO BROWN, *Secretary, pro tem*

SECOND SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 7, 1916

The department met in joint session with the Department of Physical Education in the Ballroom, Hotel Waldorf-Astoria, at 2:00 P.M., Vice-President Posse presiding.

The following program was presented:

"Sex Morality or Social Hygiene"—Mabel L. Ulrich, M.D., St. Paul, Minn.

"Social Service in the Public Schools"—Elizabeth McManus, chairman, clinic department, Los Angeles Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, Los Angeles, Cal.

"Administration and Method in High-School Physical Training for Girls" (illustrated by a class of 20 girls)—Josephine Beiderhase, assistant director of physical training, public schools, New York, N.Y.

"The Boy Scouts of America"—James E. West, chief scout executive, Boy Scouts of America, New York, N.Y.

CHARLOTTE STEWART, *Secretary pro tem*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

*THE TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY AS A CIVIC FACTOR IN
THE COMMUNITY*

FRANCES E. HARDEN, PRESIDENT, LEAGUE OF TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS,
CHICAGO, ILL.

The school year that has just closed has been full of significance in its educational tendencies. This is particularly true of the administrative side of the public-school system. There seems to have been a widespread and very determined movement on the part of administrative officials to control teachers along lines where heretofore they have had a considerable measure of freedom.

This movement has been going on along several lines. In some places it has been an attempt to disrupt teachers' organizations already formed, or to prevent the formation of organizations among the unorganized teachers. In other places teachers' tenure of office has been threatened or taken away, leaving their positions subject to the dictation of politically appointed school boards with all the train of evils which follows such a situation. Again, the attack has been on teachers' pensions, where efforts are being made to take the control of pension funds from the contributors and vest it in boards of education who are neither contributors to, nor beneficiaries of, these funds, and who have no interest in their conservation, but may use this power of control over the pension to keep teachers in a proper state of servility.

The most important of all, perhaps, is the tendency to deprive teachers of freedom of speech and action. This is more apparent in the colleges and universities than in the grade schools, but when such an educational leader as Dr. Scott Nearing is first out of his position as an instructor in a university because he dared to teach the truth as he saw it, it is time for all teachers to awake and to realize that if we are to be the teachers of the children of a free people, we must ourselves be free; for children taught by subservient teachers will never develop into citizens with well-balanced ideas of justice and honor, such as a true democracy needs, but will themselves become either subservient or tyrannical.

How far are we ourselves at fault in bringing about this condition? Have we not blindly followed tradition handed down from an age long past where conditions were not at all those of the present day? Have we not shut our eyes to the many forms of oppression and economic injustice all about us?

This condition, I have no doubt, grows largely out of the fact that for hundreds of years those who sought an education went to the great universities and libraries and there spent years poring over books and manuscripts, listening to lectures, and absorbing great quantities of predigested

knowledge oblivious to the great throbbing world of life and labor all about them. They were not only without knowledge of this life, but were not in sympathy with it. Out of these universities came men and women of learning and of culture, but out of touch with the dominant life-forces about them. From this group came the teachers holding fast the standards and traditions set for them. These standards are slowly but surely changing. Little by little we are realizing that education is not all to be found between the covers of books, but that the greatest of all books, that of life itself, is spread wide open all about us; and that to be truly educated we must have, not only a knowledge of this great book of life, but a profound understanding of the economic principles which govern the conditions and control the lives of the people whose children we teach.

Government statistics show that 60 per cent of the wealth of this nation is owned and controlled by 2 per cent of the population. In other words, under our present economic conditions, if \$100 were to be divided among one hundred men, two of the men would receive \$60 while the remaining 98 men would have to content themselves with \$40.

The children of the 2-per-cent class, as a rule, are educated in private schools, hence our problems lie with those of the 98-per-cent class. Under what conditions are these children born and in what kind of homes do they live? How are they clothed and fed? What opportunities have they for natural play? Are their social and moral surroundings good, and have they been given a square deal? If we are to be the real teachers of children, all these problems become our problems, and the solving of them in the right way just as much a part of our duty as following the course of study and putting the children thru the grade.

What is the best way in which to work toward a solution of these problems? How can we best cooperate with other forces in a community working toward the same end?

We can do but little alone. We must unite with others. We as teachers should become a part of the social, civic, and political movements which have for their purpose the bettering of living conditions.

An increase in income always means a higher standard of living, better homes, and more nourishing food. It means that the children are kept in school instead of being sent into shops and factories to add their little mite to the family's revenue. It means that the mothers are able to stay in the homes and give to the children the care they need.

Thousands of children are thrust into industry at an age when they should be in school or at play. They must take the burden of life on their shoulders all unprepared, with bodies immature and minds undeveloped, with moral and social ideals in a chaotic state. The only occupations open to these children are those which call for the hardest work and pay the lowest wages with almost no chance for advancement.

When economic conditions are such that the mothers are compelled to leave the home for long hours at a time and spend those hours at hard labor, the children are denied their birthright of sound bodies, normal minds, and the physical care and moral guidance that every child should have. The teachers are the ones who must take the children as they come out of these homes of poverty and degradation, underfed and insufficiently clothed, and try to build on such a foundation the structure of human life and happiness.

We are the ones who should know that an injustice done to the humblest man or woman reacts upon the entire fabric of society, and that, therefore an injury to one should be the concern of all. We are the ones who touch most nearly the lives of the people and who should understand most clearly the power and influence our teaching has in the life of the community. We should use all this influence so to change conditions as to make it possible for all children to be given the opportunity to grow naturally and happily into the best possible men and women.

If this be our purpose and we are to accomplish it, we must put away many of the traditions of the past and catch step with the present. We must give up worshipping at the shrine of the "God of things as they are," and start a campaign with "Things as they should be" for our slogan. We must demand that teachers be given the rights of citizenship, of organization, of freedom of speech and political action. We must work for tenure laws that will protect the teachers in the positions for which they have fitted themselves by years of training, which will make it possible for them to do their work undisturbed by changing political administrations, and which will protect the children against being subjected to a corps of teachers who, in order to retain their positions, are first into a condition of servility. We must work for political freedom in order that our influence and our votes may be used to help secure the enactment of much-needed legislation. We must work for the right to organize and to unite with other organizations and for freedom of speech. We must have vision and understanding and see to it that our teaching of today will make it possible for the teachers of tomorrow to walk without servility, with heads erect, and unafraid.

EDUCATION OF THE IMMIGRANT

ELSA ALSBERG, SECRETARY, DEPARTMENT OF IMMIGRANT AID, COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN, NEW YORK, N.Y.

A realization of the responsibility of governmental agencies for the education of the adult immigrant is a matter of comparatively recent consciousness on the part of the public. With this consciousness there arose the consideration of methods—of ways and means of reaching the adult alien, to interest him, to ascertain his educational needs, and to devise ways of supplying them.

The various processes of immigrant education are mainly processes of assimilation. They include a knowledge of our customs and institutions, both social and economic. But these are processes fundamentally dependent on a working knowledge of the English language and upon some command of the three R's. As distinct, therefore, from the broader subject of Americanization, which includes educational questions concerning vocational training and a study of civics and American history—of citizenship—I shall confine myself to that phase of immigrant-education which deals with a study of English and elementary subjects with special reference to girls and women.

Without this knowledge of our language the foreigner cannot have that social contact with the native-born that takes him out of the isolation of his "foreign quarter" and introduces him to American customs and ways of living. Without English he cannot have access to that great Americanizing influence—the daily newspaper.

On the economic side also, the non-English-speaking alien is at a great disadvantage. He is unable to learn of opportunities offered. In competition with the English-speaking employe he must be able to understand orders given in English by his "boss," to read signs of warning in factory and streets, printed police and safety regulations, and quarantine placards in the tenement house in which he lives. His industrial advancement depends in a large measure on his ability to speak and understand English and on his having at least a rudimentary education.

Formerly it was taken for granted, and is still by many, that the public night school was the proper and only possible medium, under the supervision of local boards of education, thru which the immigrant could be taught English and simple academic subjects. In most of our large industrial centers the masses of immigrants are not reached by the public night school. In New York as in other large cities an absurdly small percentage of the non-English-speaking residents attend night school. It has been conceded that this is not a proof of any shortcomings on the part of the alien, but on the contrary shows that the night school as at present conducted, does not meet his needs.

Classes should be adapted to the immigrant, and not the immigrant to the classes. A large proportion of our immigrants consists of girls and women—a fact thus far insufficiently emphasized in considering ways and means of educating the alien—and there is a larger percentage of illiteracy among them than among the men. Moreover, few of our foreign women have ever dreamed that they would become United States citizens upon the same terms as men. A little spreading of this knowledge would be a great incentive to women to learn English and to educate themselves for citizenship.

That the public night schools as at present conducted do not meet the educational needs of all immigrants is now generally conceded. It is shown

by the irregularity of attendance, which is quite general, and by the comparatively small numbers enrolled in the schools. To get the alien into the school in large numbers and to keep him there, a system of publicity is advocated. It plans to bring to the attention of the alien the advantages of the school thru printed placards in factories, thru the foreign-language press, and thru groups of men and women speaking English, but living in the "foreign quarter." It seems to me that such publicity might well increase school-attendance but it is very doubtful whether it will succeed in keeping up this attendance thruout the school term.

Various facts account for the failure of the public night schools. Discouragement is one of them. An immigrant has arrived in this country, say in April. He is ambitious and eager to learn English. He immediately enrolls in the night school and finds himself in a class of students of various ages, many of whom have been there for some time. These have acquired so much English that the latest newcomer cannot compete with them and is at once discouraged and drops out of the class—and girls whose families have never considered the need of their education and who have therefore little desire for it, are the most easily discouraged. A girl immigrant decides to enter school. She has worked at a power machine for ten hours of the day and returns home to help the family to get supper and wash dishes; sometimes she does her own laundry work. In spite of her fatigue she plucks up courage, summons her energy, goes to school and enters her classroom. The desks and benches are small and uncomfortable and she feels cramped and unhappy. The class does not see her the next day.

A third immigrant girl comes home from a long and tedious day of enervating work, gets her own supper, and starts out for school. She passes her friends going to the "movies," but she resists. Perhaps she meets her young man who urges her to go for a stroll, but she puts him off until Saturday evening. Nevertheless she longs for excitement and entertainment, which is the natural craving after a deadening and monotonous day. In the classroom she meets a teacher who, after a day of wearying teaching, is too tired to be able to infuse that interest and enthusiasm into the lessons that bring the needed response from her equally tired pupil. The next night the girl goes to the "movie."

Sometimes the teacher who is accustomed to instructing children cannot adapt her methods to the teaching of adult aliens and cannot secure their interests. As a result the class attendance drops.

Irregularity of attendance is also accounted for, in part at least, by the fact that the classes are usually not well graded. Grading by nationality, by previous training and education, or by age have all been advocated. Classes of mixed nationality often show the best results, but previous education should be taken into consideration in order to separate the literate from the illiterate. It may be feasible to make several gradings on the basis of previous education. Together with this, however, should be

coupled the consideration of age. Older people quite naturally prefer studying with others of about the same age and, being more fixt in their habits of mind, often find it difficult to keep up with the younger and more plastic mind. Among the younger immigrants there is a greater enthusiasm, a spirit of wholesome competition. The social stimulus to a class composed of both young men and young women would be a great asset in retaining their interest.

A third consideration in the grading of classes, and one I believe to be particularly important, is by trades. What the immigrant wants is a practical working knowledge of English that will help him to advance both industrially and socially. He desires to learn about his trade and to be able to apply at once what he has learned each evening. Aliens employed in the same trades have like interests. The teaching, if patterned on these interests, will do much to keep up class attendance.

In addition to the elements of discouragement on the part of the immigrant, and the lack of proper grading of classes, there is that of the qualifications of the teacher herself. Teachers who have been working all day are usually too fatigued to give their best efforts to the night school. Moreover, teachers who have been specially trained for, and experienst in, the teaching of children find it very difficult to adapt themselves to the totally different problem of teaching the adult foreigner. It is now generally recognized, but has not yet been generally acted upon, that the public night-school teacher of adults should be specially equipt for this highly specialized type of teaching and that she must also possess, to an unusual degree, personality, sympathy, and a keen understanding of her pupils in their daily lives and national characteristics.

Another point in the failure of the night school is the short term of instruction. It is not enough to offer the immigrant facilities for learning English during the winter months only. Why should the immigrants, who arrive in largest numbers in the spring and summer, be compelled to wait until the following fall or winter before they have an opportunity to learn English? To supply the need of such immigrants as are employed at night (and there are many of these) why cannot we have day schools like the very successful Jones School in Chicago? This school has three grades, a large and regular attendance, and its classes are made up of about eighteen nationalities, of both men and women, and of ages ranging up to fifty years. Why cannot we also introduce more extensively late-afternoon classes for daytime and part-time workers? Short day sessions particularly designed for immigrant mothers with their special interests might also be profitably inaugurated.

All these suggestions for the improvement of the public night school are, however, designed to meet only the needs of immigrants employed in energizing trades. Such immigrants are usually stimulated by their daytime work, frequently possess considerable technical skill, and are ready for

concentration upon studies at night. They will therefore be attracted to the public night school.

To meet the need of the masses of our immigrant population mostly employed in enervating work, much more radical changes in the public night-school system would have to be brought about. The great numbers of men and especially girls who are employed in enervating work thruout a long and monotonous day quite naturally and legitimately crave excitement, relaxation, and the contrast of social pleasures. They are unwilling to add to their fatigue by confining classroom study during their only leisure time for relaxation.

If the school is to attract this class of immigrant it must meet his desires and needs in this direction. In a measure at least it must compete with the appeal of the moving-picture entertainment, the parks, and the dance halls. This means that the entire teaching content, the very nature and constitution of the class, in fact the entire atmosphere of compulsion must be changed. With careful thought this can be done, and the classroom thus adapt its teachings to the needs of the worker. Only in this way can attendance at, and interest in, the night school be assured as far as the majority of our immigrants is concerned.

To secure the desired regular attendance at the public night school, compulsory attendance has been advocated and tried in some communities. It has generally been conceded however, that this is a very unsatisfactory method of securing the desired end. First, it is most difficult to enforce such a law, since truant officers can hardly be employed; secondly, if the adult is not interested, is physically and mentally fatigued, or considers enforced night-school attendance an infringement of his personal liberty, his presence in the class will not bring very satisfactory results.

Unless, then, our public night-school system for the education of adult aliens can be so developed and re-formed as to meet the needs of all classes of immigrants, some other system of education for those doing enervating work all day, must be devised. Various experiments in this direction have been tried. Among these the continuation classes, and in some instances these in conjunction with the cooperative classes, seem to offer the best solution.

Continuation classes presuppose the employer's willingness to give a part of the time of his employes as well as the classroom and its equipment. The local board of education contributes the teacher, books, and supplies. Frequently, especially when trade training is involved, the trade union is asked to cooperate. With this arrangement the employe, who could rarely afford to pay anything toward his own education, loses no part of his wages.

In comparatively few trades have continuation classes been conducted. Here in New York it has been most difficult to enlist the cooperation of employers, especially for classes in English and purely academic subjects. A few continuation classes designed to increase the workers' technical skill,

and a number of classes in hotels and department stores have been established successfully. Unless, however, the big manufacturers' associations can be interested, there is little likelihood that continuation classes can be generally introduced into the unskilled trades. The alternative that will eliminate unfair competition between manufacturers in the same trade and locality seems to be compulsory continuation classes for immigrant employes whose daily work is unskilled and of an enervating nature, and whose educational needs the public night school therefore does not meet.

The introduction of continuation classes presupposes a thoro and careful investigation to ascertain the hours during which the worker can best be spared, to ascertain what subjects and methods will best supplement the work of the employe and make for his greater general efficiency, and to ascertain the type of teacher best fitted to conduct the particular class in question. It may, in fact, be necessary to vary class methods, not only as between different trades, but also in the different processes in the same trade and shop.

Such continuation classes might advantageously be supplemented by cooperative classes conducted during the slack season when the employe works part time or not at all. These cooperative classes might be conducted in the public schools and be designed to dove-tail with the continuation classes.

The continuation-class idea, furthermore, might be extended to meet the need for educating the immigrant mother. Little emphasis has been placed thus far upon this phase of immigrant-education. It was generally taken for granted that it was unnecessary for the mother to know English and something of American customs and institutions so long as her children went to the public school which, in time, would make of them patriotic citizens. If, however, we are to succeed even partially in overcoming that pitiful condition now existing between the younger and older generation, where we find on the one side an unjustifiable arrogance and on the other that helpless resignation due to sheer ignorance of language, we must offer attractive facilities to the immigrant mother to learn English. The immigrant mother's ignorance of all things American does more to disturb the normal healthy family life of our immigrants, to send the children into courts and institutions, than has generally been recognized.

Some immigrant mothers may be induced to attend short day-school sessions if they are designed especially for them. In San Francisco a system of home teachers is now in force. Competent teachers visit in foreign homes where they teach English while imparting simple principles of sanitation and home economics. The Nashville Section of the Council of Jewish Women has had good success in inducing the Americanized daughters of foreign-born parents to teach the latter at home. For mothers with infants, who cannot leave home, the district nurses and settlement workers have done much in this direction. Another suggestion is that a specially qualified

teacher be assigned to teach in one apartment all the mothers living in one entire tenement house. This makes of the tenement house a school and has the advantage, from the mother's point of view, of sociability and proximity, and thus can hold her interest. Whatever method be adopted, it is evident that we no longer can afford to ignore our responsibility for educating the immigrant mother.

To summarize, the public night schools as generally conducted do not meet the needs of the immigrant. Propaganda, proper grading of classes, specially qualified and trained teachers, adequate classroom equipment, daytime classes for adults, and day and night classes conducted thruout the year will develop the present system to the extent of meeting the needs of immigrants employed in the energizing trades and those unusually ambitious and physically robust. It can hardly hope to meet the educational needs of the majority of our immigrants, who are employed in enervating work and require excitement, relaxation, and entertainment in their leisure time. To meet this demand the public night school would need to change its entire teaching attitude and make the classes socially attractive and relate them to the daily interests of the pupils. Classes for girls, especially, would have to be occasions of pleasure.

If the night school is not developed along these lines an entirely different system must be evolved. Of the systems experimentally tried thus far, the continuation class seems most nearly to fill the requirements. Since, however, it is difficult to secure the voluntary cooperation of the employer, such continuation classes in the factory and shops employing unskilled immigrant labor should be made compulsory.

Daytime classes conducted in the public-school buildings during the slack seasons might supplement the continuation classes. To counteract the present tendency toward the alienation of the child from the mother, means should be provided for the latter to learn English, and if possible within the home itself.

The immigrant of either sex wants and needs a working knowledge of the English language and some appreciation of our American customs and institutions. It is time that we not only recognize this fact, but take active measures to supply these needs in acceptable and reasonable form.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN

FANNIE SAXE LONG, WILKESBARRE, PA.

The recently published *Program of Work of the Council of Jewish Women for the Triennial Period of 1914-17* is, in nine chapters, the story of the Jew's appetite for learning, his passion for social reconstruction, his fret for justice, his mania for spending himself in service, and his keen common-

sense in method. Each one of the nine standing committees of the Council contributes a chapter, a record of work done, a line of attack, and a new objective, yet one entirely within human powers of attainment.

Never before has it been so difficult to list the exact work of each committee and hold the educational department in a fixed groove. The Council program is, from cover to cover, a textbook on education. Spilled over the outlines of activities in religion, religious schools, immigrant aid, peace and arbitration, and the rest, is the single standard of "service with sense"—that sense which comes only after an intensive study of a given situation, its spring, its status, its solution. "Loving hearts and willing hands" have their places, but this program deals with the superstructure, the human-pragmatic preparation for service and then the "go-to-it" and "this-way-out!" In fact there is nothing in heaven nor on earth not dreamt of in this philosophy.

If you are asked what relation this philosophy of the Council bears to the work of the Council I should say, "Could all the work which is being done by the 70-odd sections and the nearly 20,000 workers in the Council be assembled in one place, you would see a humanitarianism entirely super-human, for somehow and somewhere, each point that a quickened finger may reach on the rising thermometer of life-standards is being scored in one or another Council section, or it somewhere plans to be." The sections have mounted the latest and most approved models of socio-educational band wagons with Americanization in the lead, with vocational guidance, peace and arbitration, exceptional children's classes, big brotherhoods and sisterhoods, health and social hygiene, and all the other standard and experimental social antitoxins in their kits.

Last year our report called your attention to a special work which this organization was entering upon—that of big-sistering any case of any need of any kind of any Jewish child in the whole school system. There is no need which has not a card awaiting it in the catalog of some one of our committees. Too much tonsil, too few overshoes, too much movies, a lack of violin lessons, may illuminate the meaning of the calls made upon the Council and its readiness to serve. In no community where this "Follow-up" friend serves, has anything but the most cordial and useful relation between school, child, and organization been established. In no way has the super-sensitive "prerogative" of school officials been agitated. It has developed tact in the school friend, perhaps a keen appreciation of the teacher's difficulties. Surely the child profits. Moreover, after the first suspicion, the school men and women have heartily approved of an effort on the part of "outsiders" to do, or at least to offer to do, something that smacks of a new and desirable kind of busybodyness. In this day of professional service this apparent harking back to the dark ages of "volunteer" soft-headedness and soft-heartedness is not at all real. The wise "visiting teacher" does handle well the same problems here presented, but with the new

ache in each community for a useful, satisfying outlet for the talent as well as the training of so many capable college-bred women, this activity of the Council blesses both him that gives and him that takes. Conscientious, intelligent work and a salary are no longer, of necessity, one and inseparable. In the same friendly spirit have the school authorities received copies of a special calendar, one which gives the dates of the important holidays of the Jewish religion, with sufficient quotations from the Bible text to make their inspirational content clear and to justify the request that no important examination nor task be set for that particular day. In most instances this dignified request has been met by a courteous response.

You are surely interested to ask what the Council of Jewish Women believes right in the matter of reading the Bible in the school, singing sectarian hymns, studying the *Merchant of Venice* and *Ivanhoe* and like problems. The Council of Jewish Women is, and aims increasingly to be, the great unit of fellowship among Jewish womanhood. It joins all the tints and shades, with exquisite inseparableness, of the whole rainbow of orthodoxy and reform Judaism. The Council therefore cannot, upon any question of outward form, consistently formulate an opinion that would be acceptable to all its members. Some believe, without possibility of argument, that the Bible has no place in the American ideal of public education. Other members hold that the Bible rescues itself from any situation. Some hold that hymn- and carol-singing outrage American religious liberty. Other members believe that a distinction between music and noise is made at the throne itself, that lip and lung have a separate service from the heart, even according to a recent Massachusetts court decision.

As for the great Shylock and Isaac of York, some hold that Scott and Shakespeare surely provide an unlimited choice for literary dissection, and beg to have spared the sort of soul-vivisection of these Jewish children. Other members, however, see here a real opportunity for the just-minded teacher to allay some hoary, stupid, unbrotherly gibes and if not that, then they choose the purging fire bath for these children's souls while it is yet possible, within the home circle, to soothe them and to interpret for them the rebuffs and discriminations that will surely come to them later. The Jew very generally has little fear that any god can be placed before the great Jehovah; his fear is of godlessness and man's inhumanity to man. And so it is that each Council section must consider these questions in the light of its own dominant opinion and according to the seriousness of the particular situation. You may expect that each section will curb its opinion until, in righteous wrath, it is moved by some real violation. A case in point is the demand of one teacher that all her pupils kneel for morning prayers. Tho hymns may be voice culture, genuflexion is a flying in the face of Jewish interpretation of "Thou shalt not bow down thyself, etc."

It is perhaps just a little inopportune, in these days, to put the loud pedal on any issue that deals with a group. It is perfectly true that the Council of Jewish Women does, fundamentally, plan its service for Jewish children, but there are practical reasons—a matter of pure science. It is easier to lift a part than to move the mass; to raise a social unit before essaying a heterogeneous collection. First, there is never enough money to meet the whole demand; here the demand can very surely count on financial sufficiency. Secondly, there are never enough workers for the whole situation; in this field a kind of Cadmus teeth is sown and an equipt force rises to attack the need. Again, there is never enough single-minded enthusiasm to cover a whole community; here it is easily possible to move as a body.

But altho the Council works thru and for the Jewish people, it holds all classifications man-made—finite and artificial boundaries—and therefore a very large part of the service recorded as important in its program is the modest but vigorous “co” in cooperation with general community activities for compulsory education and other educational legislation, school bond campaigns, free textbooks, public lectures, extended use of school plants, establishment of special classes, settlements, community centers, and recreation, etc.; and with it all the program enjoins each group to undertake an academic study of new standards and methods, sometimes the end being their application, sometimes merely the pursuit of wisdom. It hopes to help accommodate all the members of its own faith to their new level of American advantages and obligations; to smooth the raw edges which they show, to temper the raw edges which they meet.

The Committee on Education, in fact the whole Council, hopes to have a balance of sensible service to the country to offset the problem that its coreligionists bring here. It hopes that thru this group-training it may fix the focus as to need, provide the functioning information as to method, and then be quite swallowed up in the bigger groups, parents' associations, school patrons, and communities that take up the burden. By working for some of the people all the time, and all of the people some of the time, it can sense the occasion, without fooling even themselves, upon which we all can work for all the people all the time.

*REPORT OF THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE
WOMEN*

VIRGINIA S. MCKENNY, VICE-PRESIDENT

The educational work of the Southern Association of College Women has been carried on this year as usual by its Committees on Patrons, Scholarships, College Days, and Standards of Colleges.

The Patrons Committee of the Association, thru local committees, has striven especially to promote interest in the investigation and elimination of illiteracy in all the states represented in the Association. Copies of the *Illiteracy Circular*, compiled by the women of Alabama, were sent to all Patrons-Committee chairmen. Directly or indirectly the committee has been able to stimulate interest in the betterment of illiteracy conditions in Mississippi and Kentucky. It has also cooperated further in the work already in progress in Alabama and North Carolina.

The Committee on Scholarships, working thru scholarship committees in the various local branches, has circulated information among high-school teachers and pupils concerning the seventy standard college scholarships offered thru the Association. Data secured from each college as to its requirements, dates of examination, etc., have been printed in leaflet form and put into their hands. These seventy scholarships vary in value from \$75 to \$300, and the Association may also nominate candidates for the \$600 Pulitzer scholarship at Barnard College.

The College-Day Committee has continued to urge the observance of "college day" by the local branches in order to interest students in going to college. This year extension work was begun along college-day lines. Members of college-day committees were urged to arrange for "college days" in high schools in towns where no branches of the Southern Association of College Women existed. The extension work was successfully carried out in several towns in Alabama and Louisiana. Some branches have found that repeating their "college-day" programs before parent-teacher associations had more effect than the original presentation to high-school students. This appeal to parents is found to be a great help in having the high-school course of the prospective college student planned with reference to college entrance.

Perhaps the most far-reaching educational work of the Association is that connected with the investigation of the standards of southern colleges. To her two pamphlets of former years, *The Improvement in Standards of Southern Colleges*, and *The Approximate Value of Recent Degrees in Southern Colleges*, Elizabeth Avery Colton, president of the Association, has this year added a third, *The Various Types of Southern Colleges for Women*. This pamphlet has been published as one of the regular bulletins of the Association. It is intended primarily to give full information to high-school students concerning the standards and standing of the many institutions in the South bearing the title "College." Classification is made under the following heads: "Standard Colleges," "Approximate Colleges," "Normal and Industrial Colleges," "Junior Colleges," "Unclassifiable Colleges," "Imitation and Nominal Colleges." The main facts about each institution named under the foregoing headings (gathered from catalogs and announcements) are noted in concise form—location, foundation, recognition by various educational organizations, endowment, volumes in library,

number of college students, number of special students, etc. With this definite information at hand, the southern high-school girl should be able to make an intelligent choice of institutions according to the type of training she desires. The pamphlet is one more step forward in the Association's work of research and publicity in connection with the standards of colleges. As this work progresses it is becoming harder for the nominal college, which advertises falsely, to secure students.

The organized work of the Association along these lines is carried on by the Committee on Standards of Colleges. This committee works thru the local committees to secure discussion of standards of colleges and general publicity calculated to emphasize the importance of genuine standards in the institutions of the South. This committee is fast becoming a bureau of information as to the work and standing of southern institutions. Inquiries come from examiners and deans of some of our largest and best universities, from branch members, and from outsiders totally unknown to the committee. Often smaller institutions come to the committee for advice as to the improvement of their curriculum and catalog. The committee is also gratified to note that the work that the Association began and has carried on thru the Standards of Colleges Committee is being reinforced more and more by the cooperation of outside agencies. This committee reports that a number of individual institutions have shown evidences of progress during the year, and that others near the bottom of the Association's list have been discontinued or merged with other schools.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ELIZABETH MCMANUS, CHAIRMAN, CLINIC DEPARTMENT, LOS ANGELES
FEDERATION OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS, LOS ANGELES, CAL.

We live under a government we call democratic, founded indeed that all men might have an equal chance of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; for equality of rights is the very life-blood of democracy. But no hopes nor dreams can produce a race of men born equal. Democracy can be achieved only thru an equality of opportunity which shall counterbalance the inequalities of birth. Today we are a heterogeneous people. Immigrants have come to us by millions, not only from widely differing races, but from classes whose standard of living is far below our own, men who have been aptly called "the beaten of beaten races." Rapidly our nation has grown away from its democratic form. Classes have arisen and distinctions of caste have come to separate our people. But still in our hearts lives an ideal, the realization of which means welding these diverse elements into one race. It is with this thought that I proceed with my subject.

An attempt to outline a system for carrying on social service in the schools would cripple my purpose from the start by placing limitations where they should not exist; for each city, district, and school must, necessarily, work out its own problems, as no system could adequately meet the needs of all.

However, I do maintain that under existing conditions in most cities the school is the center that touches the greatest number of homes, and therefore is in a better position than any other public agency for understanding social problems and helping to solve them.

Originally the state regarded the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with an occasional flourish thrown in, as the essentials necessary to citizenship, but gradually an awakening has come and we are asking ourselves over and over again, "What is the purpose of education?" Is the system turning out citizens of the highest caliber? In what have we failed, and how can we remedy our system that we may turn out a higher degree of citizenship?

We are coming to know that there is not a problem which touches the human race that cannot be solved by proper education.

If this is true, to what lengths should the state be willing to go to develop its children? I believe that only the strictest economy is practised when we give to the child the best that can be obtained, and when we have left nothing undone in developing him into the highest type of citizenship. This can be done only by intelligent study of the child and by a careful adjustment of the system to meet the needs of the child, instead of forcing the child to fit the system, as has been the rule in the past, and is in many instances of the present. Education in the past has consisted in gathering together, out of books, a number of facts, and the child with the best memory on examination day was considered the brightest pupil.

The teachers of tomorrow will be those chosen because of an understanding and reverence for life, and because they are the true ministers of the race. Like the artist, the poet, and the musician, they will appeal to the intelligence, and will endeavor to inspire by striking at the keynote of the soul, rather than at externals. They will go back to the original meaning of the word "education," and will, as the word indicates, endeavor to draw out the latent powers of the individual.

This larger and broader view of education is related to the social work in our schools, and as I am a resident of Los Angeles, Cal., and know only of the work being carried on there, I shall confine myself to telling you of that.

I will commence with the ungraded room, which was one of the first developments added to the school system, and which is founded on the dual proposition that, first, there is something the matter with some of the children which renders them misfits, and secondly, there is something wrong with the grade-school system which makes it inadequate to reach

every child. These special rooms are a step in the right direction; for in them the child is much less likely to be "machine made."

The teachers must consider such children as individuals; for, as the word "ungraded" indicates, the children are of different ages and at different stages of development, and therefore the regular routine work done in the graded room naturally is left out. In Los Angeles we have six types of ungraded rooms, classified in the following order:

1. For children considered normal or nearly normal and who, for any cause, are working at a serious disadvantage in the regular classes. In this type of ungraded room the maximum enrolment is from 20 to 24 to a teacher. Some rooms are primary, some advanced, and such rooms serve as a center for a group of different schools.

2. Ungraded rooms known as special schools, open to truants and incorrigibles, with a maximum enrolment of 15.

3. Permanent ungraded rooms, open to pupils who are extremely dull or queer, with an enrolment that runs in some cases as high as 30.

4. Classes for defective children manifesting enough intelligence to place them above the institutional cases.

5. Parental schools where children, without adequate parental control—usually those who have made a start in juvenile vice and crime—are entered.

6. Deaf classes, both primary and advanced, using lip methods only, and enrolling seven pupils to each teacher. Another step in the right direction is the work being done by our Health and Development Department. At present we have a staff of eleven physicians and seven nurses, doing the examination work in our schools, making physical, and some mental, tests and giving in our high and intermediate schools lessons in hygiene.

At the Parent-Teacher Clinic, which was started by the Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, but which is now largely supported by the school department, we have dentists and physicians who administer to the children that are sent to them by the schools, and these dentists and physicians also give such care as is necessary to establish the health of the child.

In this "clinic" (which name is a misnomer, for it really is not a clinic in the common understanding of the word, inasmuch as no students ever practice there) we have the following departments: dental, eye, ear, nose, throat, general medicine, osteopathic, and a class for the correction of speech defects, such as stammering and so forth.

We are soon to move into a new building—a gift from one of our philanthropists—and shall then endeavor to do even broader work; for we hope to have lectures to mothers on hygiene, dietetics, care of children's teeth, etc., as we realize that the most important task we can accomplish will be along practical lines.

We have a special type of school known as "the neighborhood school," where the particular needs of the neighborhood in which the school is located are looked after.

In some of our neighborhood schools you will find such social work as the following: the day nursery, with a competent woman in charge looking after any number of little children who are not yet old enough to enter kindergarten, but who must be looked after while their usual caretakers—their older brothers and sisters—are in school. Their mothers cannot take care of them because most of these women are first to go to different parts of the city during the day to work.

In the day nursery you will find a group of happy children who are bathed and fed, and provided with little beds to sleep in, and a sand pile and blocks and games to play with. Surely, a reliable, true melting-pot is this day nursery, where children of all nationalities are properly taught Americanism. Another interesting and useful phase of the day nursery is the training many high-school girls are receiving; for they take turns in assisting at the nurseries and gain by actual experience the lessons on how to care for a baby.

The penny lunch is another constructive part of our school system. Here the child is provided with a bowl of warm, nourishing soup, and as much bread as he can eat, for one penny, any deficit that may occur being made up by the school department. If the child has no penny he is given the soup and bread.

Often this meal is the only one provided. What sense or economy is there in trying to cram a hungry child with rules and regulations when he is in need of food? What sense is there in trying to hold the attention of a child who has an ulcerated tooth and can think of nothing but the pain? What sense is there in educating, in the regular way, a hopelessly tubercular child, or a child who is approaching blindness or deafness?

In the neighborhood schools may also be found cooking classes and sewing classes, where not only the children of the school are taught, but where the mothers of the neighborhood are gathered in and taught how to cut garments and how properly to prepare the kinds of food they like best. Most of this work is done by the teacher, whose classes are dismissed at two o'clock and who must remain until three. This hour and one which the teacher contributes as her offering to society afford the time for this work and the teaching of English, etc.

And in these schools too, not only are the children taught to wash and iron, but the mothers are permitted on certain days and hours to do their family washing. The school gardens, where boys and girls may get out in the open and learn so many of the lessons of nature, have already proved a boon to many a fortunate child, who has been able to avail himself of this opportunity for self-discovery. Besides, the results which are in evidence, even in the poorest of homes, where tiny little plots are planted,

clearly indicate that the object-lesson of the school garden has been learned.

In Los Angeles we have come to a full realization of the great importance of the leisure time of our boys and girls.

We know that our schools employ only a very small share of the child's time, and we feel that the unoccupied time is almost, if not fully, as important as his occupied time.

To meet this great problem we have organized night schools; summer schools, running thru six weeks of the summer months; the extended school day, and other departments to take up the slack time of our boys and girls. The night schools have been running only a few years, yet the enrolment for the year just closed ran into the thousands, and the courses of study offered in these schools covered all the subjects offered in the regular day schools. Our summer schools last year enroled hundreds of boys and girls who worked industriously and with enthusiasm during the entire term. It is an interesting fact to note, in connection with the summer schools, that the number of students taking advanced work was much greater than the number who were studying to make up back credits.

We have an agricultural high school, a marine high school, and a technical high school, and, of course, the regular classical high schools. We have the intermediate school to bring the high and elementary schools closer together. In our elementary schools we have special departments for music, drawing, cooking, sewing, manual training, and agriculture.

And all these, the specialized high school, the intermediate school, and the special elementary-school departments, have been organized in the interests of the child, endeavoring, not so much to give him a groundwork for entering life after he finishes school, but to bring him in touch with life as it is while he yet is in school, with the thought that if he is to be a mechanic we will provide him the training for a mechanic and not the training for a lawyer; and if he is to be a lawyer or a doctor or a farmer we may provide him the right training for his life-work. Such a plan is not only specializing—it is vitalizing.

We maintain that everything which helps to create a sound mind in a sound body belongs to, and is a part of, the public-school system.

ADMINISTRATION AND METHOD IN HIGH-SCHOOL PHYSICAL TRAINING FOR GIRLS

JOSEPHINE BEIDERHASE, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL TRAINING,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

In the short time allotted to me for this paper, it is not possible to cover a subject of such wide scope as my title implies; I will, however, endeavor to give a brief outline of the methods used in New York City to interest our high-school girls in such vital topics as health and strength.

On entering the high school the girl finds herself in a new environment. She now has a teacher who teaches only physical training—a teacher who is vitally interested in this important subject and who is giving her entire life for the physical and moral welfare of those girls who come under her direction. The girl enters, perhaps for the first time, a well-equipped gymnasium with locker rooms, shower-baths and examination room. She is impressed with the business like air of the entire department; she is required to get a trim gymnasium costume consisting of black bloomers, plain white middie blouse, black tie, black stockings, and black gymnasium shoes. All this interests the girl; she returns to her home and talks about it; the mother is thoroughly familiar with the name of the “gymnasium teacher” and her demands before she has even heard the names of the other teachers who now instruct her daughter. This is the psychological time for making a great impression on the enthusiasm of the adolescent, and I can safely say that the women high-school teachers of physical training in New York City are doing their utmost to make the 25,000 girls whom they instruct, healthy, happy, and efficient.

Physical education is a broad term and includes first and foremost instruction in right living, such instruction to be given in part thru talks on personal hygiene. The individual advice for establishing correct habits of personal hygiene is based on the results of the physical examination and routine inspection; these the girl receives on her entrance to high school and at stated times thereafter; the inspection is strictly followed up, and each girl is required to report to the nurse or physical-training teacher until all temporary disturbances are cleared up.

On pp. 803 and 804 is a copy of the card used for physical training and hygiene record and physical examination.

Physical training is compulsory, and a passing mark is required for promotion and graduation. Two forty-minute periods a week during the entire course of four years has been the requirement for both boys and girls; according to the new state law this time will be greatly increased.

A graded and uniform course of study is in operation in the high schools in New York City; this work has been carefully planned by the teachers themselves in conference with the director and assistant director of physical training. The program includes:

1. Marching, running, skipping, and tactics.
2. Formal gymnastic exercises which include freehand exercises, those done with light apparatus, and those on fixed or heavy apparatus.
3. Dancing, including folk, natural, and classical.
4. Gymnastic games.
5. After-school athletics and athletic games, including walking, swimming, field hockey, horseback-riding, tennis, basket-ball and indoor baseball.
6. Special classes for the correction of faulty posture.

PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE RECORD (taken by nurse and physical-training teacher)

GIRLS
TRAINING SCHOOL

HIGH SCHOOL

P. S. No. I I II III IV I II

NAME	I	I	II	III	IV	I	II
Date							
Address							
Age							
Class							
Height							
Weight							
Posture—Habitual							
On Command							
Feet—Spine							
Cleanliness, Teeth (cavities)							
Nails (biting)							
Skin							
Clothing							
Routine Exam.—Hair							
Eyes							
Skin							
M. Age 1st							
Regularity							
Duration							
Pain							
Symptoms of Illness, Constipation							
Headache, or others							
Excused from Physical Training							
Reasons:							
Nature of work omitted							
Physical-Training Mark							
Examiner							

The various phases of physical training enumerated under 1, 2, 3, and 4 are combined in a forty-minute lesson in such a way as to be at once interesting and effective. The plan combines both neuro-muscular training and vigorous exercise.

In this lesson plan, which was devised by C. Ward Crampton and which is in use in the high and elementary schools of New York City, there are two fundamental ideas, namely, simplicity and purpose. The exercises are preferably simple and well known, and the purpose of each exercise is thoroughly understood by the pupil as well as by the teacher.

The lesson is divided into five parts:

1. Introductory exercises: for mental and physical preparation for the lesson.
2. Corrective exercises: elevation exercises to develop good posture; raising chest and head, straightening trunk.
3. Educational exercises: for alertness, inhibition, and accuracy.
4. Hygienic exercises: vigorous exercises done to rhythm, designed to stimulate the action of the heart and lungs and to train in endurance.
5. Recreative exercises: for informal educational training and hygienic results.

THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

JAMES E. WEST, CHIEF SCOUT EXECUTIVE, BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

I am particularly appreciative of the opportunity for addressing this group in connection with the great National Education Association Convention on the work of the Boy Scouts of America. Here in New York and indeed thruout the whole country the organization of the Boy Scouts of America has been greatly aided by men who are leaders in physical education.

Aiming as we do to supplement the work of existing agencies, it is logical for all interested in physical education to take an active and definite part in promoting our program.

The reports from the War Department show that of the state militia drafted for federal service in the present emergency, from 15 per cent to 65 per cent of the men from various states sent to the border have been rejected because of lack of physical fitness. Again the records of the United States government show that of the men who apply for enlistment in the marine corps, 90 per cent are rejected because they are not physically fit, the percentage in New York City alone being as high as 97 per cent plus, while in Los Angeles, Cal., it is 66 per cent plus. These figures are based upon records made by United States officials and cover the United States Marine Corps recruiting service for the entire country. Other facts

might be cited to show the serious lack of physical development and fitness of the average American citizen.

Because of the European war and recent Mexican developments, the country is alarmed and aroused, and an earnest effort is being made by many well-meaning people to impose the burden of military preparedness upon our schools and upon the boys in their "teen" age. It is true that much of the agitation and resulting hysteria shows a lack of knowledge of what is properly covered by the term "military training," nevertheless it does show an earnestness and patriotism on the part of those who are advocating this or that method for correcting existing conditions which must be reckoned with.

Again, if those who are leaders in physical education would come forward with a definite program of instruction which would greatly improve the physical condition of the product of our public schools and colleges, I feel confident that the most radical advocates of the technical military training would be satisfied with it as a preliminary program and would be content to have their strictly military program commence at a more mature age and at the point where the physical training left off. It is because so little has been done that those who are concerned about our country's lack of preparedness are advocating the introduction of what is unfairly called "military training" in our public schools.

As a matter of fact, in the programs of many of our most progressive schools as well as in the program of the Boy Scouts of America, a great deal of what is practically understood as military training is given very effectively. Indeed I am told by many of our people who have been to Plattsburg that a great proportion of the program of the Plattsburg and other strictly military training camps is included in the program of the Boy Scouts of America.

It is just as important that boys and girls be taught how to live and how to care for themselves and what to do in emergencies in order to prepare them to be good school teachers, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, clerks, to engage in any of the trades, or to work as a day laborer on the streets, as it is to prepare them to withstand the test of army service in time of war.

Those things which make for discipline, obedience, loyalty, endurance, initiative, alertness, good health, knowledge of how to care for oneself, etc., should not be considered distinctive military training, but should be given to all boys and girls in order properly to prepare them primarily for their later responsibilities as home-makers, wage-earners, and citizens. It was upon this theory that Lieutenant General Sir Robert S. S. Baden-Powell formulated the program which is being followed the world over by regularly organized boy scouts.

The purely technical military training, which experience shows is unwisely given to groups of young boys as cadets, simply occupies valuable

time and crowds out a program of other activities which would, in the judgment of those promoting scouting, prove more effective and beneficial in securing the desired results.

General Baden-Powell in speaking on this subject recently said:

My own experience as a soldier includes having served as a cadet, having commanded cadets, and having seen them in most of the overseas dominions; but this experience does not lead me to think that, under their usual organization and training, they are of supreme value for military purposes. In my own territorial division, when I suggested the formation of Cadet Corps as feeders to the various battalions, not one of the commanding officers of those battalions desired to have them.

The difficulty of obtaining really first-class officers and instructors to train boys is very great, and unless you have them you are likely to do more harm than good from the military point of view. More than one officer has told me that he would rather have raw recruits to train than ex-cadets, since, as a rule, these have so much to unlearn.

Aside from the exceptional instances where school buildings are equipt with gymnasiums, athletic fields, and other facilities for physical training, the school authorities' opportunity for official action is limited to the brief period with the boys under the direct control of the schools. Manifestly this is not adequate. Plans must therefore be considered to reach the boy during his leisure time thru some form of recreational activity which will result in bringing about physical preparedness. This is where the Boy Scouts of America, the playground movement, and other kindred movements very definitely provide a supplement to the work of the directors of physical education and the school work proper.

Already important steps have been taken because of the necessity for definite action. New York State has created a so-called military-training commission, consisting of three men who have complete and absolute power to develop a program of training of not more than three hours in each week to be given to all boys over the age of fifteen who are not employed. Undoubtedly other states will enact legislation to meet the situation.

It is for us who believe, as I hope all here do, that physical preparedness is the greatest need of America, actively to interest ourselves in seeing to it that whatever legislation of this character may be enacted will be along lines calculated to secure the best results for our country. We should all cooperate with those to whom authority is given, and aid in the development of programs which will give the boys proper physical development as well as the proper point of view as to their patriotic duty.

The Boy Scouts of America must frankly confess that, notwithstanding the fact that at present we have over 42,000 men who are performing volunteer service in various parts of the country in order to make our program available to 190,000 boys who are registered as scouts, as an organization we cannot reasonably expect to provide sufficient leadership to reach all the boys of the country of the teen age for whom something should be done outside of this school. We believe, however, whenever it

is possible to have scout troops organized, that boys who are under proper leadership following the prescribed scout program should be excused from participation in any other compulsory form of training for preparedness.

The simplicity of the plan of organization of the Boy Scouts of America makes it possible for troops to be organized just as rapidly as competent leadership is available. Commissions are granted to men of good character upon the recommendation of three or more accredited representatives of the institution who are citizens of the community; and, in case the troop is to be organized in a large community, upon the additional recommendation of the proper officials of a chartered local council.

The appeal to the boy's imagination thru the word "scout," the recognition of the principle of self-government, and the placing of a boy on his honor have all been very effective. Likewise the total absence of the use of the word "don't" or anything of a negative character has been effectively cared for by placing emphasis upon "do." As a scout, the boy willingly adopts as real and vital the universally accepted principles of right living as set forth in the scout oath and law. This effectively influences the boy's nature and character so as better to prepare him for that work which the church can best do. A scout promises upon his honor to do his duty to God and to his country, to obey the scout law, to help other people at all times, and to keep himself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.

In scouting, the boy does not stand still. The opportunity and incentive for progress are always at hand. He first becomes a "tenderfoot," then a "second-class scout," and then a "first-class scout." After this the whole sphere of the scout program is made available by the boy's own application to qualify himself to pass tests for the various merit badges, which cover a wide range of interesting and practical subjects. We find that a boy takes up a hobby with the same zest with which he plays tennis or football, and that this hobby, under proper leadership, may guide him to the realization of the thing he is best fitted to do as a life-work. In other words, we transfer the efforts of the boy from idle play or harmful mischief to vital achievements.

Of course, all here understand that the scout program is built around the out-of-doors. All that is necessary is the out-of-doors, a group of boys, and a leader. Not only are nearly all the requirements for the first three degrees based on the out-of-doors, but the same is true of 90 per cent of the subjects for which we give merit badges, some of which are athletics, camping, conservation, cooking, cycling, forestry, life-saving, pathfinding, personal health, physical development, pioneering, public health, swimming, etc.

To obtain a Merit Badge for Personal Health, a scout must:

1. Write a statement on the care of the teeth, and show that his teeth are in good condition as a result of proper care.

2. State a principle to govern in eating; and state in the order of their importance five rules to govern the care of his health.

3. Present satisfactory evidence that he has not been absent from school or work for a period of at least six months as a result of his failure to observe these rules.

4. Tell the difference in effect of a cold bath and a hot bath.

5. Describe the effects of alcohol and tobacco on the growing boy.

6. Tell how to care for the feet on a march.

7. Describe a good, healthful game and state its merits.

8. Describe the effects of walking as an exercise.

9. Tell the dangers of specialization and overtraining in the various forms of athletics, and the advantages of an all-round development.

Congress has just past a bill, which was approved by President Wilson, granting a federal charter to the Boy Scouts of America. In the bill for reorganizing the army a provision was included prohibiting the use of uniforms, any part of which is similar to the United States Army uniform. Exception was specifically granted, however, to the Boy Scouts of America. As a result of these two laws the use of the uniform, badges, and insignia of the organization is limited to regularly registered members of the Boy Scouts of America, and any unauthorized use of the name of the organization, of the term "boy scouts," or of our badges and insignia for purposes of commercial exploitation or other private interests, is made unlawful.

The movement has, since the date of organization, received the support of the foremost citizens of the country, financially and otherwise, and at the present time it has, as its honorary president, the president of the United States, and as honorary vice-presidents, the two ex-presidents of the United States. A large number of governors of the states serve as honorary members of the National Council, and in all our large cities a selected group of representative citizens give direction and leadership to the movement.

We differ from other attempts to do organized work for boys in that we maintain standards. Our insignia for tenderfoot, second-class, and first-class scouts, and our various merit badges are awarded under very carefully safeguarded conditions. This helps in maintaining the respect and active interest of boys and is an important element in our success in establishing the movement on a permanent basis.

Every step in the scouting program is for character-development and good citizenship. The variety and interest, as well as the practical knowledge insured by the tenderfoot, second-class, first-class, and various merit-badge tests are, after all, but a means for holding the interest of the boy, pledged to the scout oath and law, under such leadership as will bring about character-development. The form of troop-organization, the scoutmaster, and his assistants, the local council, and indeed the National Council and all its officers are but means to this end. This character-

development manifests itself in health, efficiency, chivalry, loyalty, patriotism, good citizenship, and joyous living. Time will not permit a detailed description of the plan of organization and methods of procedure, but free bulletins can be had on inquiry at the National Headquarters, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

The Boy Scouts of America maintain that no boy can grow into the best kind of citizen without recognizing his obligations to God. The recognition of God as the ruling and leading power of the universe, and the grateful acknowledgment of his favors and blessings are necessary to the best type of citizenship, and are wholesome in the education of the growing boy. No matter what the boy may be—Catholic or Protestant or Jew—this fundamental need of good citizenship should be kept before him.

The organization of the Boy Scouts of America therefore recognizes the religious element in the training of the boy, but is absolutely non-sectarian in its attitude toward that religious training. Its policy is that the religious organization or institution with which the scout troop or the individual scout is associated should give definite attention to the boy's religious life.

In thus making available to boys of all classes a common meeting-ground where they may play and compete and learn to know that the other fellow is not much different from themselves, the boy-scout movement is performing a distinctive and important patriotic service, and the observance of the scout law, the tremendous cumulative value of the required daily good turn, and the creation of better feeling among millions of scouts in our own and other lands constitute a latent, but powerful and rapidly growing, factor for universal good-will and the brotherhood of man.

DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

OFFICERS

- President*—ELIZABETH E. FARRELL, inspector of ungraded classes, Department of Education,
New York, N.Y.
Vice-President—LEWIS M. TERMAN, associate professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior
University, Stanford University, Cal.
Secretary—FRANCES E. CHENEY, teacher of special classes.....Springfield, Mass.

GENERAL MEETING

A general meeting was held each day, following the several group meetings, in Public School No. 27, at which Elizabeth E. Farrell presided.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Address of Welcome—Gustave Straubenmüller, acting superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

"Delinquency and Mental Defect"—Katherine Bement Davis, chairman, Parole Commission, New York, N.Y.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

Address of Welcome—Andrew W. Edson, associate superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

"The Mis-Fit Child"—Thomas W. Salmon, M.D., medical director, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York, N.Y.

The following Committee on Nominations was appointed by the chair:

- Ada M. Fitts, Boston, Mass.
Elizabeth Walsh, New York, N.Y.
Frances E. Cheney, Springfield, Mass.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

Address of Welcome—Ira S. Wile, M.D., Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Child Labor and Its Relation to Illiteracy"—A. J. McKelway, southern secretary, National Child-Labor Committee, New York, N.Y.

"Prevention of Delinquency"—Woods Hutchinson, M.D., New York, N.Y.

The following officers, as recommended by the nominating committee, were elected:

President—Daniel P. McMillan, director, department of child-study and educational research, Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.

Vice-President—Elsie M. Seguin, Seguin School, Orange, N.J.

Secretary—Nellie A. Goodhue, director, child-study laboratory, Seattle, Wash.

GROUP MEETINGS

Blind Children

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

May E. Angus, Public School No. 44, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"The Status of the Blind Individual in a Community"—C. Rudolph Dieffenbach, member of the New Jersey State Commission for the Blind.

Discussion—W. I. Scandlin, field agent of the New York Association for the Blind, New York, N.Y.

“Educational Work of a State Commission”—Marion A. Campbell, secretary, New York State Commission for the Blind, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Lucy Wright, general superintendent, Massachusetts Commission for the Blind, Boston, Mass.

Classroom demonstration—pupils of public schools for blind children.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

Agnes M. Blakeley, Public School No. 30, New York, N.Y., chairman.

“History of the Education of the Blind—Methods and Ideals”—Lydia Y. Hayes, supervisor, New Jersey State Work for the Blind, Trenton, N.J.

Discussion—Eben P. Morford, superintendent, Blind Men’s Industrial Home, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Charles B. Hayes, director of work of the blind, Brooklyn, N.Y.

“Education of Blind Children with Special Reference to the Public Schools of the City of New York”—Andrew W. Edson, associate superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Katharine A. McCann, principal, Public School No. 17, New York, N.Y.

“Public Libraries for the Blind”—Lucile C. Goldthwaite, librarian for the blind, public schools, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Ida M. Bahr, department for the blind, public schools, New York, N.Y.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

Gertrude E. Farrell, Public School No. 171, New York, N.Y., chairman.

Demonstration of physical training, in charge of Adele Smith, supervisor of physical training of handicapt children, public schools, New York, N.Y.

“Saving the Sight of School Children”—Gordon L. Berry, acting secretary, National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—M. B. Beales, M.D., Department of Health, New York, N.Y.

Classroom demonstration—sewing, knitting, crocheting, tatting, Braille reading and writing.

Crippled Children

Julia F. O’Bieme, president, Association of Public School Teachers of Crippled Children, New York, N.Y., chairman.

Demonstrations—In charge of Grace M. Anderson, Public School No. 162, Brooklyn, N.Y.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

“Charitable Organizations Help”—Babette Goldman, principal, East Side Free School for Cripples, New York, N.Y.

Lecture—Charlton Wallace, M.D., professor of orthopedic surgery, Hospital for the Ruptured and Crippled, New York, N.Y.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

“Industrial Work for Crippled Children”—Mary M. Perry, Boston, Mass.

“The Work of the Widener Memorial Industrial Training School for Crippled Children”—Mrs. D. B. Creamer, head of academic department, Widener School, Philadelphia, Pa.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

“Cooperation between Educators and Physicians in Classes for Cripples”—Henry Ling Taylor, M.D., professor of orthopedic surgery, Post Graduate Hospital, New York, N.Y.

Deaf Children

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Carrie Wallace Kearns, principal, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y., chairman.

“The Problem”—Carrie Wallace Kearns, New York, N.Y.

"Introductory Explanation of the Analytic Synthetic Method of Teaching Reading to Deaf Children"—D. Frances Kauffman, assistant to principal, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

"Explanation of the Correlative Language Work for the Deaf, Taught in Connection with Reading"—D. Frances Kauffman, assistant to principal, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

"Rhythm"—Pattie Thomason, Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf, Providence, R.I.

Discussion—Mary A. Aymar, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

Andrew W. Edson, associate city superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y., chairman.

Opening address—Andrew W. Edson, New York, N.Y.

Demonstration—Pupils of Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

"Teaching of Language"—Harris Taylor, principal, Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

D. Frances Kauffman, assistant to principal, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"The Physical Side of the Deaf Child"—George B. McAuliffe, special physician, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.

"The Utilization of Residual Hearing"—John Dutton Wright, Wright Oral School, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Miss Connery, Buffalo, N.Y.; Miss B. N. Leonard, Northampton, Mass.; Harris Taylor, New York, N.Y.; Elbert A. Gruver, Rome, N.Y.; Richard O. Johnson, Indianapolis, Ind.; Miss Hinkley, Richmond, Va.

"Measurement of Efficiency in Schools for the Deaf"—Richard O. Johnson, superintendent, State School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Ind.

"The Pintner Tests"—Walter M. Kilpatrick, American School for the Deaf, Hartford, Conn.

Delinquent Children

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Olive N. Jones, principal, Public School No. 120, Probationary, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"The Juvenile Court of New York City"—Franklin C. Hoyt, chief justice, Children's Court, New York, N.Y.

"The Delinquent"—Edgar Dubs Shimer, district superintendent of schools, chairman, Board of Parole, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Bernard J. Fagan, acting chief probation officer, Children's Court, New York, N.Y.

"The Girl Delinquent"—Amy S. Everal, superintendent, Lancaster School for Girls, Lancaster, Mass.

Discussion—Jessie B. Colburn, president, Association of Women Principals of Public Schools, New York, N.Y.

"The Big-Sister Movement"—Mrs. Sidney C. Borg, Jewish Big-Sisters Movement, New York, N.Y.

Demonstration—Pupils of Public School No. 120, Probationary, New York, N.Y.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

Lucille Nicol, Public School No. 61, Brooklyn, N.Y., chairman.

Demonstration—School exercise by teachers and pupils of Public School No. 61, Probationary, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"Organized Charity and the Delinquent"—Siegfried Geisman, superintendent, Brooklyn Hebrew Orphan Asylum, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"The Preservation of the Home and the Family"—Grace Strachan, district superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

"Preserving the Family"—Joseph V. S. McClancy, superintendent, parochial schools, Diocese of Brooklyn, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"The Social Worker"—Henry W. Thurston, director of child welfare, School of Philanthropy, New York, N.Y.
 "The Work of the Visiting Teacher"—Ruth True, Children's Bureau, Washington, D.C.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

Robert R. Todd, principal, Parental School, Flushing, N.Y., chairman.
 "The Work of the Bureau of Attendance, New York City Schools"—John W. Davis, director, Attendance Bureau, New York, N.Y.

Fresh-Air Class

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Isabelle E. Sanders, supervisor, fresh-air classes, New York, N.Y., chairman.
 "History of the Fresh-Air Classes in New York City, 1910-16"—Ogden Woodruff, M.D., medical inspector, open-air classes, New York, N.Y.
 "The Need of Fresh-Air Classes in Public Schools"—Harriet A. Tupper, principal, Public School No. 58, New York, N.Y.

Speech-Improvement

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Dennis J. McDonald, M.D., professor of rhinology and laryngology, New York Polyclinic School and Hospital, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"Speech-Improvement"—Dennis J. McDonald, M.D., Fellow of Academy of Medicine, New York, N.Y.

"The Mission of the Speech Specialist"—James S. Greene, M.D., director, New York Institute for Speech Defects, New York, N.Y.

"What is a 'Speech Clinic'?"—Walter B. Swift, M.D., special clinic for speech disorder, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Mass.

"The Clinic, Its Place in the Correction of Speech Defects"—Mrs. E. W. Scripture, neurological department, Vanderbilt Clinic, New York, N.Y.

"Tone and Hearing"—George B. McAuliffe, M.D., New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Dennis J. McDonald, M.D., member, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.; Walter B. Swift, M.D., Boston, Mass.; John F. Reigart, principal, Public School No. 166, New York, N.Y.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

John F. Reigart, principal, Public School No. 166, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"Speech-Improvement in the Chicago Public Schools"—Miss Lyon, department of correction of defective speech, public schools, Chicago, Ill.

"Speech Work in the Detroit Public Schools"—Mrs. Frank A. Reed, principal, Reed School, Detroit, Mich.

"The Need of Speech Work in the High Schools"—Alma M. Bullowa, Hunter College, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Samuel S. Curry, president, School of Expression, Boston, Mass.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

John F. Reigart, principal, Public School No. 166, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"Speech-Correction as a School Problem"—John F. Reigart, New York, N.Y.

Demonstration—Public School No. 166, New York, N.Y.

"Games and Exercise to Develop the Sense of Rythm"—Elsa Katz, Public School No. 166, New York, N.Y.

"What the Teacher Should Know of the Speech Organs"—Otto Glogan, M.D., nose and throat department, Vanderbilt Hospital, New York, N.Y.

"Oral Deformities in Their Relation to Defective Speech"—Vethake E. Mitchell, D.D.S., New York, N.Y.

SATURDAY, JULY 8

Ira S. Wile, Board of Education, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"The Economic Value of Speech-Correction"—Ira S. Wile, M.D., member, New York City Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Mrs. E. W. Scripture, in charge of speech work, neurological department, Vanderbilt Clinic, New York, N.Y.; Walter B. Swift, M.D., special clinic for speech disorder, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Mass.

Ungraded Classes

WEDNESDAY, JULY 5

Barbara Spofford Morgan, New York University, New York, N.Y., chairman.

"The Principal's Point of View of the Selection of Children for Special Classes"—Margaret Knox, principal, Public School No. 15, New York, N.Y.

"The Binet Scale and the Diagnosis of Feeble-Mindedness"—Lewis M. Terman, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.

Discussion—Samuel B. Heckman, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.; Arthur C. Jelly, M.D., department of special classes, Boston, Mass.; Frederick W. Ellis, director, social research department, Neurological Institute of New York, New York, N.Y.; Robert J. Melville, director, psychological laboratory, school of pedagogy, Board of Public Education, Philadelphia, Pa.; Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, Plainfield, N.J.

THURSDAY, JULY 6

Ada M. Fitts, supervisor, special classes, Boston, Mass., chairman.

"Training of Teachers for Special Classes"—James G. Riggs, principal, State Normal and Training School, Oswego, N.Y.

"The Work of the Teacher of the Special Class"—Samuel B. Allison, district superintendent in charge of special schools, Chicago, Ill.

Discussion—Ruth G. McGray, district superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.; Benjamin Viets, district superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.; Elizabeth E. Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes, New York, N.Y.; Barbara Spofford Morgan, New York University, New York, N.Y.; A. Leila Martin, psychological laboratory, school department, Rochester, N.Y.; Elizabeth A. Walsh, assistant inspector of ungraded classes, New York, N.Y.

FRIDAY, JULY 7

Frances E. Cheney, committee for the study of the feeble-minded, Springfield, Mass., chairman.

"The Necessity for After Care of Children Discharged from Special Classes"—Howard J. Banker, Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.

"How to Fill the Gap between the Special Classes and Institutions"—Ada M. Fitts, supervisor of special classes, Boston, Mass.

Discussion—Mrs. McGrew, Burlington, Iowa; Arthur C. Jelly, M.D., Boston, Mass.; Miss Buck, New York, N.Y.; Catherine Ryan, New Britain, Conn.; Elizabeth E. Farrell, New York, N.Y.

"A Study of 600 Children Discharged from Ungraded Classes in New York City on Becoming Sixteen Years of Age"—Elizabeth E. Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes, New York, N.Y.

Discussion—Howard J. Banker, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.; Miss Alexander, New York, N.Y.; Jane Shaw, Brooklyn, N.Y.

"After-Care Work in Springfield, Mass."—Frances E. Cheney, special-class teacher, Springfield, Mass.

FRANCES E. CHENEY, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ABSTRACTS

DELINQUENCY AND MENTAL DEFECT

KATHERINE BEMENT DAVIS, CHAIRMAN, PAROLE COMMISSION, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The organized work for handicapt children is exceedingly praiseworthy. If this work had been begun twenty-five years ago there would have been less for me to do. A peculiar problem confronted me upon my appoint-

ment as superintendent of the Reformatory at Bedford Hills, N.Y., in 1901, where I was expected to organize an educational institution and training school for women, many of whom had the physical age of adults, but the minds of children, and with no more control than could be expected of children in the primary grades.

Experimental work was begun by Eleanor Roland, psychologist in Mount Holyoke College, who gave up a summer vacation in order to come to Bedford Hills to study a group of thirty-six selected inmates: one-third of these were so defective mentally that there appeared to be no hope for their permanent cure; one-third were problem cases—those who could not be classed as physically defective, insane, or mentally defective; and the remainder consisted of those who appeared to be the most nearly normal.

An outcome of this and other studies was the promise of funds by a private citizen to erect a group of buildings where further study could be made. Field workers were employed to go out into the homes and schools, and to ascertain facts from other social agencies in order to get as complete a history as possible of the lives of these girls, with their social setting.

Psychological and pathological laboratories were established, and a course of education outlined.

The latest development of this group will be the opening, on August 1, 1916, of a psychopathic hospital or cottage for twenty-four patients, all under thirty years of age—girls having a distinct mental twist, who are always problems in institutions and in the world at large.

Edith R. Spaulding, M.D., is to be the scientific director with the assistance of a resident psychiatrist. Here will be provided all medical aids for the restoration of the patients to normal mental health—trained nurses, hydrotherapeutics, electrical treatment, also industrial and educational opportunities.

This school work might be so organized as to prevent the development of this type of girl and her subsequent commitment to an institution.

The following is Dr. Spaulding's threefold classification of the inmates of the Reformatory:

1. Those who are feeble-minded, or insane, or have such marked criminal tendencies as to make permanent custodial care necessary.
2. The so-called border-line cases who may, after prolonged care and treatment, under an indeterminate sentence, be placed on probation in the community, and for many of whom a permanent cure may be hoped.
3. The mentally normal.

For the last two groups educational methods are being devised (1) which shall teach the girls to think and reason, and so to learn the law of cause and effect when applied to conduct, as to make the connection between wrongdoing and its inevitable consequences; (2) which shall train their minds and fingers together; and (3) which shall make the practical application to life of the things which they learn, thus carrying out the ideals of

Dr. Flexner and Dr. Dewey—that school may be life, and not simply preparation for life.

THE MIS-FIT CHILD

THOMAS W. SALMON, MEDICAL DIRECTOR, NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The theory that the education planned for the average child is adequate for all children is passing; the present aim is to determine the need of each individual child and to provide a curriculum suited to that need. There are two groups of children with imperfect or impaired nervous systems, whose inability to adjust themselves to home and school life, and later to adult life, is due: (1) to a lack of structural integrity in the brain itself; (2) to a lack of power in the brain to function properly. An environment to which each of these groups could adjust itself should be provided.

The first group is now receiving special class training of the type provided in our best institutions. The extension of this work is imperative.

The second group, which has received comparatively little attention, the psychopathic children with no structural brain defect, but with functional defect only, should receive early and careful attention. This type of child is often obsessed with fear, or it may substitute an unreality for a reality, or show other signs of psychosis, and is often found in our schools and children's courts. These abnormalities of thought and action should be probed until the cause is found; the remedy should be sought, often in a change of environment, which will right the mind itself.

Since the school should be the greatest factor in the preservation of mental as well as physical health, it should deal with these children when they are young, for it is too late when they leave school after puberty.

The closest cooperation between the school and the medical profession should exist, in order that each may help the other in diagnosis as well as treatment for the prevention of mental breakdown.

CHILD LABOR AND ITS RELATION TO ILLITERACY

A. J. MCKELWAY, SOUTHERN SECRETARY, NATIONAL CHILD-LABOR COMMITTEE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

1. The purpose of child-labor legislation is to secure to the child the opportunity for proper, balanced, normal development. The child-labor problem cannot, therefore, be separated from the educational; to protect the child without providing for his education is impracticable.

2. The public-school system of this country should be directed toward creating in its pupils genuine American citizenship and providing for an

all-round development, in particular on its social side, which must naturally include vocational efficiency. No pupil should be regarded as predestined to enter industrial or commercial pursuits, but his natural aptitudes should be studied with every care. No matter tho the outlook be slender for a future corresponding to his natural bent, there should never be the presumption that this future will be frustrated by poverty or other unpropitious circumstances. Vocational guidance should seek to achieve congruity between the vocation actually followed and natural fitness.

3. Students of industrial conditions have repeatedly shown that, with the possible exception of agriculture, there is very little opportunity for vocational training in the jobs now open to children under sixteen years of age. We believe that the age limit for employment should be gradually raised to sixteen years, so that children expecting to enter industry may obtain the full benefit of the prevocational education which the schools should provide. We believe that the period of control should be extended by the school authorities for purposes of education and training at least to the eighteenth year. We believe that the most efficient training for any industrial career can be consummated only thru a system which combines classroom education and employment, whereby each supplements the other, rather than by a complete exclusion from industry. The child in industry should continue his education, the time set apart for his schooling being taken from his regular work hours. Teachers and employers would thus cooperate to secure his best development, and the employer as well as the teacher should be considered a servant of the public. The child's welfare rather than his earnings should be made the objective, and while under wise management such employment may be profitable to both the child and the employer, the conditions of employment should be under public control. Specifically there should be applied such reasonable restrictions as are now embodied in the proposal for federal legislation, to wit: the sixteen-year age limit for employment at dangerous occupations, the fourteen-year age limit for ordinary occupations, and, for children under sixteen, the eight-hour workday and prohibition of night work; there should also be requirement of physical fitness, knowledge of reading and writing English, geography, American history, and the fundamentals of arithmetic; and wherever local conditions permit, as for example at present in Ohio and some other states, the fifteen-year minimum should be established.

4. For young persons who have already started to earn their living without the benefit of this systematic training, the public school should afford an opportunity to promote further their education in the theory and practice of their vocations and in citizenship and social development.

5. The change in the direction of the standards set forth in the preceding paragraphs of this statement should be made thru adjustments gradual enough to give the schools a chance to meet the situation.

EDUCATIONAL WORK OF A STATE COMMISSION

MARION A. CAMPBELL, SECRETARY, NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION FOR THE BLIND, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The first educational work of a state commission for the blind must be to carry on the effort of the blind man in the community to be rightly understood, with the emphasis upon his normal characteristics rather than upon his handicap. The staff of home teachers who are themselves without sight are the means thru which a commission accomplishes this. Another educational duty with which a commission should charge itself relates to the precautions against necessary blindness, to which the general public is only now beginning to assume an attitude which makes it possible for the conscientious physician to work with the laity in preventive medicine.

So long as the public looks upon the state school for blind children as an asylum, and classifies it as charitable rather than an educational institution, it will be difficult to secure justice to the blind man in his community.

Until the medical profession is willing to label a physician's neglect of babies' sore eyes as criminal, and to punish him for it, it must be the province of a state commission to take the part of the blind child and to secure adequate attention to this large source of the blindness which state commissions are created to investigate.

HISTORY OF THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND—METHODS AND IDEALS

LYDIA Y. HAYES, SUPERVISOR, NEW JERSEY STATE WORK FOR THE BLIND, TRENTON, N.J.

As we scan the pages of history for facts regarding the blind we realize how deplorable has been their condition. Thruout the centuries they have been clast among the outcasts of the nations and have been found sitting in the market places and at the city gates appealing to the pitying charity of the passers-by. Even the immortal Homer, who was presumably blind, could not rise above this beggarly degradation, for of him it is written, "Seven cities claimed the Homer dead thru which the living Homer begged his daily bread."

Thru the efforts of a Frenchman, Valentine Hauy, who was destined to bring light to them that sit in darkness, the first institution for the blind was establist in 1784 at Paris. While, in teaching the blind, Hauy made use of the agencies previously employed by individuals in their acquisition of knowledge, yet to him alone is due the perfection, extension, and arrangement of the methods by which the subsequent work has been done.

Hauy's first pupil found he could detect by touch letters on a freshly printed sheet. Experiments followed which resulted in the method of printing by enlarged raised type, which, when set up, is electrotyp. Then impressions are made on sheets of tough, damp paper which, when dried, give a clear, distinct type.

The blind and their friends were baffled until 1834 by the need of means for epistolary correspondence; in that year Louis Braille, a pupil of the Paris school, invented a system by which the blind could write and then read what they had written. Braille is a system of dots made with a stylus and a frame on a sheet of paper. It is adaptable to different languages, musical notation, and letter-writing. A modification of this system, known as New York Point, was introduced in America between 1860 and 1870.

Institutions similar to that of Hauy's at Paris were established on the Continent, and at the beginning of the nineteenth century there were in the United Kingdom four such asylums for the blind.

John D. Fisher, of Boston, while completing his medical studies in Paris, became interested in the work of Valentine Hauy, and on his return interested his friends, Dr. Howe, W. H. Prescott, and others in the education of the blind of New England. Consequently, on March 29, 1829, the Massachusetts legislature granted a charter for the establishment in Boston of the New England Asylum for the Blind. Dr. Howe was persuaded to take charge of the school, and went to Europe where he made a careful study of the methods then used in training the blind. He returned to this country in 1832 and gathered six pupils about him in his father's home. Thus was founded the first school for the blind on the western continent. Almost simultaneously with the founding of this school, New York and Philadelphia started schools in their respective cities. The institutions of the Old World were charitable places of refuge for the amelioration of the condition of the blind, but those established in the United States are purely educational, recognizing the inalienable right of the individual to an education, whatever his station or condition.

EDUCATION OF BLIND CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ANDREW W. EDSON, ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

The education and training of the blind make an unusually strong appeal upon the sympathies of all interested in physically handicapped children. These young people of normal mentality, but grievously handicapped, are sure to be a burden upon the family and upon society, and to grow despondent over their great deprivation unless they receive an early training that will lead them to be happy, self-respecting and, in a measure, self-supporting.

It is a sound pedagogical principle that every child is entitled to all the education that he is capable of receiving. And this applies with special force to the child who is seriously handicapt physically or mentally.

The blind child is likely to be specially sensitive, to have the power of concentration unusually well developpt, and to have an excellent memory. As a consequence he will often outstrip, in school work, his companions, who are favored with good eyes. In several instances blind children in our elementary and high schools have led their classes. A short time ago the valedictorian at the DeWitt Clinton High School was a blind boy. He not only led his classes in all subjects, but he completed the course in less than the prescribed time of four years.

The sphere of activity of the blind is necessarily limited, but under wise direction these persons may become happy and useful members of society.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND

IDA M. BAHR, DEPARTMENT FOR THE BLIND, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The value of the library to our pupils cannot be overestimated and the spirit of good-will in providing us with what we need and want along our school lines has been all that could be desired. Since our organization the influence has been felt in all grades of the work.

In the lower grades interesting stories from the library have been used for supplementary work. In this way the child learns that there is an outside source upon which to draw for recreative reading. Many pupils who have heard a book read in the grade will ask to have it sent to them from the library that they may read it for themselves.

Many pupils have borrowed duplicates of our school books so that they may be saved the annoyance of carrying back and forth daily in crowded cars the large volumes needed in classroom work. The library has aided nobly in extending time in these books.

In furnishing books in other types the libraries of both our Brooklyn and New York branches have been generous in their selection of those best qualified to help a beginner in the reading of a new type. It is among our high-school students, however, that the cooperation of the library is most largely felt.

SAVING THE SIGHT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

GORDON L. BERRY, ACTING SECRETARY, NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The problem of saving the sight of school children is divided into three parts: (1) methods of bringing into being a system of medical school-inspection, (2) the education of the child in matters of hygiene, and (3) the

education of the parent to a realization of the dangers, and the necessity for early preventive treatment. When education in these matters shall have been accomplished, most of the stumblingblocks now in the way of an efficient development of school-inspection will have been removed.

With regard to the beginnings of medical school-inspection in a community, without exception there will be found some individual or some group eager to take up this matter. It may be yourself, perhaps a teacher, or principal, frequently a parent-teachers association, a women's club, or some civic or social organization. Such an interest, if expressed and put into actual practice thru the smallest beginning, may have sight-saving or life-saving potentialities far beyond the thought of those responsible for its initiation.

We are told that three-quarters of our 20,000,000 school children are below par physically, and that one-quarter—5,000,000—have defects of vision; and we know that these conditions are responsible for both inefficiency and waywardness on the part of the pupils, who are, moreover, a continual drag upon the class and the teacher. These early defects in vision may also be the warning of serious impairment of vision in later years, possibly ending in total blindness. And yet we know that most of these conditions can be corrected if dealt with in time. Laying aside for the moment the possibility of blindness ensuing, let us consider what it means to be on the border line, so to speak, to have a certain percentage of vision, and yet not enough to earn the wages of the normal man in complete possession of all his faculties. Take nearsightedness for instance. Unless recognized and dealt with in time, it may progress to the period where the young man or young woman is just on the threshold of life, ready to step out with the ranks of our professional and industrial armies; and yet, because some school superintendent has thought that a vision-test made by the teachers required more of their time than could be spared from the arithmetic hour or the language class; or because some city council could not, in their own blindness, see the economic significance to the individual and the community in the expenditure of funds to provide adequate medical inspection, clinics, etc.; or, perhaps, because the parents themselves, in spite of the warnings received where medical school-inspection was in force, were callous to the need—because of these chief hindrances John and Mary are unable to complete their work, are debarred perhaps from the public schools because of some defect of vision which might so easily have been corrected, or because of the result of some eye disease which might have been prevented or cured.

It would seem imperative that from early years children should have an understanding of the dangers of disease and the way to avoid contagion by the adoption of sanitary methods in their own day-to-day living. This information must be given in much the same way as is the geography lesson, and be made both instructive and interesting. In this matter of

the education of the child in hygiene, let me recommend a study of the course in hygiene prepared for use in the public-school system of New York City under the direction of Dr. C. Ward Crampton, director of physical training. With reference to conservation of vision, Dr. Crampton includes, from the early grades, instructions for the teacher relative to seating, light, and discovery of symptoms of defects of vision thru a daily morning inspection. Explanation is given of local symptoms to be noted, which can be diagnosed by the teacher as indicative of need for further examination by the school nurse or inspector—for instance, scowling, squinting, headaches, reading matter held at an improper distance from the eye, inflammation, pus-formation, inability to see the blackboard clearly, etc. The annual vision-test thru the use of the Snellen chart must be given, and the evidences of eyestrain, such as cross-eye, weariness after study, bloodshot eyes, or crusty lids, must be carefully noted and recorded in a report to the proper authorities.

The children are to be instructed from Class 1B upward in the care of the eyes: cleanliness and infection, bathing corners every morning; dangers of dirty towels; use of separate handkerchiefs, etc. As we go on to the higher grades we find more complete instruction advised than in the classes of the little folks. The necessity for consulting a physician, instead of buying advertised "cures," the explanation of causes of disease, instruction in how to study, and the reasons for securing proper lighting conditions—all these round out the course and are of material benefit to the child.

In Grade 7A, for instance, comes the explanation of the function of eyelids, lashes, and tears, the reasons for wearing eyeglasses, and the explanation of color blindness, etc. It is imprest upon the child how great, for economic reasons is the necessity for keeping the eyes in good condition. The only suggestion which I wish to make in addition to the foregoing is the desirability of beginning early to explain to the child the functions of the eye, the dangers from lack of care, and the methods of prevention. Even in the lowest grades this can be taught, thru the story method or thru pictures, and it is remarkable how much a tiny little chap of five or six will absorb and make his own permanently. Many of the lessons taught in earliest years are the ones which make the deepest impression upon the mind, to bear fruit in years following. The method of presentation is exceedingly important. It is gratifying to find a health board in the South—the State Board of Health of Louisiana—printing at frequent intervals during the year a special bulletin for the education of the child. Special pictures, cartoons, and little rhymes make the four pages as interesting reading to the child as would the perusal of *Little Women* or *Little Lord Fauntleroy*. This bulletin is sent free of charge to any child or family in the state. A children's health code is frequently furnished to be pasted on the inside cover of the textbook.

Lantern-slide lectures by local oculists and physicians, social workers, and visitors from other cities should be given whenever possible. Such cooperation can frequently be provided by the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness or the state representative of the Committee on Conservation of Vision of the American Medical Association. Our collection of slides, numbering some five hundred, on various phases of preventable blindness, and stock lectures are loaned gratuitously upon request, and have been used during the last four months in twenty-seven states.

Finally, the education of the child in health matters may be materially assisted by the introduction of traveling school exhibits, sent out by the state or local boards of health. I have at the present time in course of preparation a series of school exhibits on trachoma and common eye diseases, improper illuminating conditions, industrial accidents, and the prevention of infantile blindness, five panels to the set for each, which after September 1 will be available for permanent use in any city at the cost of postage alone.

More than two thousand communities have this spring been observing Baby Week or Health Week. If your community has not as yet had such a week, try it next year and see the amount of interest which will be shown by the general public. Popular health talks, slides, and exhibits may be secured free or at small cost from any of the national and state health organizations. In the endeavor to reach the rural population, the last two years have witness the inclusion of health exhibits as a part of the program of many county-fair organizations.

In the carrying-out of any or all of these suggestions let me offer you the heartiest cooperation of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness in the hope that you will take generous advantage of that which we have to offer. A card address to us at 130 East Twenty-second Street will be the only introduction needed.

DISCUSSION

M. B. BEALS, M.D., Department of Health, New York, N.Y.—I heartily indorse all the measures described by Mr. Berry for saving the sight of school children. My criticism is that the work is being carried on almost exclusively by laymen and consequently not along scientific lines, as is shown by the attempt to teach children the cause of color blindness, when as a matter of fact the cause of this disease is not known.

Likewise, very little attention is being given to the lighting of schoolrooms, as is shown by the poorly lighted study rooms of some of our latest schools, there is also no suggestion of research work to determine disputed questions as to the most effective treatments for syphilitic eye conditions, trachoma, etc.

I object to the suggestion that inexperienced oculists be allowed to refract school children, because school children are the most difficult of all persons to fit properly with glasses, and much harm can be done by incorrect glasses.

As an example of the importance of refractive errors I will cite the fact that I have refracted one hundred of the habitual "Left Backs," showing refractive errors, in one large school in this city, with the result that 98 per cent were promoted on the first regular school examination about two months later, many skipping one or more grades.

CHARITABLE ORGANIZATIONS HELP

BABETTE GOLDMAN, PRINCIPAL, EAST SIDE FREE SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLES,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

I know of no better way to introduce this subject than to tell you of the work I have been engaged in during the last fifteen years at "The Crippled Children's East Side Free School," which is today one of the best examples of cooperation between public interest and private charity.

Formerly crippled children were not provided for in our public schools; they were neglected by their parents who, in the struggle for a livelihood, considered them nothing more than a burden upon the family, and expended no care nor thought upon the problem of their sufferings.

They were either confined to their homes or else left to wander about the streets to get along as best they could, leading a miserable existence.

Such was the condition when the Guild for Crippled Children was formed and auxiliaries were opened in various parts of the city. Auxiliary II, now "The Crippled Children's East Side Free School," which I represent and of which I want to tell you, had its quarters, consisting of two rooms, on Madison Street. There we gathered together about twenty children and gave them the care and attention that every child craves. Kindergarten games and songs were taught the little ones, and we instructed the older children, as best as we knew how, in reading and writing. Each day, as we past thru the down-town districts, we gathered the youngsters from the streets; but soon our settlement became known and was sought by both parents and children, and before many months had past we had to turn away eager applicants.

So we worked and labored until we succeeded in convincing Dr. Maxwell and his associates in our contention that crippled, as well as normal, children had a right to a public-school education and deserved recognition, with the result that since 1906 the elementary work of our institution has been entirely under the supervision of the board of education.

Private philanthropy serves transportation to and from school, thereby making attendance possible for every crippled child. Can you picture the happiness of those poor youngsters who, in many cases, saw the light of day for the first time?

Proper nourishment, in the form of a hot noonday meal, is served, besides an ample supply of milk, twice daily, all of which is absolutely essential to the amelioration of the condition of cripples such as are admitted into our institution. We have also established a summer home for the recreation and recuperation of the children, who spend from three to ten weeks in the country, according to their individual needs.

Another important aim of our efforts has been the manual training of our pupils, which is solely in the hands of the society. Thru the courtesy of the Department of Public Education, it has been arranged to devote

several hours to this work in every class, beginning with the youngest children who, no matter how deformed, become most proficient in every kind of needlework and in the use of their hands generally.

In order to create a place for such cripples who, upon graduating from school, could not possibly hold their own in a shop or factory because of their infirmities, we organized a workroom about ten years ago. At the present time from thirty to forty girls and a few boys are employed in the manufacture of every description of needlework and embroidery.

The working-out of the numerous problems which I have indicated depends to a high degree upon cooperation between the public-school authorities, who, in time, should assume the physical care, as well as the education of the crippled child, and private organizations, to whom must fall the industrial development.

THE WORK OF THE WIDENER MEMORIAL INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN

MRS. D. B. CREAMER, HEAD OF ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT, WIDENER SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The Widener Memorial Industrial Training School for Crippled Children, situated in the suburban district of Philadelphia, was founded by Mr. P. A. B. Widener in 1916.

The school curriculum exactly follows the graded course of the public schools of Philadelphia. Certificates are granted to those who have satisfactorily completed the prescribed academic and trade courses.

The pupils begin manual training when they enter the third grade, and devote to it six hours a week for four years. The girls learn sewing, basketry, burnt-leather work, raffia, and ornamental brass work. The boys complete an advanced course in sloyd, learn caning, and keep in repair all the chairs and couches in the school.

Mechanical drawing is begun when a pupil enters a trade class. Free-hand drawing is taught to both boys and girls irrespective of the intended vocation. Before graduation all girls receive instruction in millinery, dressmaking, cookery, and laundry work.

The school's interest in the welfare of those who are graduated does not cease with the giving of a trade certificate but every endeavor is made to place them as advantageously as possible.

Sixty per cent of our graduates are holding positions, and in every way seem able to cope with their physically more fortunate fellow-workers.

*COOPERATION BETWEEN EDUCATORS AND PHYSICIANS
IN CLASSES FOR CRIPPLES*

HENRY LING TAYLOR, M.D., PROFESSOR OF ORTHOPEDIC SURGERY, POST
GRADUATE HOSPITAL, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Systematic work for the education of crippled children was begun by special societies in New York City about twenty years ago. Many of these children were hidden away and neglected, but when gathered into classes it was found that they were glad to go to school, took much interest in their work, and were as bright as normal children. When this work became a demonstrated success it was taken over by the Department of Education. Experience shows that crippled children are easily fatigued, therefore the periods and sessions should be short and the work varied; transportation to and from the classes should be furnished; the classrooms should be light and airy, and easy of access without stairs. The nutrition of the child should be attended to, and special lunches furnished, if necessary. An undernourished child is a dead weight in any class. It has been found that individualization, such as is possible only in small classes, is necessary for the best results, and the most successful teachers have the definite idea of making the children happy in their work and recreations, and in the human relations between them. Manual training in the lower, and vocational training in the higher classes is not only valuable in itself, but is a help in getting a right point of view.

Practically all the things which have been found beneficial in classes for cripples are just as good in classes for average children, and one of the choice and unexpected results of this work for cripples is the important advance in the hygiene of teaching that has come directly from it.

Other things being equal, many cripples are better off in the regular class; but when cripples are numerous, as in large cities, the more helpless ones at least should be given the advantage of free transportation and the special facilities of the classes for cripples. Some cripples are too ill to join the classes with advantage, and many applying to the schools need hospital treatment first. Children with discharging sinuses, serious internal disease, or pulmonary tuberculosis should not be admitted to the classes.

It is obvious that the physician of each pupil should be consulted on these and other points. In the New York schools each pupil is given a card to be filled out by his physician. Exercise, which may be easily overdone, is a matter upon which the physician should give detailed directions. The writer is opposed to class gymnastics for cripples; any exercises given, or games played, should be neither strenuous nor prolonged. There is much danger in allowing tuberculous children to be too active.

Teachers in the regular classes should be alert to detect the beginnings of crippling and especially of spinal affections, which are shown by poor

posture, gradually becoming worse; doubtful cases should be reported to the school physician.

THE PROBLEM

CARRIE WALLACE KEARNS, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 47, DAY SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The world has progrest since the days of the Greek when preparedness of the nation was more important than the individual, and the handicap child was cast aside as a nuisance. I need not tell you of the slow but steady change in opinion as regards the deaf child. He is no longer denied consideration. Great good was accomplisht when the good Abbé de le Pee began his instruction of the deaf child. It was the first step in preparing the deaf for a place in society. Still greater was the gain when the deaf child learned to read the lips and to speak, and thus to find a broader, fuller place among his hearing associates. When people outside the school come, or when I go to see people about work for my pupils, these people ask the following:

1. Can he understand me when I speak? This is usually the first question. How are we meeting it? How much do we do to test our pupils? In a test made some time ago to see just what our pupils could do in reading the lips, we discovered: (a) in our effort to have the pupil understand, we were inclined to exaggerate our expressions; (b) in our haste to accomplish much in a short day, we were too ready to help the child by accepting a disjointed word or two, or by repeating more often than was necessary.

2. Can he speak so that I can understand him? What a big demand this is, and yet we must meet it to the best of our ability. Here again we tested our pupils and ourselves fairly and critically. In these tests we found that we teachers constantly lookt at the children as they answered, and therefore, unconsciously read the lips and were not good judges of the child's speech. When we lookt away from the child, or when we stood behind the child, we did not understand all he said.

3. Does he understand the meaning of what I say? How we teachers have labored over this question of language! Yet, very much has been accomplisht.

4. What can he do? Here comes in the whole industrial field. I have not seen many statistics as to the work of deaf children after they have left school. I have tried to collect a few of my own which may be of interest. A post-card was sent to every pupil whose address was known to us. These were the questions askt: What is your name? Where do you live? Where do you work? How much do you earn? How long have you workt there? What kind of work do you do?

There were 70 returns. Three boys are in hearing high schools, where they have never failed in a single subject. Eight pupils are at home. Seven of these are girls who do not need to work; one is a boy who has serious heart trouble. Only three are not working. The average wage is \$7.15 per week. Most of those who have been in a place less than six months have left school to go to work this term.

This is, after all, the great test: What becomes of our pupils after they leave us? Has our preparation made them good, useful citizens of this great country where everyone has a chance?

We must convert the business world to the possibilities in our children, and then we must prepare the pupils to meet the conditions of life. I found my children had no idea of the long hours of work. They complained of it. So we had a talk with those who were still in school. We explained the hours of work, the coming-on time, the marking of time, etc., and we organized an early-morning class. Every morning for the past eight weeks a dozen boys came at eight o'clock, signed their time, and worked quietly in the shops until school opened at nine. I thought this would die out when the newness wore away, for many came long distances and had to arise very early. But the number has increased and the interest has not flagged. "This is just a bit of preparedness."

*INTRODUCTORY EXPLANATION OF THE ANALYTIC
SYNTHETIC METHOD OF TEACHING READING
TO DEAF CHILDREN*

D. FRANCES KAUFFMAN, ASSISTANT TO PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 47,
DAY SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, NEW YORK, N. Y.

There are recognized standards in methods and principles of teaching hearing children. I feel that the oftener we successfully introduce these into the work for deaf children the more we are counteracting their handicap and the nearer to the normal we are making them.

Some years ago the analytic-synthetic method of teaching reading was introduced into the public schools. Modern educators regard it as far in advance of the old-fashioned synthetic method. The basic idea is that the instinctive love of a story shall make the child desire to learn to read. Hence the story is presented as a whole, and thru the interest in it eventually mastery of technique, or phonic power, is secured without deadening mechanical drills. From the beginning thought-getting rather than word-mastery is the motive.

There are various excellent books based upon the analytic-synthetic method of teaching reading. A good book should have a content of sustained and vital interest, written in language within the comprehension of the children who are to read it. (Deaf children beginning this work

are two or three years older than the hearing children.) Nursery rhymes, animal stories, fables, stories concerning familiar occupations, or those duplicating the children's experiences furnish suitable material. There should be sufficient rhythm and repetition to aid the memory in a narrative containing several incidents. There should be a strong appeal to the imagination and to the sense of humor. The book should contain attractive pictures which suggest, rather than tell, the story. Such a combination will foster the dramatic instinct and accordingly develop imagination. Without working especially for it, we have found that this work has greatly improved the memory of all the children, particularly the slower of the congenitally deaf children.

At present we are using the *Story Hour Books* since they combine the requisites of the analytic-synthetic method in a well-graded series, written within the comprehension and experience of our deaf children. They contain much usable language. This is especially true of the first book which is based upon the "Mother Goose" rhymes. Much of the language of these rhymes is woven into the stories, hence from the beginning the children meet familiar friends.

As the manual which accompanies the book fully explains the method and contains many helpful devices and suggestions, I shall give but a brief outline.

1. The basic "Mother Goose" rhymes are taught in an earlier grade.
2. The story is told simply, vividly, dramatically, in the exact language of the text.
3. After the telling of the story, the children dramatize it.
4. Reproduction of the story follows with as little aid from the teacher as possible until the order of incidents is established and the exact language of the text fixed. The desire to "play" the story has aroused even the duller children, and they ask to be allowed to take the books home, in order to study the parts. At first the slower and more timid children take parts that necessitate pantomime only, but as soon as they so desire they are allowed to impersonate characters who speak. We have been encouraged in this work by the improvement shown, in consequence of it, by slow congenitally deaf children.

RHYTHM

PATTIE THOMASON, RHODE ISLAND INSTITUTE FOR THE DEAF,
PROVIDENCE, R. I.

"In the beginning there was rhythm." The word "rhythm" comes from the Greek word "rythmos," which means "to flow"; thus, by development, we get the idea of the measured flow of movement, or beat, in verse, in music, or, by analogy, in other connections.

The early critics of prosody distinguished three elements of which rhythm was composed—the spoken word, the tune in music and song, and the bodily motion.

Dr. Sears, of Clark University, says:

While the Greeks may have made rhythm an altogether too important element in the education of their youth, we, on the other hand, have erred in not appreciating the fact that all life, mental and physical, is perfect in proportion to the perfection of its rhythm. Brain activity is not made of currents of force, but rather of rhythm among the brain cells. Lack of appreciation of the part that rhythm plays in the processes of life has prevented child life in home and in school, from rising to the heights it should.

So we teachers of the Deaf should set for ourselves the very high aim of leading in an educational movement. Let us recognize rhythm as a tremendous factor in the development of the individuality of the child, and this is, in its last analysis, the end sought in all teaching.

If rhythm is to be an important element in the intellectual development of the child, then it must be considered in a broader sense than that exemplified by clapping, marching, and beating time, since rhythm has its origin, not in mathematics, but in poetry.

We should train the child's powers of observation and understanding so that he will spontaneously respond to all the "rhythms of life"—such as "human rhythms," "nature rhythms," "bodily rhythms," "cosmic rhythms," and "musical rhythms." By giving a child this kind of education, which certain psychologists regard as emotional rather than as a perception in character, we awaken within him sensations of mind, heart, and body which make up a composite feeling. The child is thus made better able to interpret his material and immaterial needs and to adjust himself to the conditions of nature surrounding him.

The work in rhythm consists in developing the rhythmic sense in deaf children by the correlation of voice-training, physical training, and language.

There are two physical agents by means of which we appreciate sound and rhythm. They are the ear as regards the first, and the whole nervous system as regards the latter. I proceeded, therefore, to give my pupils a vibratory education by tuning the whole nervous system to perceive sound and rhythm images. This is what Dr. Currier aptly terms "waking the deaf child up." This waking is necessary to convey to him the real meaning of sound and of spoken language. It is vitalizing speech and language to the deaf child.

Since deafness is the natural state of the new-born infant, and hearing an acquired faculty, we should educate him to perceive tone tactually so that the effect upon him will be, as nearly as possible, analogous to that of hearing.

The first step in vibratory education is to give the child a vibratory experience. His whole body should first be made sensitive to vibration. He then should be trained to distinguish between crude noises and musical

sound. He should be made sensitive to these "unmusical noises," so that he may come to dislike them and, in time, stop making them. On the other hand, he should be so charmed by musical tones that he will welcome them and, in time, be able to reproduce them. This training is given thru a series of exercises with the piano, guitar, drums, bells, and the teacher's voice, which fixes the child's attention upon modulations of sound. This develops the ability to appreciate relative pitch and that distinct faculty which appreciates quality of tone.

DISCUSSION

MARY A. AYMAR, Public School No. 47, Day School for the Deaf, New York, N.Y.— I shall speak briefly this morning on rhythm as an aid to voice-training, and the value of rhythm in speech. G. Stanley Hall tells us that all energy is probably rhythmic. Rhythm is the first aspect which is so emphasized in all music, which seems to have a tune, tune origin. Its chief features are repetitions, cadences, stresses, time-markings, etc.

We have long accepted the theory that the development of the race is in a way represented in the child. Among all primitive peoples the drum seems to have been the first musical instrument, and it is the first one that attracts young children. This is because it is a purely rhythmical instrument.

Deaf children show all the impulses of a normal child. They like to make a noise, beat upon things, march, etc. Of course they do not perceive the sound, but they do enjoy the vibrations caused by the sound.

Psychologists say that even a very young child is capable of rhythmic stimuli long before it is capable of any other act of attention. So I begin with these little people, as soon as they have elements developed enough to make the combination boom. I begin with the babbling part of it first as, *bu, bu, bu, bu*, boom. Then I show a picture of a child beating a drum. I then take them to the piano and let them feel the vibrations which I play—a little simple exercise representing the roll and beat of a drum.

After this muscular memory is somewhat awakened and developed, we all say with the piano, "Boom, boom, boom, boom, boom." The purpose of this exercise is for the resonance and bringing the voice forward. Good voices depend on good bodily and good physical conditions. Someone has said that a fine voice does not hold us spellbound by the tonality alone, but by the thought and feeling expressed.

Rhythm in speech then is the coordination of thought and feelings as well as tonality. Rhythmic activity helps for freedom of mind and body and organs of speech, and gives an opportunity for the imagination to act.

After the boom exercise I show the children a picture of a dog and I say, "Now I am going to tell you something. A dog says 'bow, wow, wow.'" Now what happens? Well, every child for a few moments is a dog saying, "Bow, wow, wow." You see the imagination is at work. I ask the children to write it on the board. Then I write it like this, *bow, wow, wow*. They go to the piano and we sing it to a simple exercise.

TEACHING OF LANGUAGE

HARRIS TAYLOR, PRINCIPAL, INSTITUTION FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF, NEW YORK, N.Y.

What is ordinarily known as the Barry Five Slate System of introducing language was originated by Abbé Sicard, and was brought to this country by Lauret Clerc more than a century ago. The system, or the scheme,

was avowedly introduced in order to straighten out the language of children who gained their first ideas thru the sign language. As you doubtless know, in the early days of the education of the deaf the pupil was first taught the sign language as a means of conveying ideas and developing thought, and all written language was translated from this into English or the vernacular, whatever this may have been.

When methods improved, the sign language ceased to be the medium for the development of thought, and children were taught directly in English, without such a medium, because such a device as the Five Slate System would seem to have ceased to exist. So it did, for a while, but eventually it was resurrected and put to use in the Pennsylvania Institution and elsewhere, and since its revival has gained currency until now it is in popular use in practically every school for the deaf. Its resurrection was not with oral classes, but with manual classes; by manual classes I mean classes taught without speech, that is, by finger spelling or the sign language. Its transference to oral classes was coincident with the transference of manual teachers to oral classes in a school for the deaf in which both silent and oral methods were at that time in use.

I believe that by a more rational system, one conforming more nearly to methods by which hearing children learn language, practically fifteen months of a child's school life could be saved. We must get away from the idea that grammar was invented before language, and impress upon ourselves the fact that grammatical principles in the beginning must be learned unconsciously if we expect the deaf child to use language with the readiness that is possible under the most favorable conditions.

THE PHYSICAL SIDE OF THE DEAF CHILD

GEORGE B. MCAULIFFE, M.D., SPECIAL PHYSICIAN, PUBLIC SCHOOL, NO. 47,
DAY SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, NEW YORK, N.Y.

No longer is the deaf child sent to institutions to be instructed by attendants, but the stream of pedagogy is turning its best branches into this training.

This work has been fostered greatly by the Department of Education in School No. 47, which has grown beyond its original scope in a short time. The exigencies of financial stringency have hampered as yet the better housing of the pupils and their proper medical care, but an effort has been made by some of the commissioners, as Dr. McDonald, to facilitate the betterment of the physical side of the pupils and thereby to increase their efficiency.

The field of instruction is a very large one and necessitates a better specialization of the pupils. There are brought to the school those who are congenitally deaf; those who have acquired deafness thru systemic dis-

eases; those who are partially deaf; those who are slightly defective, in a mental fog, and appear to be deaf; those who are defective and deaf; and those who are defective and ignorant.

It is a hard problem to weed them out without appearing unjust. Even in the proper sphere of deafness there are many specific differences that necessitate specific training. This specialization is a development of the future. How can a teacher or principal determine the physical and mental status of the applicant? Does it not imply, therefore, the absolute necessity for proper medical inspection? The doctor should be an integral part of the staff in every school for the deaf.

In the year 1915-16, in an analysis of 293 cases of deaf children—159 boys and 134 girls, almost one-half—123—were found to be totally deaf, 8 could distinguish words at short distances, and the balance—162—could hear loud sounds. About 100 were congenitally deaf, 103 acquired deafness between infancy and three years, 51 between three and six years, while the balance—one-seventh—became deaf after six years.

On receiving these statistics we find the sexes are fairly divided; that all but eight are practically hopeless, as regards aural improvement; that more than two-thirds have no word or sound memories; that congenital deafness forms the largest number, with that form, cerebrospinal meningitis next, followed by catarrh, scarlet fever, and injuries, in the order named.

It is painful to be compelled to give a bad prognosis as to hearing in so many. Parents go from one doctor to another with the hope of a cure. They feel sure that their children hear better, and relate instances to prove their statements. They have the adenoids and tonsils removed, the nose corrected, and spare no money, if they have it, upon quackeries from vibrations to unknown radium therapy.

As alluded to in another paper, the deaf develop an appreciation of vibrations that practically amounts to another sense. A great many of their judgments are based on the association of vibrations. Inasmuch as lip reading constitutes the basic instrument of instruction, it implies the best eyesight possible.

THE UTILIZATION OF RESIDUAL HEARING

JOHN DUTTON WRIGHT, WRIGHT ORAL SCHOOL, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The fact that many of the pupils of our schools for the deaf possess some residual hearing is well known to everyone connected with the education of the deaf.

The extent to which this imperfect hearing can be made of service to the pupils is not so well known, and in the vast majority of cases no effort is made at present to develop and educate this residual hearing.

This failure to utilize a valuable aid to mental development and language- and speech-teaching is due primarily to the lack of the necessary

helpers to do the work. Most of the auricular training, in order to be effective, requires the services of at least one teacher for each two pupils receiving instruction at the same time. During the five hours of the school day, one teacher could, under the most favorable conditions, give a minimum of necessary instruction to twenty pupils, allowing half an hour to each two pupils. Nothing less than this would be worth doing. In a school maintaining three hundred pupils there would certainly be found fifty who could be really benefited by intelligent auricular training. That would require from two to three additional teachers, unless some other work was sacrificed in order to supply the time and teachers required for the education or re-education of residual hearing.

The second reason for the general failure of the schools to do an adequate amount of this auricular training is the lack of a true appreciation of the possible benefits to the pupils. If all those in authority in our schools fully realized what could be accomplished, they might find a way of providing the time and the teachers to do the work.

Last year 61 per cent of the pupils in my school received daily auricular training and 42 per cent benefited very greatly from it. The difference in the percentages is because some of the pupils are so young—four years of age—that just what the ultimate benefit may be cannot be definitely stated at the end of the first year.

What should be the standards of the amount and the character of sound-perception required in order that the benefits from auricular training may be an adequate return for the time and effort expended? First of all I would suggest that, as the principal object of auricular training is to enable the pupils to understand spoken language thru the ear, and to clarify and improve their own speech, it is necessary that the islands of residual hearing should lie within the range of the speaking voices of men and women.

The ability to perceive shrill sounds, like whistles, or very low sounds, like the organ bass, is of some value, undoubtedly, but unless accompanied by other islands of hearing in the range of human tones, I have not felt that the precious educational hours of the deaf child should be used in auricular training.

In my own work, unless I can develop the power of discriminating with 90 per cent of accuracy between at least five vowels when shouted within half an inch of the ear, I have not considered it advisable to devote further time to auricular training. I spend, however, from two to six months in the endeavor to teach this degree of discrimination before abandoning the effort, since the brain can be taught to hear just as it can be taught to add or multiply, provided there is an avenue of approach.

I test every pupil who comes to me, for ability to determine, first, how many times a sound is made near the ear. The sounds used at the start are those of a vibrating whistle, a bell, and clapping of the hands. If the

production of these sounds a foot from the ear can be perceived, I go on to test the ability to tell how many times the vowel ä (ah) is uttered very near the ear. If this can be done, then tests of increasing difficulty are given till the utilizable extent of hearing is approximately determined.

It is impossible at this time or place to go into the details of the process of building up in the brain of the child a working comprehension of language thru the ear. Our task this morning can only be the directing of attention to the very great and helpful possibilities that lie at our hands in the existence of residual hearing in the cases of many of our pupils.

DISCUSSION

ELBERT A. GRUVER, Central New York Institution for the Deaf, Rome, N.Y.—Where shall we draw the line between a school for the deaf and one for the hard-of-hearing child? What degree of deafness qualifies a child for a place in a school for the deaf? I have given considerable thought to these questions in recent years. At one time I felt that no child with sufficient hearing to receive instructions thru the ear had any place in a school for the deaf. My opinion has changed in this respect, and now I think that any child whose hearing is so dull that he is unable to receive instructions easily belongs in a school for the deaf. I think it very necessary and proper that the children be given as much instruction thru the ear as possible, even if it is necessary to raise the voice.

The general use of oral methods in nearly all our schools has been a leading factor in the rapid advancement, in the development of residual hearing. These methods are almost entirely natural methods of education and have brought the hard-of-hearing child more closely in touch with the school for the deaf than in former years, and has also had its lasting effect upon our attitude toward the mentally slow child; for often our hard-of-hearing pupils are of this class. This has led me to another change of opinion. It has been generally conceded that the dull deaf child can be developed best thru a free use of a combination of all methods, and particularly that the mentally deficient deaf child is in a sorry plight when it is attempted to teach him in an oral school.

MEASUREMENT OF EFFICIENCY IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

RICHARD OTTO JOHNSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE INDIANA STATE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

EDUCATION MEASUREMENT

Never in educational history has there been so much uncertainty as to values in the educational field as at present, never such aggressive dissatisfaction and earnest protests concerning the educational methods prevailing in schools ranging from the kindergarten to the university. This condition is the one great fact easily discernible by all who give the matter thought and reading; and another great fact is that at no time in the world have the people been more willing to give and more bountiful in giving, than now, to the cause of education.

With such thoughts in mind, the writer began an educational survey of the Indiana School which was, in efficiency, fully abreast of the best

accredited curricula and methods of similar schools thruout the United States and Canada. This survey was later merged into that of schools for the deaf generally now being conducted by the committee referred to below which is seeking some sort of standardization of efficient methods, measurements, etc., to be completed and published at a later date. While the compass of this paper will not permit of going into details of the Indiana survey, it will be of interest to refer to one part thereof—the pupilage, and to an age and grade classification as worked out, and therein, of retardation, etc.

Of the thirty-two pupils admitted during the year 1914-15, the information is supplied in the accompanying table.

Birthplace	Fathers	Mothers	Pupils
Indiana.....	20	22	27
Kentucky.....	3	3	3
Florida.....			1
West Virginia.....	1		
Maryland.....	1		
Michigan.....	1	1	
Missouri.....		1	
New York.....		1	
Hungary.....	1	1	
Russia.....	1	1	
Austria.....	1	1	1
England.....	1	1	
Unknown.....	2		

Of the parents, one father and two mothers are dead; five cases of separation or divorce occur; in one case only are either of the parents deaf (in this case both father and mother), but deaf relatives are shown in six cases. In three cases either the parents or grandparents were related before marriage. In a number of the families the history discloses tuberculosis (7), cancer (4), scrofula (1), epilepsy (1), feeble-mindedness (1), and paralysis (5), with two of these defects occurring in the same family in one or two cases. In six instances there was difficulty at birth, instruments being used in two cases. Of the whole number, seven were weakly in infancy, three show a deranged nervous system, two physical malformation, or physical weakness, and thirteen were born deaf (40.6 per cent). Of the offspring of families disclosing cancer, three of the four were congenital cases, as were three of the seven with tuberculosis; and the two from families showing scrofula, epilepsy, and feeble-mindedness were both adventitious cases. Of the seven reported as sickly babes, five were congenitally deaf; and of the five possessing deranged nervous system or malformation and physical weakness, all were adventitiously deaf.

The total number of children born to the parents were 146, including the deaf (32), who constituted 21.9 per cent, and those who died (24), who constituted 16.4 per cent, thus leaving 61.7 per cent (90) living and reported as not deaf and well. Of the children who died, fourteen died at

birth (6) or under six months of age (8), or 9.6 per cent of the whole number. There is no doubt that other deaf pupils will yet be presented from some of these same families.

Among the thirteen congenital cases, one had a deaf father and a deaf mother; one had grandparents who were first cousins, both the mother and grandmother dying of paralysis; three had deaf relatives, in one case congenitally so; and two were of premature birth. Among the nineteen adventitious cases, one (brain fever) had grandparents related, who also had deaf relatives; one (spinal meningitis) had consumption and deaf relatives; one (spinal meningitis) had epilepsy and feeble-mindedness in the family history; one (measles) lost two grandparents by paralysis; and one in (pertussis) the maternal grandparents were first cousins and both died of paralysis.

In several cases no definite report could be had of family ailments and diseases, or as to deaf relatives, etc. One child was born in a county poor asylum and no record of any kind can be furnished of his parents or grandparents or of causes, etc.; and this same ignorance is shown in several other cases where it would seem the parents should know.

COMPARISON WITH OLDER PUPILS

The average intelligence of the 32 new pupils may be stated as good, scaling from several very high, down to one in whom it is very slight. While their chronological ages vary from six to twenty, their mental ages vary from three to fourteen. Their individual mental quotients, a combination of the two ages, range from 42 to 100 with 67 as the median, and indicate the ratio of the mental to the chronological age. With those at their normal level, i.e., close correspondence of the two ages, the value is assumed as 100, which is figured downward or upward as retardation or acceleration may demand. This estimate of the intelligence and mental age was made by the teachers after careful study, for no just test has yet been devised whereby these faculties may be correctly measured for the deaf, if for any. In this connection it must be borne in mind that "Retardation" as used in connection with the deaf child does not carry with it the same significance as if it were applied to a hearing child. In the latter case the retardation, if sufficiently great, and according to general tests as now devised, would signify mental turpitude or deficiency; in the former case, while these elements may naturally enter to some extent, till it largely represents a backwardness due to an enforced lack of experience and social intercourse with hearing people and their daily affairs. It is a term, as used with the deaf, for comparing the deaf child with a normal hearing child of the same chronological age, and generally indicates, not so much mental retardation, as it does a natural retardation due to the lack of opportunity and a chance to succeed as does his more fortunate hearing brother—each is normal according to his opportunity. And in this connection it may be well to add that the ten-

year-old backward normal child who grades at six years is greatly superior to the ten-year-old moron who grades at eight years; there are certain characteristic traits, needs of maturation and sensorymotor reactions that must be given consideration—the one is mentally normal, altho retarded, the other is mentally abnormal or mentally diseased, with his whole being affected. Deafness and mental defects are not necessarily associated—they are seldom associated at all. There is no more connection between deafness and mental defect than there is between lameness or blindness and mental defect. When children, deaf thru heredity or congenitally so, are mentally defective, the cause is not the deafness but some condition which causes both the deafness and the other defect.

In certain tabulations made the girls are slightly older chronologically and mentally, higher in their mental quotient, in their progress, and in their intelligence, while their retardation is the same as that of the boys; the oral pupils are younger chronologically and older mentally than the manual pupils, higher in their mental quotient and intelligence, in their progress, and decidedly less in retardation; the percentage of the congenitally deaf in the oral classes is more than double that in the manual classes where the adventitious outnumber slightly the congenital deaf as they do in much greater proportion in the oral classes; the "fair" and "good" among the adventitious cases are slightly greater than among the congenital; the totally deaf exceed the partially deaf in the manual classes, but in a much smaller proportion than is true of the reverse in the oral classes; the "fair" and "good" among the partially deaf is slightly greater than among the totally deaf. Summarizing, while the difference is not great, in all ways the girls seem to be doing better than the boys, the oral pupils than the manual, and the adventitious and partially deaf than the congenital and totally deaf.

In the beginning, now seventy-two years ago, the deaf child was not received as a pupil until twelve years of age or over and he was allowed but five or more years in school. Later, the entering age was lowered from time to time and his continuance in school was increased, until now the general age of admission is seven and he may remain generally for ten to twelve years, thus approximating the privileges and rights of the hearing child. The various state schools for the deaf have been divided generally into ten to twelve grades and it was presumed that a first-year class was in the first-year grade, and so on upward seriatim; or that the highest class should be known as the first-year class and so on downward seriatim. The trouble with such division and practice is that there results such a lack of uniformity in grading and curriculum as to make a just educational comparison almost impossible. In view of this condition, the writer has undertaken to devise a normal age and grade distribution for this school.

It has been accepted by common consent of schoolmen that certain ages shall be considered as "normal ages" for hearing children in classifying

the grades—seven for the first grade, and with yearly increase to fourteen for the eighth grade. Now, in view of the fact that the deaf child, in comparison with the hearing child, displays a natural retardation of about three years (probably four years) due to enforced lack of experience and social intercourse with hearing people and their daily affairs, the “normal years” assigned the deaf must be increased over those of the hearing child. This has been done by fixing ten as the normal age for the first primary grade, fourteen for the fifth, sixteen for the second intermediate (seventh grade), and nineteen for the third advanced or, tenth and final grade.

During the past twelve years (273 cases) the average age of the non-attendants (those dropping out) on leaving was 15.7 years, their average years in school was 5.5 years; and 75 per cent were from the introductory and primary classes—8 per cent, introductory; 23 per cent, first and second primary; and 45 per cent, third, fourth, and fifth primary.

Two years ago the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf, meeting in conjunction with the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf in Staunton, Va., declared the following as a basic principle in the education of the deaf:

The education of the deaf child—which is claimed as a matter of right, not of charity—while a part of the general educational movement, is a distinct and highly specialized branch of the work and, as such, requires the services of expert educators of the deaf—those who know, not only the commonly applied principles of general pedagogy and psychology, but who, also, thru special training, active experience, and thorough research work, know the possibilities, the peculiarities, and the limitations, of the deaf child—who clearly know what is possible and practicable as opposed to the impossible and theoretical. This is a knowledge not possessed even by those who proclaim themselves masters, theoretically or otherwise, of the work with the hearing child who, as a matter of fact, receives his education largely at the hands, not of his school teachers, but of the thousands with whom he comes in contact outside the schoolroom, and thru the thorough acquisition of his mother tongue with its vocabulary and expression which come to him naturally and easily from the very day of his birth—and all of which is denied the deaf child. With this special knowledge of deaf-child nature as referred to above, acquired thru years of study of, and experience with, the deaf, one may readily perceive that the problems presented are not ordinary ones, that they are indeed complex, and further, that the ordinary curricula, textbooks, grade divisions, and modes of procedure adapted to the hearing child must be very decidedly modified with the deaf child. To those who are not engaged in the work of educating the deaf this knowledge does not come and they are ill-prepared to criticize methods, progress, and results which necessarily must be seen and judged from a viewpoint entirely different from their own.

MEASUREMENT OF EFFICIENCY

Without entering into a discussion at this time of the various phases of the work, the writer will state briefly and generally that among the tentative conclusions reached, after careful correlation, are those which indicate that the deaf child is three to four years behind the hearing child in learning ability, as tested by the rapidity and accuracy of forming associations between numbers and forms; that the deaf boy and the deaf girl are equal

in learning ability, which is not the case with the hearing boy and the hearing girl, the latter being the superior; that the deaf boy, however, approximates more closely the hearing boy than does the deaf girl the hearing girl; that there is practically no difference between the learning ability of the congenitally and the adventitiously deaf; and that the test results indicate a high correlation, or correspondence, between the four state schools taken separately and for each of the tests applied in each of the schools. Variations, of course, occur in the curves plotted for the separate schools and between those for classification in each school, but generally they approximate each other closely. The curves for girls are more irregular and variable than those for the boys, but in no case are the variations uniform and constant excepting in two instances, i.e., in three schools the girls at eleven years of age show a pronounced drop in attainment while the same occurs in lesser degree for boys at fourteen years of age.

THE PINTNER TESTS

WALTER M. KILPATRICK, AMERICAN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF, HARTFORD, CONN.

Dr. Pintner, associate professor of psychology in the Ohio State University, and Mr. Paterson, an assistant of his in that department and a son of deaf parents, might justly be called the Livingstone and Stanley of that hitherto Darkest America, the field of the special psychology of the deaf. Earlier attempts at exploration have been made, but only in isolated spots in this country. The present is the first determined, concerted attempt at a broad continental drive. Certain abilities of selected groups of deaf children have been tested and deductions made from the findings, notably the valuable work of MacMillan and Bruner with pupils of the Chicago Day Schools for the Deaf some years ago.

It is sufficient to say, in a general way, that three lines of undertaking have been made, namely, with Binet-Simon tests, with form boards, and with substitution tests; but Pintner pins his faith to the last named.

The Binet tests are discarded with scant praise after an attempt with a small selected group of pupils in the Ohio School for the Deaf, on the ground that such tests involve an understanding of, and ability to use, the English language, hence are unsuited for testing the intelligence and mentality of deaf pupils as compared with normal ones.

The form board used by our experimenters seems to have been of a pattern devised by themselves, hence, tho similar in type to standardized form boards of others, for which published norms are obtainable, it will be difficult to compare results in testing other deaf children. This is a misfortune, since it is in reducing the number of variations of merely similar tests and increasing the number of identical or comparable ones that real norms are established and the tests themselves well standardized. We all

know, and Pintner found it true likewise, that form-board tests are valuable with beginning classes of deaf children, as an aid in winnowing the chaff from the wheat.

The substitution test used by Pintner is really two tests of closely related abilities—the symbol-digit and the digit-symbol tests. They consist of the numerical digits arranged with a series of corresponding symbols, for example, a square, a triangle, a circle, and so on. The test is to require the subject to substitute the corresponding symbols for a given list of digits, or vice versa, and his speed and accuracy in thinking and writing the substitutions are compared with the norms of the hearing for those abilities, age for age, sex for sex, etc.

It is called by the experimenters a test of learning ability only, and, as such, is an interesting and valuable aid for our work. It does not furnish, in the estimation of many, an accurate index of the learning progress nor mental development of our pupils, hence its chief value will be for diagnostic and classification purposes in the early stages of a pupil's school life, and it begins to lose its effectiveness as he approaches the more advanced grades. You see we cannot get away from the language feature there, nor is it desirable to do so.

This test has been applied to more than a thousand deaf pupils in several different states, and the work is still going on in other schools, hence it is reasonable to say that fairly accurate norms have been established for deaf children in this particular ability. To quote from a preliminary report of the "Efficiency Committee" of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals, under whose auspices the test was made by Pintner:

Among the results obtained after careful correlation are those that indicate that the deaf child is about three years behind the hearing child in learning ability, as tested by the rapidity and accuracy of forming associations between numbers and forms; that the deaf boy and the deaf girl are equal in learning ability, which is not the case with the hearing boy and the hearing girl, the latter being the superior; that the deaf boy, however, approximates more closely the hearing boy than does the deaf girl the hearing girl; and that there is practically no difference between the learning ability of the congenitally deaf and the adventitiously deaf.

THE JUVENILE COURT OF NEW YORK CITY

FRANKLIN C. HOYT, CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE CHILDREN'S COURT,
NEW YORK, N.Y.

As many of you are aware, it was sixteen years ago that the first children's court was actually established. Its creation was the logical outgrowth of various experiments which had been made from time to time, in more than one city or state, to protect the delinquent child from the contamination of association with the criminal classes, both in places of detention and in the courts. While some of these efforts resulted in the passage of certain admirable laws, which are still in force, the idea of a

separate tribunal to hear and determine all cases involving neglected or delinquent children, did not develop into permanent existence until the year 1899, when the Juvenile Court of Chicago was successfully established. The creation of courts in other cities followed rapidly, notably in Denver in 1901 and in New York City in 1902, until at the present time the movement has spread, not only throught all this country, but to many of the European nations as well.

It seems almost impossible to realize that here in New York City, only fourteen years ago, children were being tried as criminals, and were handled in all the courts together with the most hardened offenders. Going farther back, it staggers our credulity when we read that in England, early in the nineteenth century—not even one hundred years ago—four little boys of about twelve or thirteen years of age, were tried for stealing a cheap shawl and other trifling articles from a shop window and were condemned to be hanged. That inhuman order was never carried out, as a public uproar compelled the authorities to commute the sentence to penal servitude, but considering what penal servitude meant in those days, perhaps it would have been better for those little children if they had been hanged instead.

As I have said, the Children's Court of New York City has been in existence only fourteen years, but it bears little resemblance at present to the children's court of ten, or even five, years ago. This new court, which came into existence on the first day of July, 1915, has five parts, one court being located in each of the counties comprising Greater New York, namely, New York, Kings, Queens, Richmond, and the Bronx. It has a presiding judge and four associate justices; a complete probation department, including a chief probation officer, two deputy chiefs, and forty-one salaried probation officers, besides an administrative force consisting of a chief clerk, five court clerks, one for each county, their deputies, and a large staff of clerical employes, stenographers, and attendants. It also has a new building in Manhattan, the best of its kind in the world, which will enable it to conduct its business in the most satisfactory manner, and which will permit it to introduce and put into effect new methods of procedure never before tried.

Since the first of the year, two justices have been assigned to sit continuously in the Manhattan Court, so that twice as much consideration can be devoted by the judge to each case as was possible under the old conditions. Under the new system, we are using two rooms for the hearing of cases. The main court room, the larger of the two, is the place where all new cases, with a few possible exceptions, receive their first hearing. All continued cases, however, such as those put over for investigation and decision, as well as for probation, come before the Judge in the smaller court room.

The first hearing in the main court room, we believe, will impress the fact upon the child and its parents that the rights of the community must

be respected, that each child, as well as his parents, owes an obligation to society which cannot be overlooked, and that in each case there must be considered, not only the welfare of the child himself, but the effect of his act upon others. In the second hearing, because of its informality and intimacy, less emphasis is laid upon these aspects of the case, and the interest of the court in the individual will be brought into even stronger relief.

Fifteen thousand children pass thru our children's courts in New York City each year. It is hard to realize how large a throng this 15,000 represents. Of course these children are not all delinquent. About one-half are neglected and are brought before the court because their parents have sinned, either actively or passively, and because they have been denied their inherent right of a normal and decent home.

Most people seem to have the idea that the Children's Court considers only offenses committed by children. If this were true, our work would be far simpler and our problems far less complex. I often say that, in reality, three classes of offenders stand morally arraigned before its bar in almost every case—the child, its parents, and the community. I have no hesitation in saying that of these, the child is generally the least responsible.

If I were to pick out a text to illustrate the court's endeavors, I think I would take it from the twenty-ninth chapter of Job: "I delivered the poor that cried, and the fatherless, and him that had none to help him—The cause which I knew not, I search out."

That, I think embodies the true idea and purpose of the Children's Court. Today much less importance is attached to the offense itself than to the cause of the offense and the child's character and environment. The Court never attempts simply to punish a child, altho it is always ready to employ discipline wherever it may be necessary. The main purpose is to restore the child to his natural balance by the kindest and most efficient methods.

The Court has been called by some the "world's largest life-saving station." Others have likened it to a clinic for the treatment and care of neglected and delinquent children. It might also be regarded, very properly, as a school of instruction for those charged with the duty and responsibility of child-training, for scarcely a case arises which does not have something to teach us in this respect.

Vocational training is but another phase of individual treatment, the vast importance of which we are just beginning to comprehend. It is a subject which deserves the earnest consideration of our entire nation, for only by its practice and development can we succeed in making the occupations and future careers of our children congenial to themselves as well as useful and beneficial to society at large. Heretofore we have been content to find the child a "job," not caring in the least whether he was

at all fitted for the position in question, or whether the work would be congenial to him.

Furthermore, instruction should be continued while children are first engaged in occupations. At present, in many instances, we allow all education to cease for children reaching fifteen years of age, and then expect them to progress in their assigned vocations without further aid. New York City, I am glad to say, is at last beginning to awaken to the importance of this need.

THE DELINQUENT

EDGAR DUBS SHIMER, DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHAIRMAN,
BOARD OF PAROLE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Goethe, in his *Wilhelm Meister*, declares his belief that it is impossible to find any boy, however delinquent or degenerate, in whom we cannot discover some germ of good that may be developed.

The very substance of the things hoped for by us, in this forward movement to reclaim lost souls, lies in our unwavering faith that such reclamation is possible and that we can help to make it actual.

There will be no true cooperation, look for it as we may, unless first and foremost all those who have to deal with children are unalterably fixed upon the fundamental faith, as expressed by Ralph Waldo Emerson, "In the muck and scum of things, there is something always singing." Are our ears attuned to this singing? Do we hear the song? What message does it bring to us?

The term of commitment of delinquents under our regimen is two years, but any delinquent with a satisfactory record for one-third of that time, or eight months, is entitled to consideration for parole. He understands that he has earned this right by good behavior.

There are about one million children of school age in New York City who are under the compulsory-education law. Our present accommodations in truant schools do not allow us to care for more than four hundred and fifty committed delinquents. This is less than one in every two thousand of the school population.

Nevertheless the pressure for room in the truant schools is so great that we have been compelled to venture upon a scheme of recommending parole for six months' satisfactory record.

It is then, especially, that their hopes rest fondly, first upon the principals, and next upon the teachers, to whom the paroled pupil is intrusted for completion of cure.

Were it not for the numerous principals and teachers, whose passion for perfection prompts them unerringly toward the reconstruction and salvation of the imperfect, the Board of Parole would indeed have a vain task.

"If it had not been for a deep experience of my own last year," said a teacher, "I should not have had the patience to bear with this boy." She had herself been transformed by the renewing of the mind, and to the wonder of all she had, with persistent, loving interest found and developed the germ of good in her Wilhelm Meister, fairly and fully transforming him into a new being.

THE GIRL DELINQUENT

AMY S. EVERAL, SUPERINTENDENT, LANCASTER SCHOOL FOR GIRLS,
LANCASTER, MASS.

The problem of the delinquent girl is distinct from that of the dependent or neglected child. According to the Massachusetts statutes a delinquent child is one between the ages of seven and seventeen years who violates any city ordinance or town by-law, or commits an offense not punishable by death nor imprisonment for life. A large proportion of delinquent girls become such because they lack proper home influences and wise guidance and control at the age when girls crave amusement and will surely find it on the street if the home offers no attraction. The actual offense for which the girl is committed, therefore, is the inevitable result of a condition of physical and moral neglect, and lack of schooling and good home influences. The whole question of delinquency is closely allied with home and environment. Poor homes and environment are important contributing causes to delinquency. A large percentage of delinquent girls come from broken homes, either thru death of one or both parents, or on account of drunkenness, domestic unhappiness, or the mother having to work away from home. Most delinquents come from large families, the members living either in a small house or in a few rooms in a crowded tenement. The location of the house is usually unfavorable, being as a rule in the congested quarters of large cities where ideals and the moral atmosphere are not high. The father's occupation is in practically all cases that of unskilled labor, meaning a small income. Poverty is a contributing cause to delinquency, in that it deprives a girl of the coveted personal possessions and the good times essential to her moral growth.

Feeble-mindedness is responsible for from one-third to one-half of all cases of delinquency. Those lacking in normal intelligence are almost sure to fail to meet the problems of life without resorting to undesirable conduct. The perpetuation of feeble-mindedness thru heredity means further increase in delinquency and crime. We cannot hope for an adequate solution of the problem of delinquency until feeble-mindedness and its consequences are properly met.

There are various things which you teachers might do to help prevent delinquency—look after the health of the children, and report cases where

you suspect adenoids, defective sight, and nervous conditions. All these defects are likely to lead to truancy, and truancy to delinquency.

I have talkt with many mothers and realize that, while there is no lack of parental affection, there is a great lack of intelligence. If every girl had an intelligent mother there would be much less work for reformatories, since there are now so many broken homes and so many mothers who have not the intelligence to train their children.

Thru failure to tell the truth to children in answer to honest inquiry, the whole subject of sex has been relegated to the field of curiosity and the imagination, and instruction from the worst sources. Now happily the harm of all this is being seen. Many intelligent parents are bravely experimenting with a different attitude and method, and confidence is growing that the truth can be told to the young to their great advantage.

The impure mind is almost universal. The mode of modern training tends to this result—the concealment of the facts of sexual life, the sense of shame which is so commonly attacht to them, and their usual acquirement from unworthy and misleading sources. When this state of mind has been acquired, the sensuous in life is constantly appealing to and strengthening it, and while it is still possible to implant high ideals, they do not have the same controlling influence as in another mind. But the mere imparting of information would not be a satisfactory solution of our problem. The great object of sex education is less the imparting of knowledge than the creating of the right ideals. Of course it is very important that the right kind of instruction be given, for teaching may do harm as well as good.

I have heard it said that the condition existing in some of our public schools is most shocking. I wonder whether it can be possible that teachers are wholly unconscious of such a state of affairs? Or is not their failure to report cases to the proper authorities due in part to their reluctance to be drawn into the affair?

When a girl has so offended that it is necessary to bring her into court, there are three courses open to a judge: (1) to send her back to the same environment, under the care of a probation officer; (2) to place her in a good home under the supervision of some child-placing agency; (3) To send her to a training or industrial school.

It does not seem, on the face of it, as if the first course—returning her to the old environment—would as a rule be wise. If her offense has been slight, a good home found by a child-placing society would be far better. If a girl has become morally tainted, the best place for her is an institution, where she can receive moral training. It is no more fair to put such a girl directly into a family and run the chance of her contaminating others, than were she infected with a contagious disease.

We all agree that the ideal environment for every child, is the home presided over by the good father and mother. This is the natural atmosphere where a child comes face to face with life's actual daily problems

and is taught to meet them, guided and directed by loving, understanding parents. An institution should aim to realize the ideal of a good parent, that is, a complete development in body, soul and spirit. For this reason it is very important that we have a high standard of officers to work with the unfortunate children we get. They must be refined, patient, sympathetic, forgiving, and motherly. They take a mother's place to many who have not known what true mother-love is.

I shall briefly outline to you the training the delinquent girl receives at the Massachusetts State Industrial School, where we aim to carry out the ideals mentioned above.

After her arrival at Lancaster, each girl is given what to many a girl is her first real bath and a shampoo. She is then taken to a room which she is told is her own. She does not have to share it with anyone else, as each girl rooms alone, and thus possesses a little sanctuary which she can adorn with picture post-cards and other things dear to a girl's heart, and where she can go, when she chooses, to fight out her battles with herself. When she goes downstairs again she finds that there is a living-room tastefully furnished and having a piano; there is a large sunny dining-room containing small tables.

The girls are made to feel a pride in these cottage homes that have adopted them, and are taught simple, inexpensive, effective ways of making cottages attractive, with the hope that they will later carry into their own homes suggestions received at Lancaster. It is impressed upon the girls that economy plays a very important part in successful home-making, and that to be a thoro, economical housekeeper is an end every girl should seek to attain. Their kitchen training is one of the most important features, and girls frequently come to the administration building to display with great pride some sample of culinary efforts which they have accomplished. Besides being taught to cook, the girls are taught laundry-work (everything is done by hand in order better to equip them to become home-makers themselves). They are taught also how to make their own clothes. Our girls work out-of-doors on the farm three or four months of the year. We have done an increasing amount of outside work during the last three years. This has been of great physical and moral benefit to the girls.

A close attention is given to the individual needs of each girl in her school work, and the academic and industrial work are closely allied. They are taught to figure the cost of preparing a meal, or making garments to wear. Physiology and hygiene are brought out in connection with the discussion of ingredients of which things are made. Nature-study and geography are correlated in the study of production. The value of money and its uses, the cost of supplies—food and material values—are all taught. A class in home economics, where practical talks and demonstrations are made, we find of great value especially to those about to be paroled from the school. This preparation for the new life they are about to face and

preparation for a new and strange environment lessen the probable failures after they leave the institution.

We have toucht on the industrial and academic training. Besides this they receive moral and religious training. A priest and minister come to the school weekly for services and instruction. Aside from this teaching the precepts and examples of those with whom the child comes in daily touch is of the greatest value.

We have a resident physician, a dentist, and oculist who make regular visits. We believe with the Greeks, "A healthy mind in a healthy body."

A thoro physical examination is made of each girl when she enters the school, and physical defects are remedied as far as possible, as they prevent the mind from that concentration of effort so necessary for self-improvement. A Wassermann test is made of every girl coming into the institution, and a segregation is made of all girls suffering from syphilis. These girls are given a three-year treatment of mercury and iodide.

Our great function, however, is the regeneration of individuals thru character-reconstruction. We aim to analyze character and to find the cure of each individual's shortcomings by the application of the particular remedy needed for every weakness. Study, by a field worker, is made of the environmental surroundings, which is of great assistance in determining how much that has contributed to the condition of each respective character. The causes being removed (by the change of environment or what-not), we aim to fill their minds with wholesome things and to fit our girls again to take their places in society as respectable members—law-abiding, self-respecting, and self-supporting—"as human assets rather than liabilities."

Our results show that 65 per cent of all the girls committed to us are living respectably at the age of twenty-one. Some girls are ready to be paroled in one year, others in two or three years, according to mentality and behavior. The matron and superintendent decide when a girl's name is to be given to the trustees to be voted upon as one able to take care of herself in the community. When this times comes, a trunk containing an outfit is given the girl and she goes forth in a happy mood. Her character has been developt, her standards of living raised.

DISCUSSION

JESSIE B. COLBURN, president, Association of Women Principals of Public Schools, New York N.Y.—For several years the women principals of public schools in New York City have felt that the question of the delinquent girl must be faced and some solution found. In the effort to do this intelligently, we women have during the past year or two been gathering figures, studying instances, and consulting as to effective means of attacking the problem, and after many conferences, we have askt that our public-school system shall include a country cottage school where these girls may be placed, free from the stigma which attaches to an institution commitment, and free too from the academic drudgery which so often makes school hateful to girls, of this type. Let the girl do house-

work and learn to make a home; if she takes to it, let her do sewing and embroidery; but do not force this sedentary work with the needle upon her if she has no taste for it. In a special home for girls, everyone should have a private room—her very own. It is her right and a patent aid in character-building. Next in importance comes the home-like dining-room, with its small tables, clean napery, and consequent inculcation of not only the decencies of life, but the pleasant social amenities.

There are three reasons why such a school as this is a crying necessity. Two of these are those which we ordinarily consider: first, the protection of society; and secondly, the saving of the girl herself, who is generally much more sinned against than sinning; the third reason, however, I think the primary one, and it is, in my judgment, far too often overlooked, or at least relegated to the background, when it should have first place in our consideration. I mean the protection of the young and innocent-minded children with whom these unfortunate girls are in daily contact.

Two other points: An absolute essential to the success of such work is that the right type of woman—and it must be a woman—must be found to head the school; the second is that other women, just as carefully selected, must be ready when the girl comes back to the city to enter the struggle of life again, to do the necessary follow-up work.

THE BIG-SISTER MOVEMENT

MRS. SIDNEY C. BORG, JEWISH BIG-SISTER MOVEMENT, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The "Big-Sister" societies with whose functions you are undoubtedly somewhat familiar, are attempting to render their assistance to the child in the incipient stage of delinquency and in so doing are hoping ultimately to lessen the need for institutions giving custodial and correctional care.

Few of us are so occupied as to be unable to spare the time for such personal service, and a sympathetic interest often proves the determining factor in a girl's life. The ways in which a "Big Sister" can be helpful can neither be enumerated nor foreseen. The measure of her usefulness is most largely dependent upon the subordination of the thought of charity to a genuine feeling of interest and comradeship.

The work is chiefly preventive; it is not so much a problem of reforming girls who have gone a long way on the erring path, as an effort to prevent them from ruining their lives beyond recall.

Personal influence, the human touch, as I have said before, can become strong influences for good, and these are qualities which we all possess in a measure. Further, it is not on the child alone that this influence must be exercised, for, as Mr. Coulter has so aptly stated in his book entitled *The Children in the Shadow*, the real delinquent is the parent and not the child. It is therefore to the parents that the "Big Sister" must turn and emphasize the weight of their responsibility. But the parents, unfortunately, are frequently unable to carry the burden alone, hence to us falls the moral obligation of preventing these children from passing irrevocably into the depths of degradation and disease.

Since we initiated this work a few years ago, we have been able to assist approximately 650 girls, many of whom are under our constant supervision

and others to whom we return at frequent intervals for a friendly chat or a word of advice.

It has been said that it is more blessed to give than to receive. Those who stretch out the helping hand of a sister to these young unfortunates open up to them a new world, and receive in return the priceless blessing of the deepening and quickening of their own spiritual lives.

ORGANIZED CHARITY AND THE DELINQUENT

SIEGFRIED GEISMAN, SUPERINTENDENT, BROOKLYN HEBREW ORPHAN ASYLUM, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

During the recent Shakespeare revival, lips youthful and mature uttered the bard's immortal lines: "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players. They have their exits and their entrances."

Applying this metaphor, we sit in review upon this motley throng, and only after some effort do we detect its components, some standing forth in bold relief by virtue of salient characteristics, others mere mass, part and parcel of that great, apparently indivisible, indistinguishable background. And yet of these how many start forth blithely, how many, because of inherent defect or the compelling force of untoward circumstances, drop by the wayside, footsore, weary, despondent, despairing! Aye, at this very moment, two children are being born into the world, the one of goodly parentage, eagerly awaited, tenderly watcht over, properly provided for; the other, a compulsory addition to an already overstockt family, a mere drag, necessitating the loss of pay for several days on the part of a tired, careworn mother.

The development of urban centers, creating new situations of especial difficulty, also complicated hitherto simple problems. Amid rural or village environments, where one had lived in close knowledge, if not in direct contact, with the other, the demand for financial aid was easily met. But in cities private help, the assistance that neighbor renders to neighbor, is inadequate and desultory, hopelessly incapable of dealing with any but surface phenomena.

The erring mother presents, in all likelihood, a more serious question. Disintegrating homes require skilled care; but, for the welfare of society, it is essential that the strongest forces be marshaled so that, by means of the cement of human love, lasting buttresses and bulwarks may be reared. Tho the delinquent father and mother should have a measure of our attention, yet we must apply ourselves especially to the children. They are thoughtless, unmoral perhaps, callous to argument, reason, or love; they include too, the imbecile, the moron, all those dwelling eternally in the gloom, feebly groping their way in a world too full of obstacles, too bizarre for a simple, childlike comprehension and appreciation. List them, if

you will, under the categories of the court, as the truant, the gangster, the sneak thief, the drug fiend. Who are his parents? Are they possibly not the delinquent rather than he? What are his home surroundings? Is the body politic perhaps not more criminal than he, in permitting such conditions in our wealthy urban centers?

Some years ago we were appalled at the statistics of children who came to school each morning without a suitable, or some times any, breakfast. Now and then we are set aghast when we are confronted with the findings of physicians who speak of the stupendous number of pupils suffering from physical defects of one sort or another. Add to these causes the chasm between the Americanized child and the alien parent, the latter continuing in the New World his fixt habits of life in total ignorance of American ways. We admit that among our American children, also, respect for law and order, reverence and obedience, are neither inborn nor inculcated. May I suggest that, in the case of the truant, greater blame and severer responsibility be fixt on the delinquent parent. I am deeply conscious of the splendid efforts of our so-called parental or truant schools. I equally realize that they attempt to render, in a way, the work which our public schools fail to extend to many; that they emphasize manual training, supervised play, etc. The schools need a total reorganization, a great humanizing, a broadening and extension. The school year must be extended, the vacation limited to the hottest season, possibly the month of July. Of course, there will be some variance in the work accomplisht during the summer months, more of the time being devoted to manual work, to domestic science, to nature-study, to excursions to points of scenic beauty, historic association, etc. There must be additional playgrounds. It surely has occurred to you what scanty provision our cities make for recreation. In the days of Greece and Rome, more stress was placed upon the amusement of the public. There were festivals without number, games, races, in fine every opportunity was embraced for a public festival. The children of the wealthy today have their amusements, their extraneous instruction in music, dancing, etc., while the children of the poor are relegated to the streets and worse. The boy must be somewhere between school hours and school hours. Let him be in the streets, if there is absolutely no other place, rather than have him disappear from view entirely.

Where can the girl of the working mother seek her recreation? The surprise to me often is that so many preserve their native purity and goodness rather than that so many go astray. Are there then no delinquents among the wealthy, may be your proper question? There surely are, but public agencies are rarely called upon to deal with them; their record does not fill our pages, and in their case, too, we would frequently be forst to ascribe their condition to wreckt homes.

I discust the entire problem a short time ago with one of the best-known judges of our juvenile court. He made the rather cheering statement that

in the light of his experience he believed juvenile delinquency to be on the decline, but that more cases of improper guardianship came before him than in previous years. And he ascribed the decline in juvenile delinquency to better work and wider sympathy in the public schools.

Is it not possible that the schools will also consider it a legitimate branch of their work to relieve charitable organizations of much of the preventive work, along the line of juvenile delinquency, by entering, even more fully, into the life of the individual child? There is a big work for all of us to do.

PRESERVING THE FAMILY

JOSEPH V. S. MCCLANCY, SUPERINTENDENT OF PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS,
DIOCESE OF BROOKLYN, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

Among the educational factors making for the development of character and mind on the part of the delinquent as of the normal child, the family stands out prominent. The first school that a human being enters is the home. Its lessons are well taught and well learned. Who of us that have advanced far into the years of life but can trace back to family influence many of the ideals that are guiding the hours of our today? The social instinct native to the human breast finds its first satisfaction in the home. It is in the schoolroom of the home that a person starts on the upward path leading to that expression of the better elements of his make-up which we know as education.

The devotees of religion make much of the educational value of our churches. Those committed to the principle of associating morality with intellectual training place emphasis on the school. Yet, general is the conviction that the home is the primal factor in the development of the child. Thus has God ordained things to be. The parent supplies the child with the first ideas of concrete right and wrong. From the same quarter proceeds that respect for lawful authority that is the cornerstone of all forms of human society. The teaching of the home is informal but none the less effective. The mother's sacrifices and gentleness, noticed with appreciation by the child, make for the development of an unselfish character. Thru the father bearing the heat and burden of the days of toil, a lesson is read in the need for the quality of sturdiness in meeting the trials of life. The kindly and well-tempered encouragement given children by their parents engenders a confidence in self that at times is woefully wanting in some educated people. Rough edges of character are worn away to an extent in the intimacy of family relations and play obtaining between the offsprings of a common parentage. In its fulness of strength the home bears about it the note of religion. It is a bad home that inculcates religious narrowness or fosters bigotry. The fact of an ever-present, all-knowing, and all-interested God becomes an important agency in investing

a child, not merely with the veneer of good conduct but also with its veritable substance. Too well rooted in history and too well abiding in the conscience of everyone is the belief in a rewarding and punishing Deity to be dismissed out of deference for a philosophy making popular atheism. Self-improvement is rendered on the average well-nigh impossible in any home that tries to stand without the guiding and governing influence of a firm acceptance of the existence of a Divine Providence.

The character- and mind-development especially of the delinquent child attends in great part on the quality of the home. The pity of life is that not all homes work for this noble end. Some of them refuse to lend their cooperation to the church and the school for the bringing of the child on to an educational and moral maturity. One explanation for this bad condition is sought in the economic wrongs of the day. Poverty paralyzes home influences. The toil-burdened father begets in the misery of his low-waged employment diseased standards of honesty that are likely to filter down to the child. In the same home the care of many children with but slight means of subsistence will take the attention of the mother off the larger work of guiding the mental and moral development of the child. This is especially striking in the case of widows. The normal environment of play and health that a child has a right to demand of society is at times wanting. The desire for amusements, the gratification of the child's appetites for sweets, the quest for toys—these are often unmet in the houses of the poor. The case can be pushed farther. Even sanitary conditions, well set forth by Dr. William H. Maxwell in his admirable paper on "How to Help the Backward Child," are lamentably lacking. Proper sleeping appointment, the presence of pure air, the nourishment for a growing body, the reasonable safeguards against disease, the precautions against moral disorders—such indeed are awkward problems in homes where the wages are small. There is to be noted a peculiar leakage of home influences among our immigrants. Sturdy and industrious characters arriving on our liberty-blest shores, they neglect to learn our language with any degree of confidence in speaking it. From this condition flow many evils. The child assumes the rôle of an interpreter and in many cases the passage is easy to independence of parental control. Especially is the plot of this mischief thickened when evil street companionship enters into the problem as is the case with most delinquents.

Even when the home breaks down in its educational value the wise friend of the school child hesitates to remove him from its sphere. The way of acting is rather to seek the improvement of the home. The commitment to an institution is a last resort and one always to be taken with a measure of sincere regret. The thought now rushes on our view that the best method of meeting the delinquency problem is to mobilize our efforts in the direction of restoring to fallen homes their native vigor along educational lines. Educated people should plunge into the labor problem,

all the while keeping clear of the gospel of class strife. The modern looseness of idea on the inviolability of marriage should give way before a strengthened public opinion denouncing divorce as an evil which more than outweighs all the horrors that are described of homes torn by internal dissension.

Our parting thought is twofold. From our hearts there issue the warmest sympathy and the most cheering encouragement for an organization such as the Association of Workers among Delinquent Children, and for others who labor along their lines altho not banded under their control. Their material for work is assuredly not of the best. It is a noble thing, when engaged in a good direction, to be undiscouraged by the odds against one's success. The country, with its jails already chokt to overflowing, must look down with gratitude upon the men and women who are applying the curative and preventive measures to keep down the number of convicts. The work is not without its discouraging sneers of criticism, but it is a work whose successes have been many, altho unfortunately not appreciated by an incredulous public.

The final word is to stress the contention of some of the best thinkers of our day, that all delinquency does not spring from defective mentality, and that the overemphasizing of environment has led some to forget the existence of free will on the part of man. The child delinquent is a problem to be handled in the light of a philosophy that does not degrade man to the level of the brute. Instruct the child in the sense of his own responsibility, and then make good the environment in which he is placed. The home is the environment of excellence; in our efforts to give the home its full efficacy let us not lose sight of the aim of our endeavors to round the child into the man or woman of knowledge, morality, religion, and patriotism.

THE SOCIAL WORKER

HENRY W. THURSTON, DIRECTOR OF CHILD WELFARE, SCHOOL OF
PHILANTHROPY, NEW YORK, N.Y.

I assume that all of you have had personal and professional dealings with some of the following persons, and some of you with all of them: attendance, or truant, officers; probation officers in charge of children, and perhaps adults, who have never been in a custodial institution of any kind; parole officers in charge of children and perhaps adults who have been releast from custodial institutions of some kind; men and women in public and private employ who have as a part of their work the giving of material relief; men and women in charge of placed-out or boarded-out children. All these and many more are candidates for membership in the occupational group that is now slowly differentiating itself in our midst as a social-work group technically so called.

Now, whether or not these workers whom I have just enumerated have yet established a real profession of social work, it is demonstrably true that in their most efficient developments they are all fundamentally alike in technique, with minor differences in routine.

For example, the most efficient among probation officers, parole officers, visiting teachers, hospital social-service workers, placing-out agents, and district nurses are all alike in these respects: (1) they all deal with handicapped individuals; (2) they all deal with these handicapped individuals against the background of a particular family, neighborhood, economic and civic environment. The technique of the social worker in this sense is different from that of the teacher in the classroom, from that of the doctor and nurse in the dispensary and hospital, from that of the minister in his pulpit. It may easily be granted that the classroom teacher can teach better if she is familiar with all the personal characteristics of each pupil and of his home and social environment, but we should never lose sight of the fact that the technique of a teacher in the classroom and that of a social-case worker in investigation, formation, and execution of plan of treatment for each dependent, neglected, or delinquent child and his family as a whole, are different. It may be an open question whether or not the same person should know and practice both techniques, but it leads only to confusion if we fail to recognize that there are two techniques.

This leads us to the crux of the whole problem of cooperation between the teacher and any social worker. As things are now in many of our cities, the teacher not only faces the problem of cooperation with one social worker with respect to a particular family, but cooperation with several. Often a probation officer, a visiting nurse, or visiting teacher are all at one time visiting a family, which has one or more children in a school. In such a situation the teacher's problem of cooperation with each social worker is very difficult unless the different social workers who visit the same family also cooperate well among themselves and with the family in question.

THE WORK OF THE VISITING TEACHER

RUTH TRUE, CHILDREN'S BUREAU, WASHINGTON, D.C.

I believe that every large school needs to supplement the staff whose business it is to handle groups of children for some six hours of their day, with some one person whose business it is to study the individual child for as much as possible of his twenty-four hours a day. This thought had been smoldering, for during the last nine years it caught fire spontaneously in several parts of the country. Now, for the first time, the people who have been experimenting with it have come together to compare notes. This function has been given different names. In New York such a worker is called a visiting teacher; in Boston, a home and school visitor. In general,

any child who is a misfit, whose teacher feels that he is not absorbing the profit he should be getting from what the school has to offer, may come to her. The only exceptions are those for whom some other special provision is made, as in the case of truants. In particular, according to the last report of the Public Education Association, 926 children were brought to their visiting teachers by the class teachers and principals for the following reasons:

1. Those who were lagging behind in scholarship. These were not mentally subnormal children, barring a few cases which were not so diagnosed until after they were referred.

2. Those with whom there was some difficulty regarding conduct of which the roots reach deeper than the classroom—back into the home or outside life of the child.

3. Children who were irregular, not truants, but those who were dropping out too many occasional days.

4. Children in such poor physical condition that they were in need of resources beyond those the school had to offer. Here they workt in cooperation with the school nurse.

5. Those for whom home conditions were so bad that the effects showed in the classroom.

6. Children persistently tardy.

The visiting teacher has one great advantage over the probation or the truant officer. More and more, as she works in a school, she comes in at the beginning of trouble. I would like to emphasize the fact that then is the time when effort is best repaid by result. To generalize, she may in the first place bring about an adjustment in the home which will put the child in a better position to benefit from the school. Frequently a case presents some tangle which can quickly be pulled straight. In some instances a new home is secured for the child.

In the second place, there are adjustments which may be made in the school. For these, the knowledge of the child's outside life brought back is almost always useful and often indispensable. Sometimes the change is one of program, such as a shift to an open-air class, or an opportunity for lunches in the school. In other cases it is one of attitude which comes to us all with understanding. I believe that this is just as important. Many children, whose effort will never tally with achievement because of some outside handicap, are thirsty like the others for the glow that comes from appreciation.

The visiting teacher must be one of the staff of the school; she cannot afford to be a fifth wheel revolving on her own account. She needs to have her place in the school building and to be there and to be given hours when she can be reacht by teachers and children. Perhaps the kernel of the visiting teacher's immediate contribution to the school is the help she can give in fitting together the pieces for a child whose pattern does not con-

form. Her place is indicated when we remember that for such youngsters no machine program, however well it may work for the majority, will take the place of a hand-made plan.

THE WORK OF THE BUREAU OF ATTENDANCE, NEW YORK CITY SCHOOLS

JOHN W. DAVIS, DIRECTOR, ATTENDANCE BUREAU, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The full title of this bureau is the Bureau of Compulsory Education, School Census, and Child Welfare. In doing our work, these three divisions sometimes impinge, sometimes overlap, as the nature of the problem to be solved demands. Primarily, as I understand it, the prevention side of our work is the one to be emphasized today. And right here I should like to put forth our fundamental proposition: that a school census properly kept will be a great help in our work.

We feel that the problem is a sociological one, and, further, that to reduce truancy we must study the causes leading to it. The causes may be grouped as follows: the nagging teacher; lack of clothing; not in proper physical nor mental condition; dislike for school brought about in other ways; overindulgent parents; incomplete family; stern father and relenting mother; squalid and filthy homes; drunkenness on the part of one or both parents; the gang.

If we remove the cause, the truancy disappears. The attendance officers are instructed to look primarily for the cause in order to ascertain whether the individual officer can effect a cure, always remembering that he must put himself in the place of the erring pupil, when he begins to judge the boy, and to be a big brother to him.

While the bureau car was coming thru the park one day, a boy of fourteen was stopt, invited to a seat in the car, and brought over to the office. On being questioned by me, he stated that his reason for playing truant was that his teacher was constantly nagging him! He was returned to school, transferred to another class, and that cured his truancy.

Now the dislike for school may be brought about in other ways than by the nagging teacher. If a pupil is maladjusted as regards the course of study, trouble will follow; also lack of clothing and shoes are frequent causes of truancy. The bureau has a stock of clothing on hand that has been given it by well-wishing friends, and it relieves the necessities of the individual cases in this respect.

The law gives this bureau power to commit to a parental or truant school all children who are persistent truants, provided the parents consent; if the parents do not consent, the aid of the courts must be invoked to carry out the law. Our hearings are conducted by two division supervisors. Last year we had 9000 hearings.

When the bureau was organized we felt that it was necessary at these hearings to have a physical and mental examination made of all the pupils brought before us. After the physical and mental status has been determined and the pupil found to be satisfactory, he is transferred to another class in his own school, or to another school, and placed on probation to see whether the change in environment will prove beneficial.

Let me here call your attention to what we consider one of the most important phases of our prevention work—the number of children placed on probation. We have had on probation this year about 5000 children. This does not include those on parole from the truant schools—583. The attendance officers keep in close touch with the boys on probation and on parole. Here the attendance officer is the big brother, and that is the attitude we wish to maintain.

One of the cases reported to us and referred to Dr. Heckman was that of a boy who not only was a truant, but, when he did attend school, was very troublesome. Dr. Heckman's examination showed that his eyesight was very defective. The boy wore glasses, but they were of a character that he should not have been using under any circumstances. As a matter of fact, when he was sitting in the front of the classroom, near the blackboard, the glasses he was wearing made the figures on the blackboard indistinguishable.

In studying the case of another lad, we found peculiar conditions at home—good surroundings, but with a stepmother and the boy's own father, resulting in a case of "my" children, "your" children, and "our" children. As the father was at home very little, his child was not receiving the attention from the stepmother that he might have received had the father been at home more. The case was referred to us thru the court, inasmuch as one of the attendance officers had found a good home for the child.

Now, as to the gang: I mean the gang of older boys—seventeen, eighteen, and nineteen years of age—that induces and seduces the younger boys to play truant, that they may be brought up in the ways of the older gangsters. These gangsters are a very grave danger and menace to the city, and generally speaking, this is where criminality begins.

Under a working arrangement between Police Commissioner Woods and our bureau, the police now apprehend any boy of school age found on the streets during school hours, and take him to the nearest public school where he is turned over to one of our attendance officers.

This leaves but one other topic to be spoken of: the boy who takes out working papers with no intention of working. As you doubtless know, the Board of Health notifies us of the number, date, and the name of every person to whom working papers are issued. Each case is investigated automatically after ample opportunity has been given to each child to obtain a position. If the child has not secured a position, he must return to school.

To facilitate an experiment with pupils found on the street with working certificates but not employed, Edward Mandel, principal of Public School 188B, mapped out a course of study along commercial lines, consisting of the following subjects: Commercial arithmetic, commercial English, stenography, typewriting, office practice, civil service, telephone, and transit problems of New York City railway lines.

Six periods of forty minutes each were devoted during the afternoons to teaching the boys the practical use of tools, while a thirty-minute gymnasium period and a thirty-minute reading period were provided for each day as well. As you can see, prevention rather than punishment is the doctrine of this bureau.

THE NEED OF FRESH-AIR CLASSES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

HARRIET A. TUPPER, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 58, NEW YORK, N.Y.

The second annual report on fresh-air classes for anemic children in the public schools of the city of New York contains a letter written by Dr. Gustave Straubenmüller, now acting city superintendent. In it is this paragraph:

While there always will be children who are physically weak and undernourished, still the time is coming when it will be considered unpardonable in a school administration not to know of the cases and not to make special classroom provisions for them, even if active measures for the removal of the remediable defects be not intrusted to it.

The current National Education Association session seems to prove this, as is evidenced by the time and space allotted to special education. We have become not merely administrators of the three R's but keen analysts of the material with which we work. The result is widely differentiated methods of educating differing types. These methods rest in part upon devices to permit of greater comfort for the physically or mentally handicapped, and thru this relief to the body, the mind is able to work normally. That is the meaning, I take it, of Dr. Straubenmüller's characterization that it is unpardonable in a school administration not to provide special classrooms for children so handicapped.

The supplying of fresh air for all children in school would seem like a first principle of education, but cold fresh air doesn't seem to be very popular with parents, teachers, nor pupils. Yet the over-heated air of most of our homes and the ventilating systems of our most expensive school plants leave much to be desired in the way of betterment.

The anemic child needs these changed conditions as is proved by Dr. Woodruff's clear-cut, conclusive reasoning. Then, having provided the fresh, cold air, the proper wraps must follow, while suitable desks and chairs help also. Any form which will insure comfort while sitting, and which may be moved to one side to make room for cots during the resting

periods will suffice. A southern exposure is desirable so that one may have sunshine all day, etc.

But how shall we know the cases needing attention of this kind? Must we as principals and teachers also become pathological experts? Not at all. I am sure that physicians, who are always in every community the greatest givers, will give the necessary examinations and aid you in selecting your class. If errors are made, don't worry, because fresh air was never known to hurt even the most vigorous person. The greatest results will be gained from these physical examinations if tonsil and adenoid operations are performed at once where needed, and the teeth put into a good condition. No child is likely to be permanently benefited by a fresh-air class if he needs an operation, but if the examination results in the removal of remediable defects the school is largely benefited thereby.

Perhaps we do not know the result of the ordinary heated classroom on the normal child. Let me tell you of a test made by Dr. Woodruff at Public School No. 107, Manhattan, during the school year of 1911-12. A class of normal children was selected and called a control class; they were as near the average age of the fresh-air class as possible; they were weighed, measured, their blood was tested, and they were fed quite as regularly as the anemic children, whose windows were wide open to the not too gentle breezes from the North River during the entire school year. This was, in fact, the only difference, so far as we were able to control it, that one used an ordinary steam-heated room with ventilation thru windows opened as the teacher felt the need, while the other never closed them and had practically no heat. The results showed that the so-called control class did not gain so much in either weight or height, and that they actually lost 3.48 per cent of haemoglobin, while the anemic children gained 10.2 per cent, thus making a difference of more than 13.5 per cent; in other words, the control class became more anemic while the anemic children became nearly normal. But this was not the only gain made by the anemic children; their ability to study increast, the fatigue point was reacht after longer periods of work, and at the end of the year nearly every child had shown improvement over his previous year's record of promotions. In several cases extra promotions were made.

However, the influence of the fresh-air system doesn't stop with the good of the children and the education of the parents. In my opinion a distinct advantage comes to that school where a fresh-air class has been organized thru the broadening influence of the teacher. The real fresh-air teacher is just another kind of missionary. She preaches the doctrine of a perfect body as a temple for a better mind, to her pupils, their parents, and her associates. Inadvertently, perhaps, she drops a word about the wonderful resistance of her class to colds and contagious diseases. Not an absence due to cold nor measles nor other like disease in the entire year, is quite frequently the record.

SPEECH-IMPROVEMENT

DENNIS J. MCDONALD, M.D., FELLOW OF ACADEMY OF
MEDICINE, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Having for many years been closely associated with our public-school system, I find that the most serious problem that confronts us is the spoken English of our children. Realizing the paramount necessity for normal speech and having the opportunity for observation and study at close range during my service to the board of education as commissioner for many years, I determined to try to standardize work for all abnormal-speech conditions found in our schools.

Speech per se, as a faculty, is not innate in man; every human being is born speechless. The child gradually learns to speak, and unconsciously speech is developed with other bodily and mental faculties. While means of speech is possessed at birth, in its development it is subject to disturbances by disease or other causes. Speech is produced by the prompt cooperation of three great mechanical factors, namely, respiration, vocalization, and articulation, with which is associated mentation, or the action of the mind.

Modern medicine and psychology have put to their credit a notable achievement by the demonstration that defective speech is at bottom a mental rather than a physical disease, where a definite defect of the speech organs does not exist. Children suffering from such a speech defect as stuttering are highly strung or sensitively organized. They are emotional, temperamental, and easily influenced. If nothing is done to correct their condition, thereby establishing mental stability, what is the result? Such children help to fill up our vast army of truants, delinquents, vagrants, and gangsters. From a weak, good-natured child is evolved a child on the road to criminality. To quote the words of an authority who has had charge of a large home for vagrant boys for the last twelve years: "Ninety per cent of the boys who have past thru my house have suffered from some form of speech defect." This definitely corroborates my former statement, that if these boys had received the proper training and had been cured of their defective speech during their school life, their mental status and environment would have been normal, and it would have been impossible for them to find themselves in their present condition. Instead of undesirable citizens we would have, with the proper care and training, citizens that we all could be proud of.

For years teachers of English connected with the various schools and universities have deplored the fact that pure, unalloyed English speech, viewed from a tonal and enunciatory standard, is fast becoming a lost art. This impulse, no doubt, has been the outcome of the rapidly developing interest in oral composition; so much so that the English teachers are observing in themselves their own deficiencies in tone and utterance. The

great necessity is instruction in the fundamentals of speech, that is, careful constructive work in articulation, pronunciation, and production of tone. With poor tone, work upon pronunciation, articulation, phrasing, interpretation, etc., is relatively unprofitable because it lacks foundation and will not be assimilated; but when conversation is carried on in tones that comprise the normal male-or-female-speech range, almost all difficulty in improving enunciation or articulation disappears. We naturally must conclude that it is definitely necessary to establish standards for our everyday speech. Conversation should be carried out along male and female tonal range; by that we mean notes comprising the male and female speaking voice. Since the idea is practical, it is therefore possible, and when definite provisions are instituted for the carrying-out of this idea the result will be more than beneficial, for the shrill, harsh rasping, speech that we hear daily will be a thing of the past.

A study of speech conditions in our public schools shows that 200,000 of the 800,000 children are foreigners or of foreign extraction, and that 200,000 of the boys and girls are afflicted with stuttering, mumbling, lisping, or foreign accent.

Plans are under consideration whereby the board of education will provide in the very near future for its thousands of children suffering from defective speech, thus wiping out all handicaps and setting a standard for normal American children.

A special speech department will be organized, with a medical specialist at its head. Every child with a speech defect will be studied, diagnosed, and prescribed for. If the handicap is caused by some pathological condition of the speech organs or by some simple thing like adenoids for example, the cure will be easy. If the cause is more deeply seated the specialist will still be able to deal with it. Each child will be dealt with separately. I am certain that very few cases will be found entirely hopeless. These children will receive special work, exercises, etc., for a certain period every day during school hours, under the care of a teacher who has received proper training and is under the direction of the specialist of the department.

Another important function of the department of speech will be the standardization of English without accent for the foreign-born. The whole matter of teaching English to foreigners has been scandalously neglected. It is a strange fact that, with the hordes of foreigners descending upon our shores every year, of whom thousands enter school and attend night school, no one has ever written a textbook on the subject of teaching English. The teachers have worked out their methods, and some of them are good; but we have no standards.

To teach little children to speak English is comparatively easy, yet a large number never learn to speak correctly. They acquire a vile patois that is a handicap thru life to them. As for the adult foreign population, one

knows that there is a large number of voters who cannot speak an intelligible sentence.

Graded phonic drills, embracing all the fundamental sounds of the language, will be instituted in the public-school curriculum, so that the daily exercises can be given to every child in order to attain perfect enunciation and correct careless speech or foreign accent.

The very Americanization of the foreign citizen is involved in this matter of clear English speech. A good speech, unhampered by accent, is a requisite for the highest mental and moral development of the immigrant.

The object in view in the treatment of defective speech is not only to correct the defect but to establish normal correct speech; in other words, to create a new standard of speech instead of adding to an old faulty condition.

Cure, in this medical age, is like that for other nervous diseases—re-education. These long standing psycho-neuroses are chronic conditions, and only a long and patient training will remove them, so that lungs, voice, lips, and tongue will again work in harmony. The whole character often has to be reconstructed, the whole inner life reorganized. To cite definitely, defective speech is a distinct form of nervous disease; it can be properly and legally treated by teachers under the guidance of a physician, the treatment being the re-education of the cerebral-speech mechanism, and this re-education is brought about largely thru the accurate physiological use of the vocal organs.

In the last forty years extensive strides have been made in the correction of disordered speech thruout Germany, Austria, France, England, and Japan.

THE MISSION OF THE SPEECH SPECIALIST

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Modern medicine has put to its credit a notable achievement by its demonstration that defective speech is at bottom a pathological condition.

Speech and its defects have been treated or mistreated by almost everybody, in all walks of life, because, as far back as we can go in our literature, there was someone who needed treatment. The case of Moses is an illustrious example.

In following up the literary history of defective speech we find four outstanding periods: (1) from the earliest historical records to the early part of the nineteenth century; (2) from the early part of the nineteenth century to the period of surgical operations; (3) the period of surgical operations, chiefly confined to the year 1841; and (4) from the surgical period to the present day.

Judging from the Greek vocabulary, containing as it does a large variety of terms relating to impediments of speech, we are justified in the

conclusion that not a few persons thus afflicted were to be found among the ancient Greeks.

The stimulus given to every other art and science by the development of the Greek language seems to have had little or no effect in aiding the sages of ancient Greece to arrive at the formulation of any satisfactory classification of defective speech.

The Romans clast stuttering and lisping with other infirmities and peculiarities. The stutterer and lisper had his special name, *balbus blaesus*; so had the squinter, the bandy-legged, and the long-nosed person. But little practical knowledge of these ailments really existed.

Operations for defects of speech were performed before, but nothing of a definite nature occurred until 1841, when Dieffenbach announst his operations on the tongue for the cure of defective speech, especially stuttering.

Surgical enthusiasm was on, it spread like wildfire over the entire continent. A regular mania took possession of the surgeons of Europe for the cure of defective speech, each one of note claiming to be the inventor of a new modification of some previous operation. The methods were generally arranged by nationalities, the Germans following Dieffenbach; the French, Velpeau; the English, Yearsley and Braid. Nearly two hundred cases in France alone submitted to the operation in the course of the year. At the end of the year a cry of warning was raised, and those who had tried the experiment found the courage to acknowledge their grave error.

Following this surgical period pedagogic methods came into vogue and were carried out by teachers both abroad and here; for teachers connected with the various schools and universities deplored the fact that pure, unalloyed speech was fast becoming a lost art, and this gave a great impetus to all manner of didactic methods. At about the same time a realization of psychic influences necessitating counteracting suggestions came into style especially for the relief of stuttering.

Psycho-analysts for awhile were very busy; their fundamental argument was that stuttering like all phobias and obsessions, was caused by a psychic complex which is endowed with extremely intense emotions and inhibitions, and, therefore, possesses so impelling a power that it forces the patient to be more or less under its influence. The physical and psychic symptoms of defective speech are merely projections of the conflicts piled up in the emotional complex. According to my classification there is the phanerogenetic stutterer and the cryptogenetic stutterer. The cryptogenetic stutterer is the incurable wanderer who needs medical scientific treatment. Those were the cases that Mr. Albert Gutzmann was unable to cure and also those are the cases which are not cured today by most of those engaged in defective-speech work.

At the university clinic at Berlin it was definitely demonstrated by Professor Herman Gutzmann that defective-speech children are sick children. Lispers usually had some pathological condition of the peripheral-

end organs of speech. Stutterers usually had a central involvement which required extensive medical examination to diagnose and classify. A speech specialist of America bears out the pathological contention by citing that 97 per cent of 1000 cases of stuttering that came under his observation had some pathological condition that required medical treatment; and in about 38 per cent of the cases, surgical treatment of some form or other had to be resorted to.

Hysteria is not an organic disease, there being no involvement of the peripheral organs, of the spinal cord, nor of the medulla. It is a disease of the mind, using the term "mind" scientifically as being the product of certain "unknown alterations of the cerebral cells," and representing the highest functions of the brain. It has been called a "psychologic dis-aggregation," a "psychologic lesion," a "disease of the personality." In any case it is very real, very distressing, and worthy of our best attention.

All vocal sounds are produced by coordinate action of the phonatory respiratory mechanism. The independent action of each of these two mechanisms may be apparently excellent, but if for any reason their coordinate action is not possible there can be no vocal sounds or phonation. We may then have loss of voice with no paralysis whatsoever of the vocal cords nor any of the intrinsic muscles of the larynx.

The case seen was that of a child about nine years old who for two years never spoke above a whisper. On examination by means of the laryngoscope the true state of the vocal cords was revealed. An application of the internal faradic brush was sufficient to remove the anaesthesia of the larynx.

A great barrier in the way of mental development is the lack of power of expression, and it is universally conceded that until the faculty of speech is established no man can ever become a useful citizen. Efficiency and ease seem to go together as a characteristic of mental strength and economy. "Living at the tips of one's nerves" thru an impediment of speech tends to develop vicious circles of nervous instability resulting in an increase of criminals, prostitutes, and general failures.

Pathologic conditions which render the nasal passages impervious and at the same time interfere with the proper adjustment of the palatal muscles are most detrimental to the singing and speaking voice. A voice, to be pleasing, must have its tone vibrations, which are produced by the action of the vocal cords on the expiratory blast, reinforced by sound waves from the cavities of the chest and head. The nose and accessory sinuses play a very important part as vocal resonators. The resonant element acting on the fundamental tone produced by the larynx develops overtones which gives color or timber to vocal sound. The following are the most frequent pathologic intranasal conditions which interfere with the functions of the nose and accessory sinuses, and either directly or indirectly with voice and speech: deviations of the nasal septum, hypertrophy or hyper-

plasia of turbinates, polypoid growths, and adenoids. When present, these conditions can be eliminated on proper diagnosis and treatment, and speech that was muffled, loose, and unmusical, changes to speech that is pleasing and melodious.

May we not hope that thru the cooperation of education and medicine in the task of curing disorders of speech the new generation will go forth better equipt in this battle of life?

WHAT IS A "SPEECH CLINIC?"

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During the last school year I traveled some two thousand miles and visited over twenty-five cities for the purpose of ascertaining what methods were used for the improvement of speech in the public schools. I found the methods as numerous as were the cities visited. On the basis of my observations, I attempted to formulate an ideal method of attacking the problem. This survey, reflection, and formulation have resulted in what I call "speech clinic."

A speech clinic consists of three departments: a superintendent, a physician, and a teacher. From my experience in making this extensive survey, I have come to the conclusion that the problem cannot be adequately solved unless all three of these individuals take part. Let us briefly consider the function of each.

1. The superintendent's proper sphere is to view the whole ground in a general and supervising manner. He should not be expected to be thoroly conversant with the medical diagnosis of the physician, nor should he be expected to be conversant with all the detailed methods of training employed by the teacher, but he should be acquainted in a general way with both these sides of the subject, so as to be able to direct the others in the general trend of their work.

The superintendent likewise should have a general supervision over the whole problem in the schools—a wider field of activity than doctor or teacher should be allowed to assume. The doctor can examine and diagnose cases brought to him, the teacher can take these over and treat them educationally. The superintendent, on the other hand, should be the one to organize the flow of patients to the doctor thru his general management of principals and other teachers. The superintendent's special function is general supervision of the whole field of work.

2. The special function of the physician in the speech clinic is to make diagnoses on cases referred to him. Of course he should treat those cases himself which he sees demand medical care, culling out, from those the teacher presents, the cases that have some element in their make-up that

decidedly marks them as subjects for medical treatment. Such cases, for example, are feeble-mindedness in its marked forms, decided jaw-deformities, and latent nervous or psychiatric conditions.

The chief service that the physician can render the teacher is in finding organic causes of speech defect, or in stating clearly that there are none. A good illustration of this was a case that was brought to me. A teacher had given a boy constant and intensive vocal drill. The results were nil. The teacher, in despair asked me what should be done in the way of further treatment. After an examination taking about an hour, a diagnosis of congenital syphilis was made. The teacher was told that if the case had been brought first to the doctor he would have been able to tell her that nothing could be done for the case, and she would have been saved the tedious three months of drill. This is a good illustration of how the doctor can save, thru his diagnosis, the energy and valuable time of the teacher.

The teacher's activities in the speech clinic should be confined to educational remedial and corrective work. In a word, she should apply treatment.

To summarize, the speech clinic consists of three individuals with three functions: superintendent, doctor, and teacher; supervision, diagnosis, and treatment.

TONE AND HEARING

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Sound is a mental result originating from certain changes in the ear and brain due to vibrations. Vibration is the basis of tone. The human ear appreciates vibrations from 16 to 48,000 per second. The musical ear may hear as high as 54,000. Insects hear still higher. The human ear limit is ordinarily 11 octaves, but for practical purposes 7 octaves suffice. Vibration less than those producing sound, help in instructing the deaf. The totally deaf may feel vibrations more keenly than do those with normal hearing. In fact, its appreciation becomes developed almost into a separate sense. This likewise explains a form of deafness called *paracusis willisi* in which the afflicted persons can hear conversation in a noisy room or on a train, while they are very deaf to the same conversation carried on in a quiet room. Here the vibrations seem to carry on to the sensorium the lighter tones of speech and make the latter more audible. Unfortunately this form of deafness is of bad omen, as to the recovery of hearing. Again, the deaf are more deaf to foreign languages than to their own, and to strange voices than to those of their family.

Hearing is subjective and objective. This explains why voices are so different in intensity and pitch in the deaf. A person with catarrhal or conduction deafness hears his own voice loudly because it cannot escape easily from his clogged ears. He therefore speaks very low imagining that

he is speaking loud enough. His subjective hearing is louder than his objective. A person with nerve deafness does not hear his voice well on account of his damaged internal ear or brain. He thus talks loudly so that others may hear.

Aprosexia is that condition of mental cloudiness or phlegmatic stupidity which is often thought to be inattention. It is, in fact, due to the withdrawal of the deaf individual from participation in mental activity because he finds he does not hear and therefore will not try. It is found particularly in those who have adenoids. The mental rebound is surprising on removal of the growths and the restoration of the hearing.

There are two kinds of deafness—conduction, generally catarrhal, and nerve deafness. The former is caused by a swelling of the eustachian tube. As only one person in four has normal hearing we can see that many musicians may be partially deaf. The musical ear is one of fine auditory memory.

The one great fault of hygiene productive of more aural trouble than any other is violently blowing the nose. This act carries into the ear infection as in grippe and salt-water bathing. It causes inflammation and swelling of the eustachian tube.

I think that apart from the visitations of systematic diseases which unfortunately select the ear as a field for their activity, like cerebrospinal meningitis, preventive medicine has rendered probable a better race of hearers, and consequently a better race of speakers.

SPEECH-IMPROVEMENT IN THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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The work is classified into two divisions: (1) the major, stuttering; and (2) the minor, all other defects. The method used depends entirely upon the individual, the subject must be studied. For a typical case of stuttering, one method, outlined along four points, is used, tho the work is necessarily still somewhat tentative. This outline consists of (1) correct breathing, (2) relaxation, (3) rhythm, and (4) the development of self-confidence. About five minutes are devoted to silent deep breathing, in varying positions, and three or four minutes for silent relaxation, to gain poise. The system centers around the vowels, as it is believed that the great difficulty lies with these. After the deep breathing a vowel is given and sustained as long as possible. Then the tip-of-the-tongue sounds—*t, d, l, n*—are combined with the vowels.

There is great value in the correct use of rhythm, tho the children should not be taught to talk to a beat. Nursery rhymes are used, at first strongly accented, then nearer the normal.

The old woman and the sixpence is a rhyme frequently used, as the words, "story," and "rhythm" all appeal, tho perhaps the actual story part is a little forst as regards some of the children. With older children, poems, stories, and discussions are used.

SPEECH WORK IN THE DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MRS. FRANK A. REED, PRINCIPAL, REED SCHOOL, DETROIT, MICH.

In the Detroit public schools the child is sent to a specialist for speech-improvement work half a day, twice a week, and then returned to the teacher with instructions as to how he is to read and recite. Stress is laid on the importance of relaxation, on correct, that is, natural, breathing. After this the next step is relaxation on outgoing breath. As speech is given during exhalation, speech therefore is given during relaxation. Stammerers and stutterers strain when talking—they are at a tension; it is important to try to teach them relaxation.

The children can be taught to help themselves toward correct breathing and speaking, by being shown the "geography" of the speech organs—both normal conditions and deviations.

Then comes the blending; the continuous production of a vowel, an easy start, and a continuous production. The psychological side is also studied, and the children are helpt to develop self-control and self-reliance; to eliminate fear and the fear of talking. Knowledge dissipates fear; when the child knows how he will not be afraid.

At the beginning of this work in Detroit, at the first survey, there were found three hundred and fifty children; but it has since been found that many children hitherto considered as stubborn, or backward, shy or poor spellers, were children with defective speech. All the teachers are now taking interest in this work.

THE NEED OF SPEECH WORK IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

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Unfortunately, here in New York we cannot even lay claim to correct-speech standards! New York, unlike Boston, is a place and not a condition, and indeed it is because it is so many places—little Italy, little Russia, little Ireland, little Poland—that there is no standard of correctly spoken English, that we speak, not one dialect, but many; and that it is the most difficult thing in the world for an educated adult to keep his standard—to maintain a purity of language against the corruptions of the majority in the streets. Eternal vigilance is the price of pure English!

In Hunter College High School the percentage of American-born students is rather greater than in most of the city's high schools, and therefore the following statistics must be considered as significant. Of our students 10 per cent are of foreign birth, while 50 per cent speak a language other than English in their homes! There are, of course, numbers of students who do not speak acceptable English, but unless they speak a foreign tongue, I have not classified them as belonging to the 50 per cent who do not speak English at home.

Those who speak Yiddish or German predominate, and this will be seen to have a great influence upon both vocal and speech habits, since the low-lying tongue of the Yiddish or German conditions the type of both voice and speech in the English of these students. I have met, in the course of the past two and one-half years in our high schools, students who speak in their homes and home neighborhoods, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Russian, Hungarian, Roumanian, French, Italian, Spanish, and pure Hebrew, and who have, in consequence, but little time to accustom either their speech apparatus or their ears to the speech which is merely adopted. They speak English with every variety and degree of foreign influence apparent, and they do so "with an air," quite placidly, as if to say, "The mannerism of my particular English makes it mine individually and especially, therefore, it is well." Moreover, unless the student is directed by a specialist who can say that the fault lies just here, or there, that the difficulty lies in confusion of tonics, or in false speech melody, for example, it is almost impossible for the bewildered one to find a path in the maze of her linguistic difficulties.

But not alone to the foreign-born or to those who speak a foreign language at home can we ascribe the deteriorated condition of our language. It is the fault equally of those who are native-born, and who are insensible of their responsibility to be well-spoken, as well as to be well-drest, well-mannered, and well-read.

There is no good reason why the high, shrill tones of the boy Americana should be a by-word among the nations; and that such a condition should exist when our growing love of music causes us to provide public concerts in our city parks and to increase the number of hours devoted to music in our high schools and college curricula is a veritable paradox. It is almost time for us to realize that the human vocal instrument is worth using correctly, and that if it is worth while spending hours in an attempt to get beautiful sounds from such man-made instruments as the piano and the violin, it is a sad abuse of the God-made instrument to neglect its development altogether.

The average of students afflicted with the several types of nasality is 20 per cent; of those whose voices are abnormally high, 18 per cent; of those whose voices are throaty, 10 per cent. Every variety of ineffectively managed voice or of faulty voice has been found in the average high-school

class, and by training the students along the simplest lines to use and control the breath, many seeming miracles have been accomplished. The strong and useful voice has replaced the inaudible, weak one that was due to lack of muscular control; the purified free tone has been substituted for the tight, constricted one; the high shrill voice—too often entirely lacking in resonance—has given place to the lower, fuller one. The average high-school girl can be heard abusing the language at any time in the street cars or elsewhere. She is slovenly and incorrect in so many varieties of form that one might say, without exaggeration, that 100 per cent of the high-school students require speech work. In the past two years and six months I have met with students who stutter and stammer (or who have a tendency to stammer); with those who lisp in varied forms, with the hist *s*, the faulty “ng” (which exists in 15 per cent of our students), the *r*, false blends, inability to make certain combinations of speech sounds, mistaken tonics, confusion of the sub-tonics and a-tonics, and these are merely some of the general problems which confront one in high-school speech classes.

First there is the lack of standard! Our students have never been taught to listen to themselves nor to others. No correct standard has been set either at home or in school, and the beauty and usefulness of acceptable English has never been pointed out. They are in the condition of the deaf with the excuse of the deaf. Their own ugly, raucous tones disturb them as little as do the grating sounds of the car wheels or trucks, or the other melodies of the noisy city streets. I have asked a class at the beginning of its work in “oral English” to characterize a good voice, and invariably the sole characteristic specified is that it should be low. It is the ideal by contrast to those voices which they generally hear—high and shrill and penetrating—since so few realize that it is easier to speak thru noise than above it. In order to acquire the low “ladylike” voice which high-school students believe suits their condition, as opposed to the shrill shout of elementary-school days, many students close their mouths, and inaudibility and nasality result. On the other hand, one student who was asked to comment upon Miss Mathison’s voice in “Caliban,” said that she didn’t like it, because it was so low and different from other voices that it made her feel she wasn’t on earth at all. A vocal standard must be established, if not earlier, at least in the high school.

But the elementary-school course is already overcrowded; there is an overwhelming amount of work to be done, and under the present conditions special speech work for those very defective is the best solution of the problem that the average school has to offer. I was talking with a young teacher the other day, and she assured me that there was no time to stop a reading lesson for the dropt *t* or *d*—it was not sufficiently important. I asked her what she did if a child’s voice was very unpleasant, and she said that she didn’t notice that, as a rule, and, if she did, she wouldn’t say anything, since the poor child might cry. I asked her what she did if the

child of Italian birth or parentage confused the *t* and *d*, and said "ditn't"; and she said she always tried to make the children hear the difference; while in the case of the faulty "ng," she told the children to drop the *g*.

Setting the standard, however, is only one-half of the work of the high schools, and that which is more important remains to be discusst. We must see to it that our students accept the standard, that they form habits which are practical working habits of voice and speech. There is a false conception abroad, which is due to the old prejudice against "elocution" as it was taught a half-century ago, as it is taught today, tho (and be it spoken gratefully), not generally. Many of our students, however, have conceived such a prejudice to being taught how to speak, to what they think must be artificiality, that the notion must be combated before real progress can be secured. "My voice is natural," they say, tho at the same time admitting that it is disagreeable, "and were I to speak this new way, people would laugh and say that I was trying to put on airs." There are a hundred ways of demonstrating that the voice or speech which is undesirable is habitual, but not natural, that it is no more natural than any pathological condition for the cure or correction of which the medical man is consulted.

The best and surest way of establishing the supreme importance of good voice and correct speech will be for the high-school teachers of English to realize their error in continuing to place the emphasis upon the written, and not the spoken, word. In this age of specialization a man could very well get along without being able to write or to spell. There are stenographers, and secretaries and printed postal cards with ready-to-use sentiments, and these accomplish all such mechanical matters for him, much as did the scribes and scriveners of old, but a man must talk for himself!

SPEECH-CORRECTION AS A SCHOOL PROBLEM

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There should be no assumption that speech-correction is merely a school problem; it should be also a social, a medical, a psychological problem. There is also the assumption that the child, when entering school, is ready to learn written language. As a fact, children at this stage have a very imperfect use of spoken language, occasionally none at all. It has been found, in the study of the teaching of reading, that the child needs appreciative ideas. The new analysis will lead to phonetics, rhythm, breathing, tone-production, and phrasing. Not only the correction of gross defects, but the refinement of speech should be in the hands of the grade teacher, not of the specialist.

The teacher should know something about the various organs used—not for purposes of diagnosis, but to understand more of the relationship between the function and the organ performing the function. She should

be trained in phonetics—how speech is formed, not “notebook” phonetics, but motor, for speech is action. She should know the psychology of speech. The teacher must have a knowledge of physiology, of psychology, and of phonetics; and for special cases she must have special training.

The child should receive special inspection, medical supervision and aid if needed, and should be assisted by the hygienist, neurologist, and psychiatrist.

ORAL DEFORMITIES IN THEIR RELATION TO DEFECTIVE SPEECH

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In presenting this subject for your consideration, let me call your attention to the necessity, in the correction of speech defects by training first to diagnose the cause. Much effort is often wasted in an attempt to improve the speech where the speech mechanism is defective.

You could hardly expect to get full power from the engine in your motor car, if one or more of the cylinders were out of commission. So also in the case of a cleft palate, a part of the speech mechanism is missing, creating an impossible condition for much improvement, without first resorting either to surgical or to mechanical interference.

The mechanism by which articulate sounds are produced is a very complex one. First, we have the vocal cords; and of course the lungs which, acting as a bellows, furnish the current of air to make the cords vibrate. Above the cords are the laryngeal, pharyngeal, the oral, and the nasal cavities, all of which are resonance chambers which, by their muscular arrangement, are capable of being changed in size and shape, and can thus be attuned to the pitch of the sound produced by the vibration of the vocal cords. Without these resonance chambers the vibration of the cords alone would give but a feeble and disagreeable sound.

In the oral cavity we sometimes have deformed dental arches, teeth not in their normal arrangement and alignment—that are very apparent; in other cases, while the teeth are so abnormal in position that their functions are greatly interfered with, still the deformity is hardly noticeable. It can readily be seen that with such conditions, speech must be more or less affected.

The narrowed arches and high vault to the roof of the mouth interfere with the movements of the tongue, which affect the speech.

Again, the palate is one of the most important organs of speech. Its functions are concerned in the forming of the tone of the voice by regulating the shape and size of the resonance chambers, and by closing off the nasal passages in the emission of certain sounds. This being impossible to a greater or less extent in cleft-palate cases, speech is very defective and has that peculiar quality which all can recognize.

THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF SPEECH-CORRECTION

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The political economist might object to the title, "The Economic Value of Speech-Correction," on the grounds that speech is not wealth, but merely one of the means of acquiring wealth. Technically speaking, value is a power which an article confers upon its possessor of commanding in exchange for itself the labor or the product of labor of others. The degree of efficiency of labor depends upon many causes, including the physical organization and the mental equipment of the laborer.

Obviously, the most vital phase of speech-improvement lies in the organization of elementary-school instruction and methodology, so that bad speech habits may be checked during the school life of children. The prevention of speech defects, in so far as slipshod teaching is responsible for them, is a large field which has scarcely received adequate cultivation.

Recognizing the social economic value of speech, it is patent that the attainment of fluent unimpaired habits of speaking represents a distinct gain to the community. The value, therefore, of speech-correction would be represented by the saving of the community of expenditures now involved as a result of existent or future speech defects. It is exceedingly difficult to establish with even approximate mathematical precision the economic cost of speech defects. In this country data are not available to determine the total number of persons suffering from speech defects.

All speech defects represent abnormalities. In a wide sense abnormal children are "those afflicted with anything whatever that unfavorably affects their lives in relation to the social medium in which they live." Consequently speech defects represent abnormalities which, per se, limit the possibilities of children and adults to realize to the utmost their potential power for uniting in the activities of the world.

Speech defectives and particularly stutterers are likely to be backward and even retarded in their school work, altho there are many who maintain excellent positions as measured by ordinary standards of school progress. The large proportion of stutterers, probably 50 per cent, could be prevented by adequate provision for improvement in methods of school instruction. A large proportion of the stutterers are curable.

Speech-improvement in schools is productive of the saving which may be secured thru preventing, what Fletcher, of Clark University, referred to as "the leakage of energy" on the part of both teacher and class which ensues during the attempted recitation of a stutterer. Systematic speech-improvement classes save the time of the teacher and the class. They promote more rapid progress and secure more concentrated attention upon the subject-matter being taught, by preventing the diversion of attention to the peculiarities of the individual child who is reciting.

The majority of speech defects are combined with defects of vision, hearing, muscular coordination or cerebral maldevelopments. Of the twenty million children in this country it has been estimated that 5 per cent have impaired hearing and 25 per cent have impaired sight. It has been adjudged that some impediment in speech exists in 3 per cent of the school children. There is no differentiation, however, so far as I have been able to ascertain, as to the nature of these various impediments.

Studies in speech-correction may indicate in numerous instances that stuttering has been increased by an attempt to make sinistrals dextrals; and the speech defect thus resulting may actually serve to impair the industrial progress of the child for the sake of securing uniformity in classroom methods. Experience in our own schools has demonstrated that stuttering and lisping children may be restored to normal speech and participate with naturalness and greater effectiveness in the work of their classes.

It has been estimated that one in every 2400 of the population in the United States is a deaf-mute. This indicates that there are about 37,500 deaf-mutes in the United States. This indicates that the mere cost of education in the state institutions for all of these deaf-mutes costs approximately twelve million dollars per annum.

Recognizing the industrial limitations of those suffering from speech defects and appreciating the obstacles to professional life, their undesirability as teachers, their handicaps as physicians, their limitations as pleading lawyers, and their impossibility as preachers, it is but natural that we should seek to preserve or secure their potential utility by restoring to them the normal-speech function.

Another economic gain is to be secured thru speech-correction in the prevention of industrial accidents. The relation of speech defects to the cost of industrial accidents has been hinted at in those reports which attribute a part of the accidents to the inability of employes to speak the prevailing language of the factory, mine, or shop. There are numerous positions where quick utterance is required and in which stuttering might and does jeopardize the lives of fellow-workmen in times of emergency.

The importance of discouragement, anxiety, family distress, embarrassment, diffidence, and shyness upon the development of high moral character cannot be estimated. Wherefore, among delinquents, speech deficiencies are noted with greater frequency than among the normal population.

In the ordinary public-school system the educational cost for correcting speech defects had not been estimated. A special teacher is necessary, an ungraded class is important. The development of normal speech must be facilitated thru personal analysis of the underlying causes of the speech deficiency. Well may we paraphrase the statement of Dr. Caroline Yale to the instructors of the deaf, "The plea now should be, not for more speech, but for better speech." The plea should now be for more speech, for better speech, and the prevention of speech defects.

THE PRINCIPAL'S POINT OF VIEW OF THE SELECTION OF CHILDREN FOR SPECIAL CLASSES

MARGARET KNOX, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 15, NEW YORK, N.Y.

Someone has said that "a teacher is a discoverer of girls and boys, discovering their powers and latent possibilities." I should like to add for the theme of the discussion this morning: "Discovering also their lack of powers and latent possibilities of the better kind, and devising ways and means for making up for this lack."

You, a body of teachers, do not need that I tell you what the usual procedure is in a classroom when the principal comes in. You know only too well how the teacher immediately takes an inventory of the possibilities of her class and the means of best showing off her work.

If it is reading the principal asks for, the teacher calls a child in a certain part of the room, and row after row proceeds. You will find child after child standing forth under the scrutiny of the principal's supervising eye and reading without a mistake, fluently, understandingly. So it is with number work, rapid-drill question and answer come tumbling forth like a long, steady volley of artillery fire—quick and correct.

Then the principal says, "Begin your next series of questions here," pointing to quite a different part of the room, or singling out some child not yet called upon. The teacher's face falls and she says, "Oh, you need not look for much there; that is my third group; I don't expect anything of them"; "Those children are not going to be promoted"; or, "These are the hold-overs of last term." Or, perhaps she will ask that this child be excused as she is very nervous, or that this one be not asked anything, as he seldom answers, and when he does he speaks so thickly and then grows hysterical.

As I look at them I see the vacant stare, or the childish, beseeching glance of questioning which says to the principal, "Why am I in the third group? Why can I not answer like the smart boys? Why does the teacher always call those children when visitors come in? I should like to do things, too. Why can't I do them? Why doesn't the teacher like me? Why does she always talk about me to other teachers and to the principal when promotion time comes? Why do they say you won't like this boy, he is not fit for promotion; he is going on, but he shouldn't." All these questions well up in the eyes of this little child (and the eyes bespeak the heart of the child always), so young and already so disappointed.

The monthly report cards of all children having an "A" record are given out by the principal from the platform before the assembled school. Here we get the necessary impetus for the spirit of emulation that sets the normal child toward the goal of winning the best record in the class.

At the other end of the class are found these derelicts of whom I have already spoken. These, too, have record cards, of a special kind. We call

them the "Deficient Record." Each teacher is asked to send to the office a card for every child who is so deficient in the work of the month that, in her estimation, he is not fit for the class. On this card there is a space large enough to give in detail an account of the deficiencies and their causes—arithmetic, lacking in accuracy; foundation in tables weak; no reasoning powers, therefore problem-work poor.

With these deficient cards before her, the principal, always in her office, consults the teacher and singles out those for whose deficiency there is a cogent excuse, such as prolonged absence, serious illness and consequent physical weakness for the time being, mischievousness and consequent inattention in school, lack of preparation of home lessons, etc. These the teacher can explain readily, and, by means of a reprimand administered in the classroom by the principal and the card sent as a message to the parents, the deficiency may be soon changed into a proficiency report.

The first-year teacher remembers one child as a hopeless case, one of the third-group "dunces" who was a drag on her class for one, or perhaps two, whole terms and knew nothing after all, altho she had worked harder with this one boy than with a dozen bright boys. Then comes the conference with the parent. At first the parent will not admit that there is any cause for this backwardness, particularly if the deficient child is the oldest of her family. She has not yet had experience of comparing the ability of this child with others having the same opportunities. But in this consultation with the parent how often the cause of the defect comes to light: the child who has had a bad fall; who was terribly shocked by finding her mother dead, a suicide; the child who was born while the mother was suffering from a temporary fit of insanity, etc.

About two years ago I examined very carefully, at the end of February, the first month of the term, the "deficient cards" sent by the teachers of all the first- and second-year classes. After the eliminating process described above, by conference with all the teachers of the children since entering school, and with the parents, we selected twenty boys and girls, the slow, or retarded, or naughty, or most defective little ones—call them by what name you will. At all events they were "derelicts" even at this early age. These children we put in charge of a fine kindergarten teacher and gave them the use of the kindergarten room for one session of each day. The plan of organization was that this kindergartner should apply all her fine kindergarten methods and Montessori methods in teaching these children in the primary-grade subjects, especially drilling by these objective and manual methods the three "R's"—reading, writing, and arithmetic.

This work was done every morning, and in the afternoon the class separated into age groups or grade groups and was dispersed among all the regular primary classes where the teachers gave them opportunity to take part in all the work of their classes and reported to the teacher of the special class just where the greatest weakness presented itself or where improve-

ment was notist when working with the normal child. This was all done in a pleasurable way, as, for example, a trolley ride to the oculist or to the Neurological Institute and a little outing in the park by the way so that the children became perfectly docile and were ready to study.

The lack of ability in the academic subjects should lead the teachers to try to interest their slow, stupid children in the outside activities of the school. Get them into the athletic clubs; swimming and dancing may be easy for them; there they may excel. The glee club may make a special appeal to the child with a voice, but not much brains. The girl who cannot get more than 50 per cent of her class work done may be 100 per cent in ability to manage the class and be the housekeeper if her teacher is off duty for an hour or a day.

The chief thing in all this selection of children for special classes is to keep the individual child from feeling the hurt of his own weakness until he is safely past the parting of the ways, one of which leads to delinquency and suffering, and the other to plodding contentment in doing something well, no matter how lowly the work may be, and eventually to earning his own living.

Until recent years we have felt that our work as teachers was well done if, after a term of painstaking work, we past to the next grade 75 per cent, 80 per cent, 90 per cent of our pupils. We patted ourselves on the back and closed our door at the end of the year feeling that there was nothing more required of us.

I am so thankful that there has come in these later days the new thoughtfulness, not for the successful 80 per cent past, but for the unsuccessful remnant. The new thought for these is not to make them part of the successful 80 per cent, but to make 100 per cent of them successful along quite different lines.

THE BINET SCALE AND THE DIAGNOSIS OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS

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It has seemed to the writer that some of the published criticisms of the Binet method have lacked something in spirit of fairness in that they have shown a tendency to make capital out of certain defects and inadequacies of the method which are as fully recognized by its qualified champions as by anyone else. In certain instances these criticisms have taken on a tone which is unnecessarily destructive and which occasionally suggests imputations and implications not overtly asserted. Contentious articles of this sort are misleading to the lay reader, and by magnifying the differences of opinion supposed to exist among the leaders they inevitably tend to create an unwarranted attitude of suspicion toward clinical psychology generally.

From some of these articles the lay reader might very well make the following inferences: (1) that most of the psychologists who use the Binet scale believe it to be a perfect instrument of measurement; (2) that they believe its use in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness renders unnecessary any consideration of medical, neurological, or sociological data concerning the subject; (3) that they regard the degree of intelligence, as determined by the scale, as the sole measure of the subject's fitness to be at large; (4) that they deliberately encourage persons without psychological training to undertake research with mental tests; (5) that the infallible criterion of feeble-mindedness, in the adult subject, is failure to pass the twelve-year tests.

Let us consider the points given above in order:

1. Does the system of tests left us by Binet measure the intelligence with perfect accuracy? It is safe to say that no psychologist in the United States nor Europe believes that it does. Binet himself did not, nor do those who have had most to say in advocacy of the Binet method, including Meumann, Stern, Bobertag, Huey, Kuhlmann, Goddard, and the writer. All of the persons mentioned above, the late Dr. Huey excepted, have made investigations for the purpose of correcting some of the grossest imperfections of the scale, and we have no reason to believe that a single one of these considers his own revision as perfectly satisfactory.

It is no reflection upon other workers to say that until very recently the Binet system of tests was the only ready means of making even an approximate estimate of the mental level of a subject. Scores of other good tests were floating around, but because they had not been standardized they were of very limited value.

2. Do psychologists who use the Binet tests countenance the failure to utilize medical, neurological, sociological, and other supplementary data? It is not to be denied, of course, that there are some differences of opinion as regards the relative amount of stress which should be placed upon the evidence from these different sources in the diagnosis of individual cases. The divergent practices here are a natural result of the different purposes for which a diagnosis may be made. It so happens that the thing most desired in the large majority of diagnoses is correct guidance as to educational and social treatment. The mental capacities are to be evaluated with the end in view of determining the subject's educational, social, and vocational possibilities. Altho even here all the obtainable medical and neurological data should be utilized as a matter of course, it can hardly be denied that this aspect of the problem is in most cases essentially a psychological one.

3. Do psychologists who defend the Binet method disregard the extra-intellectual mental traits as codeterminants of a subject's social fitness or educational possibilities? They do not. Critics of the Binet tests have no special nor prior claim to credit for insisting on the importance of emotional, volitional, or moral traits as factors in determining social fitness.

Over and over again, by Binet himself and by Meumann, Stern, Huey, Kuhlmann, and the writer, the necessity of taking account of the extra-intellectual factors has been urged.

4. Do adherents of the Binet method hold that Binet testers who have not had extensive psychological training should be encouraged to attempt psychological diagnosis of the feeble-minded? So many psychologists—chiefly those out of the clinical field—have taken their fling at amateur testers, that one would suppose the followers of Binet had sinned most grievously in this respect. Their record, however, is absolutely clear on this point. Even those who have gone farthest in encouraging the wider use of the Binet tests have asserted explicitly that only the trained psychologist should be permitted to make a real diagnosis.

To go farther, however, and to demand that no one shall make use of intelligence-tests who has not had several years of undergraduate and postgraduate training in the usual lines of academic psychology, would be a serious and absurd mistake. As a matter of fact, there is no argument in favor of limiting the use of intelligence-tests to trained psychologists which does not apply equally well in the case of pedagogical tests like those of Courtis, Ayres, Thorndike, etc. These tests, fortunately for education, teachers are specifically urged to make use of.

5. Do the responsible psychologists who use the Binet scale mechanically apply an automatic criterion in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness? This question has already been answered in what we have said regarding the general agreement as to the desirability of taking into account medical and other data. The writer does not for a moment suppose that those who proposed this standard ever meant that it should be rigidly and mechanically applied.

The misunderstanding comes largely from the fact that the term "feeble-mindedness" is currently used in two very different senses. In one sense it refers to the possession of no more than a certain degree of mental—chiefly intellectual—capacity as measured by some objective scale. This is the psychological definition. As more commonly employed, the term "feeble-minded" has reference primarily to those who, because of inherent or early acquired mental weakness, cannot get on in the world, those who "cannot compete on equal terms with their fellows," or "cannot manage themselves nor their affairs with ordinary prudence." This is the social criterion, which received definite formulation by the Royal College of Physicians, London.

These two criteria, the psychological and the social, cannot be used interchangeably, for the reason that ability to get on in the world depends upon many things besides absolute mental capacity, such as health, looks, bearing, muscular strength, inherited wealth, sympathetic friends, economic and industrial conditions, the prevailing level of intelligence in those with whom the subject must compete, etc. The social criterion is attractive

and plausible only so long as it remains unanalyzed. It is far too shifting and indefinite to serve as a working concept in science.

The expression "manage themselves or their affairs with ordinary prudence" is doubly vague, neither "ordinary" nor "affairs" having any definite nor constant meaning. The "affairs" of a youth who inherits large properties and social position are hardly comparable in difficulty of management with the "affairs" of a youth in many other kinds of social environment. "Ordinary prudence" varies according to the social group and may have a dozen different meanings within a radius of as many miles. The difficulty in "managing one's affairs" not only varies in the different strata of society at a given time; it also varies enormously from period to period in the economic and social evolution of a country. It is the writer's conviction that the standard cannot be placed higher without including among the intellectually feeble too many who could hardly be classed, by any reasonable standard, as socially feeble. Practically it would be a still more serious mistake to go too far in the opposite direction, for one of the desirable ends of psychological work with abnormals is to raise the popular standards as to what constitutes feeble-mindedness. This standard at present is lamentably low. To adopt Witmer's criterion and to classify as feeble-minded only those who are "industrially incapable of earning even a modest livelihood" would tend to keep it too low.

Perhaps enough has been said to show that the difficulties encountered in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness, and particularly those which are involved in the classification of border line cases, are due largely to the nature of the phenomena with which we deal. They are not artificial products of the Binet age-grade method of measuring intelligence. They reappear in the same form whatever scale is employed. They have not been disposed of by the Yerkes-Bridges point scale, nor will they be by any other scale which can be devised. New scales are indeed greatly to be desired, but an even more pressing practical need is for reliable comparative norms based upon the application of the revised Binet tests with thousands of individuals of various social groups.

DISCUSSION

SAMUEL B. HECKMAN, College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.—In considering the selection of children for any special class or for any special kind of teaching the guiding principle must be the end or purpose of the children's being in that class, that is, we should be guided by what we purpose doing with the children when we have them there rather than by the best means of getting them there. Evidently the main purpose of having children in the special classes should be the improvement of the children rather than furnishing them merely a proper and happy abiding place. This improvement moreover, must be thought of as being primarily educational in its nature. Other improvement in the child may be desirable and may be contributory to his improvement educationally. The removal of physical handicaps which the child may have, the amelioration of the hygienic conditions of home and school, the remedying of the improper

nutritional conditions, and the care of pathological and constitutional conditions are admittedly essential to the functioning and improvement of mental capacities; but all these essentials must, after all be considered as secondary and contributory to the fundamental purpose of the child's presence in the special class, namely, his improvement mentally, and in consequence his better behavior responses, socially and industrially. I should like to emphasize, therefore, that the final judgment in the selection of these children for the special or ungraded classes should come from him who is fitted to understand them, not only from what their present condition is, but also from what it is possible to make them. That is to say, not only from the standpoint of diagnosis should the child be selected, but from the additional standpoint of prognosis and teachability. I wish to maintain that it is that person who has knowledge and experience in changing children, that is, in educating children combined with expert knowledge in clinical testing and examining who is best fitted to pass finally upon the selection of children for special classes.

The physical and medical examination is fundamentally essential, as everyone knows, particularly when one is seeking causes for the mental condition of the child, but this examination should not be the final determiner for the pupil's placement in a class.

ARTHUR C. JELLY, M.D., Department of Special Classes, Boston, Mass.—The first special class was started in Boston in 1899. In 1902 I was asked to select the children for new classes and have since been employed in that work.

The teacher very naturally picks out at first the cases about which there can be no question regarding their deficiency. To select only this sort of case results in a class which falls short of the best results, in my opinion. Nearly, if not all, these markedly deficient children need to be protected from the opportunities for getting into trouble that a city affords, and therefore it is best for them and best for the public that such children enter one of the state schools in the country.

Just above this group in the scale of intelligence is another group that examination indicates to be not improvable; but I feel that many such should be given a trial in a special class, because it is possible that they may develop greater capacity than my examination makes possible.

A group higher in the scale consists of those whose examinations show that they are only slightly deficient, or perhaps only retarded; the special class can reasonably be expected to bring to light in them an increased capacity to do schoolwork.

I am asked to examine many whom teachers consider suitable for special classes, who, I decide, do not need such classes, because their examinations show them capable of average work. To summarize the foregoing statements, a special class, to be really efficient, should have in it two movements—one group needing the institutional school and being received there as promptly as practicable, and the second group, whose increase in mental capacity makes their return to grade desirable.

Before I examine a child I secure a report from the teacher as to the child's schoolwork and conduct and her reasons for considering the child in need of an examination by me. If the teacher who has been assigned to the new special class can be present at the examination, she and I can usually reach conclusions and plans for the future training that neither of us could probably reach alone. In case the special-class teacher is not present and the grade teacher wishes to see the examination, I am quite willing to have her do so, because that arrangement appears to secure a more correct understanding of the work than the average teacher has previously obtained; and cooperation between the grade teacher and the special-class teacher is important.

Where parents do not agree with the teacher's judgment about the child, I find frequently that misunderstandings can be corrected and the parents brought to see the child's needs by seeing how poor he appears in the examination. In other words cooperation of teachers, parents, doctors, and nurses is necessary to accomplish the best results for the

child. My examination begins with questions about the name, residence, and age of the child (which can be shown or not by the teacher's report); then color- and form-tests; then pictures which test capacity for observing correctly and for drawing inferences from what is seen; then suggestibility by lines, arrangement of five boxes of slightly different weight in order, beginning with the heaviest; then reading and number work.

I measure the size of the head and note peculiarities of structure and shape of cranium, of the hard palate, of the shape of the ears and their position on the head. Finally I ask the child to stand facing me and imitate me in certain movements, intended to test his capacity for observation, imitation, control, and coordination of muscle groups.

In the case of older and more intelligent children I have found very instructive the results of certain tests which I learned from Dr. Norseworthy, of Teachers College, several years ago.

Having used this plan of examination for several years before the Binet-Simon scale appeared in English, and having found it very satisfactory, I have not yet abandoned it and substituted for it the Binet scale; tho I always carry about with me a set of Binet tests and often use them to compare results from them with results from my method.

I cannot agree with those psychologists who say that no child should be put into a special class whose mental age is less than three years behind his chronological age; and I certainly do not agree with the opinion that all children whose mental age is four years behind their chronological age should be assigned to the special class. The time at my disposal prevents full discussion of the reasons against accepting such conclusions.

I believe no one appreciates more than I do how much light has been thrown upon mental affections at all ages by the work of psychologists; but as one of my bright friends has said, "In the present state of our knowledge any attempt to classify any group of subjects based solely on the findings from psychological tests would commit grave errors." And one of our best authorities on feeble-mindedness has said, "Normality of intelligence is not a fixt strength of intellect, and feeble-mindedness is not merely a question of intelligence."

As fast as psychologists discover better methods of testing any mental processes, I feel we must all make every effort to use them as intelligently as we can. By combined effort I believe we can make great advances in the solution of problems in this most difficult field.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SPECIAL CLASSES

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In obedience to Mother Nature's beautiful laws, the race is perpetuated on the earth with an ever-increasing capacity for joy and achievement.

Most come physically right; some few come with deformed and crippled bodies, but equipt with possibilities of mental growth. To them one goes instinctively with every aid to open the way of performance, and there have been many notable men and women whose physical handicap was almost a spur to achievement.

And there are other few who have come with beautiful bodies but darkened minds, shrouded forever in a gloom which refuses to be dispelled. Mother Nature fixes the penalty where wittingly or unwittingly her royal law is violated.

Of all the children of men, that one which most elicits our pity is not he whose limbs are misshapen, but he whose mind is deformed or unformed,

whose normal development is retarded or checked by some sinister influence. From him we withdraw out of sheer dread, or, from curiosity, watch his unguided motions and meaningless acts. His parents, if not abnormal themselves, try to shield the scion of the family, blasted at its beginning, and keep him from the eyes of men, as tho a judgment upon the iniquities of the fathers had fallen upon the children. Adults of abnormal type function normally in reproduction, continuing in ever-widening circles of baleful influence the individuals who cannot provide for themselves and hence become positive burdens to society.

Are there many such? Some statisticians say 4 per cent are feeble-minded, the more conservative assert 2 per cent, while the number depends entirely upon the classes or degrees of abnormality one establishes among the children whose minds have not developed normally. They are variously named, as: abnormal, backward, idiot, mentally deficient, unstable, ill-balanced, feeble-minded, and moron. All are marked by three characteristics, namely, a retarded development, a lack of equilibrium, that is, some faculties more retarded than others, and unusual mental peculiarities. Some localities have a larger number of such children than others, but the average seems to be about 2 per cent, so we would expect to find among 5000 children 100 who would come safely within the category of defectives.

How did they happen? Why are they here? God knows. It is certainly not of their choice that they came freighted with a cargo too great for their feeble powers. It may be some accident of birth, some accompaniment of poverty, as deficient nutrition, or care; and in most cases it may be some inherited taint of insanity or the poison of alcoholism, or some social evil. That heredity accounts for the condition in large measure can be easily shown.

While it is interesting to study causes, not much can be done to check the increasing number of feeble-minded until the state acts and makes impossible the propagation of human kind from stock of known mental taint.

The fact is they are here, and if it is asked where, we will appeal to the judge of the police court, to the keeper of the almshouse, to the department of charities, to the home for foundlings, to the rescue home, to the Salvation Army, which takes what is left over and what is refused in other places. They are the ne'er-do-wells and the army of those who can never get on.

Where is the menace if they are so provided for? Lacking in self-control, any excitement, anger, or brooding may lead them on to the most atrocious crimes from arson to murder. The feeble-minded girl is possibly a greater menace because she becomes an easy prey to lust, and the defective progeny are rapidly increased. Crimes against the person and against property bring the program of arrest, trial, prison sentence, parole, discharge, the state paying, not for prevention, but for care after the deed is done;

and when the term of prison service has expired, the program begins over again, and the state again foots the bill without complaint and, we sometimes think, without heeding the lesson of it all.

This being the menace, and not a decreasing one, can we do anything about it? It is not timely for a layman to go into the question of sterilization, altho that should have early and serious consideration of the authorities, quite as much as the introduction of infected trees or cattle within the boundaries of the state! It is the day of prevention, of prophylaxis. We now put the feeble-minded into institutions where they are trained to do a few things, but we believe that a good share of the 2 per cent who are not of the class which must be shut away can be trained in special classes under the direction of local boards of education and can be made to contribute in some degree to their own support, among those who are their kin, or better still, in a farm colony where the best provision can be made for their effort.

New Jersey is the pioneer state in passing a law requiring a special class and teacher where there are ten defective children. The training school at Vineland has trained 180 teachers for the public schools, but the demand is growing. Elizabeth Farrell, who is in charge of special classes in New York City, has said that she could place seventy teachers if they were ready. No school in this state has regularly offered a course to prepare teachers for the work. In view of this the commissioner of education of the state of New York authorized the State Normal and Training School at Oswego, N.Y., to establish such a course.

Accordingly advice was sought from various sources, but no one cared to go on record with assurance as to what is best. The plan must be considered an experiment in which we seek your advice and constructive criticism as you watch its progress.

The purpose of the course is not to prepare caretakers for the feeble-minded, but teachers who are able to organize classes of children, plan their work, train their teachers, and then supervise a series of such classes. This will require more or less expert knowledge of the feeble-minded, more, probably, than the school physician possesses. To this end it is expected that those admitted to the new department will already possess a diploma entitling the holder to teach the normal child. The course will cover one year, arranged in units of ten weeks, thus enabling teachers to come on leave of absence for any portion of the course.

The teacher should herself know what the hand can be taught to do in order to offer whatever is within the range of the child's efforts, and she should add the physical exercises suited to his need, which implies, of course, the ability to learn his need.

No course would be complete which omitted a study of society which discloses the place of such work in its larger aspects and discusses the plan and purpose of organized effort in the state.

THE WORK OF THE TEACHER OF THE SPECIAL CLASS

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The work of the teacher of the special class is related to the kind of children she is called upon to teach.

Survey has shown that there are in the special room usually at least six well-defined groups of children listed from a pedagogical point of view: (1) those retarded because of ill health of some form or other, nose or throat diseases, malnutrition, etc.; (2) those having emphatic leanings toward some particular area of the school subject-matter, as academic subjects or handwork, or toward or away from reading or mathematics; (3) those naturally abnormally slow in development, but of good mentality; (4) those who have marked below-average mentality, but yet will be independent economically; (5) those about whose mentality there is doubt—lower border-line cases—many of whom, after trial and opportunity, gain classification in upper groups; and (6) those undoubtedly feeble-minded or non-educable either academically or in practical occupations.

Now what are the pedagogical needs of these various groups? The group retarded because of physical ailment should be returned to regular gradation as soon as possible. They have need of thoro coaching in academic subjects. This coaching calls for a mastery on the part of the teacher of all academic devices and an understanding of all avenues of approach to the retarded mind. In teaching reading, for instance, the teacher must have command of methods appealing to audition and motor response as well as to visualization; word methods must be supplemented by phonic and phonetic approaches. This whole group of pathological retardates is an emphatic challenge to the very best teaching in all formal academic studies. These remarks apply to the slowly developing child as well. He needs the regular academic procedure in higher potencies than does the average child. The variant type should have his deficiencies overcome, if possible, by the same speeding-up of academic methods. With these groups the pedagogic attack may be in a large measure direct and in regular procedure.

The teaching of the backward and defective group calls for an especially intelligent and professional attitude on the part of the teacher.

The indirect appeals to mental forwardness are many, but may be classified broadly under the following categories: (1) music; (2) rhythmic exercises, dancing, etc.; (3) plays and games; (4) handwork, such as carpentry, textiles, basketry, and clay.

In music and rhythmic exercises the special teacher will find her most potent stimulant to mental alertness. All grades of mentality respond to music and rhythm. Their appeal is fundamental. They go down deep into the organic structure and reach the mysterious and hidden places

where that which we call physical and that which we call mental interact. The effect of music upon mentality was well known to the Greeks and was their most effective educative means. Plato says:

Musical training is more potent than any other, because rhythm and harmony find their way into the inward places of the soul on which they mightily fasten, imparting grace and making the soul of him who is rightfully educated graceful.

Of a similar nature are plays and games. They are universal in their appeal and knit together the intelligence and physical efficiency. They, too, are nature's special educational agency. They are primitive and go deep. Backward children can be reached by play appeal when all others fail.

A fourth indispensable qualification for the teacher of the special class is a many-sided interest and ability in handwork suitable for young children.

On the practical side then the qualifications of the teacher of special classes may be set forth as follows: (1) she must be an exceptionally skilled teacher in the use of special means for getting academic results; (2) she must know how to play games and be able to direct them; (3) she must have a repertoire of handwork occupations large enough to answer the educative needs of a year's work.

THE NECESSITY FOR AFTER CARE OF CHILDREN DISCHARGED FROM SPECIAL CLASSES

HOWARD J. BANKER, EUGENICS RECORD OFFICE, COLD SPRING HARBOR, N.Y.

Whether there is any necessity for the after care of children discharged from special classes depends entirely on the kind of children that make up these classes. This may sound at first as a mere truism, but there appears to be some reason to preface my remarks with such a statement, for it seems that the term "special class" is not fixed as to its meaning. The editor of the *Training School Bulletin* in a recent number called attention to the fact that in some cities the expression "special class" means "a class for feeble-minded; in others, a class for normals who are retarded; and in still others, a class for all who lag behind." If the class is intended to include only the distinctly feeble-minded, the necessity of the after care of the children discharged therefrom seems to be a necessity by definition; if the class is only for normals who are retarded by temporary conditions, it is to be presumed that no after care is needed; if the class includes all who lag behind, then it would appear that some would be in need of after care and some would not, and in that case it becomes necessary to consider the need of each individually.

It is an easy matter to detect that a child is lagging behind his fellows and on that fact assign him to the special class. It is often difficult and sometimes impossible to diagnose the real cause of the lagging; moreover,

it is largely the work of the special-class teachers, as trained specialists, to study these aberrant children, and to them may be left the task of determining, if possible, the hidden cause of the child's failure.

If the special class is a hospital only for incurables during school age, then the necessity of their after care is a foregone conclusion. It is to be supposed, however, that such was not the idea when the special-class movement began. We are told that "confident principals announst to the teachers that these children were to be brought up to grade and returned to the regular classes."

Among the disabilities that clearly impede the child's efficiency and render him a subject for the special class may be mentioned blindness, deafness and deaf-mutism, deformities, malformations, interfering with bodily functions, malnutrition, and disturbances of the secretory and the nervous systems, involving mental deficiencies and emotional eccentricities.

In the case of many other disabilities we have not only come to recognize the part they play in breaking down the child's efficiency, but we have learned how to remove the disturbing factor or at least to alleviate in greater or less degree its effect. In such cases the trouble is usually soon recognized and resort is quickly made to the surgeon, the dentist, the oculist, or the dietitian; and the child, relieved in whole or in part of his disability, is able to adapt himself to the regular school curriculum sufficiently to keep within the range of variation allowed the so-called normal child.

HOW TO FILL THE GAP BETWEEN THE SPECIAL CLASSES AND INSTITUTIONS

ADA M. FITTS, SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES, BOSTON, MASS.

The problem of feeble-mindedness is very much before the public, and everywhere in this country, community-surveys, the use of mental tests, and studies of family histories are furnishing evidence that the feeble-minded are an increasingly important factor in all forms of social and educational work.

Along with the other agencies that are interested in finding a solution to this far-reaching problem, the public-school authorities have become aroused and are providing classes which it is hoped will furnish training for pupils who are not able to make good in the regular grades. The pupils should be selected by a trained expert who uses a combination of tests and who will win the confidence of parents as well as give a diagnosis of the child's mental and physical condition. Special classes take feeble-minded children as early as possible, say from seven to eight years of age. Some eventually return to grade and are able to complete a part of the fourth-grade work; a few more are transferred directly to the institution; but the majority should remain in special classes till they reach the school-age limit.

Three methods have been adopted: (1) to have the special class occupy a room in an elementary-school building and care for the mentally defective children of that immediate district; (2) to group these pupils in a central school; (3) a combination of both individual classes and centers. In Massachusetts, until recently, children were allowed to leave school at fourteen, but with the raising of the compulsory school-age limit to sixteen, we found ourselves (two years ago) face to face with the problem of what to do with the special-class children who must remain in school until they are sixteen years of age. In Boston, in order to provide the next necessary step beyond the individual class, the regular grade pupils occupying two six-room buildings were accommodated elsewhere and these buildings were used as centers—one for special-class girls and another for special-class boys.

At the centers advanced manual work is begun and grading and classification are possible. The program is so arranged that each child has one and one-half hours physical, one and one-half hours academic, and two hours manual work each day. The girls are given a trained teacher to instruct them in domestic science, millinery, sewing, embroidery, crocheting, knitting, mending, and preserving. The boys are taught brush-making, boot-blackening, woodworking, serving of luncheons, dish-washing, simple tailoring, gardening, assistant janitor work, and other forms of comparatively unskilled labor. In this way we attempt to carry on the training of special-class children from seven to sixteen years of age.

The special class, in my opinion, should be still further supplemented by workrooms where, under favorable conditions, pupils over sixteen may be provided with work for which they would be paid. Cobbling, chair-caning, tool-sharpening, brush- and mat-making, are industries which might be carried on profitably. They could thus be guarded and controlled in part without being taken from their homes. This brings up the question of how long the public schools should assume the responsibility of these children beyond the school-age limit. It seems to me that it should do so for another year or two, at least, unless there is some other agency ready to do the work.

The most important factor is the teacher who presides over the special class. She must be one who is quick to perceive, able to adapt, whose sympathies are keen, and whose outlook is broad, but who combines with these gifts steadiness of purpose and the power to raise and hold her pupil to his best. A sense of humor will help out in many a situation. In Boston the teachers are given time in which to visit the children's homes, learn the conditions, and confer with the parents. The teacher knows how much freedom can safely be given the child; she knows his limitations, and when work is undertaken for which he is not adapted, she is able to suggest other lines. She could keep in touch with him and advise him as need arose, if she had the time.

The child may have been prepared for appropriate employment, but he cannot be given the necessary power of self-direction. The subnormal person (young or old) does not have that guiding power within; he must have outside control that should never be relaxed. The need is for a person or persons who will provide this oversight and follow the career of each individual, continuing the guidance begun by the teacher.

At the half-yearly examination I confer with the head teacher and we choose the most suitable children who may be considered as eligible for this trial; we select the most suitable firms and communicate with the manager. The parent is then seen and the offer is made to her:

Under the Act we have the power to keep your child at school until sixteen years of age, but, as he, being over fourteen years of age, seems to be suitable and fit to care for himself and do reasonably good work, we are willing to allow him to leave school on condition that he go to work at a place we choose for him and that he remain in that place until he is sixteen. If he fails to do this or to give satisfaction to his employers, he must immediately return to school and stay until he is sixteen.

The advantages of this method are many. Chiefly we have tested the child to see whether, working under good conditions, he will be able to keep a situation and give satisfaction. The employers are as a rule pleased because they know that they will get the child's best work and that they can return him to school if he prove unsatisfactory.

Let us consider what becomes of these children who leave school and who are not provided with such after care. In a recent canvass of the situation in Boston, 65 of the special-class graduates were located and their working history reviewed. From September, 1913, to September, 1915 (2 years), 31 out of 65 had a working history of over $1\frac{1}{2}$ years and less than 2 years; 11 out of 65 had a working history of over 1 year and less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ years; 10 out of 65 had a working history of over 6 months and less than 1 year; 13 out of 65 had a working history of less than 6 months. To be sure, one of these with a working history of nearly two years, had had eighteen positions. One she had held for one day only and the longest time was three months. In her case these two years covered the time from seventeen to nineteen years of age. The positions secured by this group of 65 required but little skill; the list includes bundle girls and boys in dry goods stores, delivery boys, office boys, nurse girls, peddlers, workers in brush-making, shoe-blackening, and basket-making establishments, carpet-factories, rubber-factories, and laundries; while working in candy-factories is a favorite employment. This gives a clue to the kind of positions that are open for the mentally defective, and with these in mind, the after-care officer should know of vacancies as they occur and attempt to fill them.

The results of the follow-up work that has already been done and the fact that so large a proportion of the children are employed for wages, leads one to feel that the work done by the special class does carry over into their after life.

In order to "fill the gap" or better, in the words of Dr. MacMurchy, to "build a bridge" between the special class and the institution, I have suggested: (1) that the public school insure diagnosis and treatment at an early age, act as a clearing-house for cases needing permanent segregation, and attempt to train the others for appropriate employment; (2) that the pupils upon leaving school be still further provided for in workrooms or in farm groups; (3) that the guidance begun by the teacher be continued by after care and supervision; (4) that there be a definite plan for awakening community interest in the problem; (5) that state-wide supervision is necessary; and (6) that the National Associations for the Feeble-Minded formulate a program both educative and constructive, so that the nation as a whole may realize the "menace of the feeble-minded."

AFTER-CARE WORK IN SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS

FRANCES E. CHENEY, SPECIAL-CLASS TEACHER, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

The most hopeful aspect of our conferences during the last three days in this ungraded-class section would seem to be the forward look which psychologists, eugenists, and educators have shown. While we may disagree as to methods, we are all looking for better tests of mentality, for race-improvement, for education which projects itself into the future life of the pupils under our care, and for a quickened community interest in the future of feeble-minded school children.

The necessity and value of keeping continuous histories of each individual pupil was recognized in our work from the beginning. An index book was first used, but the records were finally transferred to a card catalog. This card catalog contains information, not only regarding the child's mental and moral condition and progress, but a study of his ancestry and environment. In order to gather these data, innumerable visits were made to the homes, and parents were encouraged to visit both the class and the home of the teacher, until little by little, and often indirectly, the important facts accumulated. The record was continued after the child left school by encouraging the child to report at the school from time to time, continuing the home-visiting, and interesting employers and social agencies in the child's career. From these records statistics were compiled.

The placing of the comparatively large number of children—25 per cent—in the care of the state was largely brought about by a personal acquaintance with the superintendent, teachers, doctors, and matrons of the institutions. This has meant frequent visits to the institution, often with parents or children, or both, taking home reports to the parents from the institution as to the child's welfare and progress, writing frequent letters of inquiry to the superintendent, making appointments for interviews between parents and superintendents, or asking for advice with

reference to specific problems, and visiting children who were at home for a vacation, noting how they reacted to this experiment, reporting when desirable to the superintendent.

Those who understand the tragedy of the presence of a feeble-minded child in the family will appreciate that the special-class teacher, who is able to help that child and to lighten the burden in the home, is the one pre-eminently qualified above all others to continue indefinitely this friendly oversight.

The relatively few cases of delinquency in the community are accounted for by the interest and cooperation which has been secured from police and probation officers, as well as from lawyers and judges. This interest has been a growing and inspiring feature of an intelligent and sympathetic attitude toward mental defect, and is increasingly shown by the general public.

As a result of the continuous activity of personal work, a body of facts, not of theories, was prepared in 1912 for presentation to a small group of interested people, and the time was then ripe for the formation of the Springfield Committee for the Study of the Feeble-Minded.

This committee has endeavored to carry out this purpose as follows:

By adding new cases to the card catalog, by keeping all records approximately up to date, and by recording such facts as might be useful in the future in classifying scientific data.

By increasing, thru persuasion, the placing of larger numbers of children within reach of educational opportunities.

By interesting employers in giving positions to the high-grade mental defective.

By assisting in the removal of certain inadequately protected persons to the care of state institutions.

By holding meetings, usually each month, at the call of the chairman to discuss various phases of the work and to make plans for further activity.

By cooperation with the city library for the placing of literature relating to mental defect and eugenics, on a special shelf, for its greater accessibility to the general public.

By addressing and communicating with various groups of people—legislative, educational, civic, and religious—using the card-catalog data as a basis to mold public opinion.

By actively and successfully working for the establishment of a third state institution for the feeble-minded, and by preparing a map of the city for the use of the local school board, showing the distribution of the feeble-minded in the various districts, and the obvious need of further public-school provision.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

DETROIT MEETING, FEBRUARY 22-25, 1916

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

FIRST DAY

EVENING SESSION—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1916

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association met in the Arcadia Auditorium, Detroit, Mich., at 8:00 P.M., with President M. P. Shawkey, state superintendent of schools, Charleston, W.Va., in the chair.

After music by the Central High School Orchestra, Roy Ellis, director, the session opened with an invocation by Rev. Charles Henry Williams, D.D., pastor, Second Congregational Church, Oberlin, Ohio.

Addresses of welcome were given by Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich., and Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich., to which response was made by Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.

After music by the Eastern High School Quartet, consisting of Howard Parks, Virgil Rochte, George MacLaughlin, and William Joy, Nicholas Murray Butler, president, Columbia University, New York, N.Y., presented an address entitled "What Is Going on in the World."

President Shawkey announced the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

R. B. Teitrick, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.
Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.
Joseph Rosier, superintendent of schools, Fairmont, W.Va.
Ellis U. Graff, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Nebr.
Henry A. Davee, state superintendent of public instruction, Helena, Mont.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

Calvin N. Kendall, state commissioner of education, Trenton, N.J.
Edward F. Buchner, professor of education and philosophy, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
J. A. C. Chandler, superintendent of schools, Richmond, Va.
Franklin B. Dyer, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.
William S. Sutton, dean, Department of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

SECOND DAY

MORNING SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

The meeting was called to order by President Shawkey at 9:30 A.M., in Arcadia Auditorium.

The following program was presented:

"The Ford Idea in Education"—Samuel S. Marquis, Sociological Department, Ford Motor Company, Detroit, Mich.

Debate: "The Best Organization for American Schools Is a Plan Which Shall Divide These Schools into Six Years of Elementary Training and Six Years of Secondary Training"—Charles H. Judd, director, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., affirmative; Carroll G. Pearse, president, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis., negative.

"Greetings"—David B. Johnson, president, National Education Association, Rock Hill, S.C.

AFTERNOON SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium by President Shawkey, at 2:00 P.M., and the following program was presented:

Cantata: "Walrus and the Carpenter"—Chorus of three hundred grade-school children; Thomas Chilvers, director; Esther White, accompanist.

"The Public School and the New American Spirit"—J. George Becht, executive secretary, State Board of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

"Functions of Boards of School Control"—Ellwood P. Cubberley, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal. This paper as read constitutes chap. ix of the author's book on *Public School Administration* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1916). For this reason it will not appear in this volume.

"The Superintendent as the Layman Sees Him"—Thomas W. Churchill, president, Board of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Relation of a Member of a Board of Education to the School System"—O. M. Plummer, director, Board of Education, Portland, Ore.

"To Whom Is the Board of Education Responsible?"—Albert E. Winship, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

EVENING SESSION—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1916

Central High School

At this time, the students of the Central High School presented a Shakespearean review entitled "The Passing Show of 1616," in which were introduced various selections from the plays of Shakespeare, as follows:

Hamlet's Address to the Players; Petruchio Is Breaking the Spirit of Katherine; A Scene from *The Tempest*; The Dance of the Fairies in *Midsummer-Night's Dream*; Caesar's Ghost Appears to Brutus, from *Julius Caesar*; Ophelia's Mad Scene, from *Hamlet*; The Choice of the Caskets, *Merchant of Venice*; Touchstone, Celia, and Rosalind in the Forest of Arden, *As You Like It*.

THIRD DAY

MORNING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium, at 9:30 A.M., with President Shawkey in the chair.

The following program was presented:

"Some Suggestions for Improving the Rural-School Curricula"—G. C. Creelman, president, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario, Canada.

Joint discussion: "The Minimum Essentials *versus* the Differentiated Course of Study in the Seventh and Eighth Grades"—Lotus D. Coffman, professor of education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.; William C. Bagley, director, School of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; David Snedden, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.

The annual business meeting followed the program.

The first order of business was the report of the Committee on Revision and Extension of the Work of the Department of Superintendence. This committee was appointed in accordance with a resolution adopted at the Cincinnati meeting. Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich., chairman of the committee, made the report, which was adopted, as follows:

The committee understands that it was the purpose of the resolution under which it was appointed that it should consider the clarifying of the work of the department and

make such suggestion for an extension of that work thru the year as would gather together and organize professional information of significant value in the work of administrative and supervising officers and would codify the tenets of this department touching the rights and duties of such administrative and supervisory officers in their several relations with their community, institution, and board of trustees, to the end that this selected information and professionally approved doctrine might aid more effectively these officers in meeting and solving their local problems. The committee recommends for your consideration the following:

The Department of Superintendence is one of the several departments of the National Education Association. As a department it is concerned with defining the nature of its activities in a way that will avoid the confusing of its work with that of the other departments of the general Association.

The main constructive lines of the activities of this department are the consideration of:

1. Courses of study that will meet the needs of communities.
2. Enumeration, classification, and promotion of pupils.
3. The certification of the qualifications of teachers and the methods of securing their appointments.
4. Proper school supplies and the mode of securing such supplies, including textbooks and apparatus.
5. Plans for school building.
6. The formation of school districts with regard to population, opportunities, and interrelations.
7. The methods of raising and apportioning school moneys.
8. The relations of superintendents to boards of education.

The committee recommends that there be appointed at each meeting of the department a committee on one, or committees on more than one, of the above, or co-ordinate formative lines, the members of these committees to represent typical parts of the country and to have as their chief object the bringing before the department reports on comparative conditions, industrial, cultural, etc., and information on what is being accomplished in some of the most progressive schools, and that at least one session of a department meeting be devoted to hearing and discussing such reports.

The committee further recommends that the Executive Committee of the National Education Association of the United States be requested to ask the Board of Directors to make an appropriation of \$500.00 to meet the expenses during the current year of such committees as may be appointed under these resolutions.

CHARLES E. CHADSEY, of Michigan
 JAMES M. GREEN, of New Jersey
 NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania
 BEN BLEWETT, of Missouri
 WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, of New York
Committee

The nominating committee reported as follows:

For *President*—John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

For *First Vice-President*—Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.

For *Second Vice-President*—John Dietrich, superintendent of schools, Helena, Mont.

For *Secretary*—Margaret T. Maguire, supervising principal of Washington School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The persons named were unanimously elected as officers for the coming year.

The Committee on Resolutions presented the following report, which was adopted:

1. We affirm that every child in the United States of America has definite educational needs for which adequate provision should be made by proper legislative enactment and by ample resources for support. In so far as the public, the superintendents, and the teachers are now meeting these needs, the American school system will be able to fulfil the larger educational obligations of an expanding modern democracy.

We believe that American public education now offers substantial hope for the realization of the fundamental principles of liberty and humanity which will alone support a righteous nationalism and internationalism, by which peace, justice, and progress will be guaranteed.

We believe that a new international note should be sounded in our educational program, calling upon us to cultivate mutual understandings and interdependence among the peoples of the world, and to this end we recommend that our national government adopt the policy of appointing educational attachés to our embassies and legations in foreign countries.

2. The complete unification and Americanization of all our people is a necessity. In view of the temporary cessation of immigration, the present is a particularly opportune time for the extension of educational agencies that will effectively prepare immigrant children and adults for the rights and duties of American citizenship.

We recommend that the president of the department be authorized to appoint a special committee to co-operate with the United States Bureau of Education and all other agencies in realizing this goal.

3. We rejoice over the progress in state, and especially in national, legislation which promises to guarantee the protection of children from the ill effect incident to undesirable kinds of labor at the time when future public welfare demands that they should be in school.

4. We reaffirm our approval of federal aid to vocational education as proposed in the Smith-Hughes bill now before Congress. We believe that the end to be served is so important and so diversified as to require a federal board, the members of which shall be educational representatives of the interests concerned and shall give their undivided attention to the administration of the act.

5. We commend most heartily the activities of the United States Bureau of Education and its helpful co-operation in the development of education in all parts of the country. We recommend to the Congress of the United States a generous increase in appropriations for the Bureau in order that it may be able to respond to the multiplied demands thruout the nation for its services.

6. We reaffirm our belief that a small board of education is the most efficient instrument for the administration of the affairs of public schools.

7. We reaffirm our belief in the value of a bureau of research in connection with the superintendent's office. We also commend the properly conducted, sympathetic, and constructive school survey as an aid in the solution of school problems. We look forward, however, to the time when every school system will be so equipped in its own regular official and teaching staff as to conduct a continuous survey from within.

8. We affirm that the overcrowding of the elementary schools is a most serious defect, requiring, as it does, the individual teacher to be responsible for the instruction and the discipline of too many pupils. We believe that it is the part of educational economy to provide as speedily as possible for the abolition of this practice.

9. In view of the progress that has been made in raising the standards of preparation for teaching, it is recommended that school boards and superintendents thruout the country adopt, as soon as possible, for their guidance in the selection of elementary and secondary teachers and supervisors, the highest standards now in force in our more progressive states.

10. In order to secure more efficient teaching we reaffirm our belief in the necessity of helpful, sympathetic, and constructive supervision of schools, both city and country.

11. We reaffirm our belief in the importance of encouraging all agencies designed to promote the physical well-being of children. We note with satisfaction the increase in the co-operation between health and school authorities.

We strongly favor physical training that will develop mind and character as well as body, but we are emphatically opposed to the introduction of compulsory military training into the high schools of the country before mature consideration of the educational questions involved therein.

We suggest the appointment by the incoming president of the department of a committee of nine to study and to report upon the proper place for and purpose of military education of American youth, and in case it is appointed we recommend that the Executive Committee request the Board of Directors of the National Education Association to provide for the necessary expenses of this committee.

12. The country child is entitled to as good a school as the city child. He should have a professionally trained teacher, who is paid an adequate salary. The rural schools should have good supervision. We believe the county superintendent of schools, as well as the city superintendent, should be chosen solely on account of academic and professional qualifications, executive ability, and good character. We are convinced that his selection should be determined by some method other than that of popular election, which is usually influenced by considerations other than educational. We further recommend the consolidation of rural schools wherever practicable.

13. We express our appreciation of the action of the various railroad associations which gave to the members of the department the benefit of the open rate.

14. We express our appreciation of the hospitality extended to the department by Superintendent Chadsey, his colleagues, the citizens, and the various organizations of Detroit.

15. We extend the thanks of the department to President Shawkey for the excellent program prepared for this meeting.

16. We express our appreciation for the many courtesies extended by the hotel managements.

17. We thank the representatives of the press for the excellent reports of the meetings of the department.

Invitations for the 1917 meeting were presented by Boston, Mass.; Kansas City, Mo.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn.; and Omaha, Nebr.

Five minutes was allowed for the presentation from each city, and it was voted that on successive ballots the city receiving the fewest votes should be withdrawn. On the first ballot, Boston received 305; Kansas City, 336; Milwaukee, 63; Minneapolis, 47; and Omaha, 163. This dropped Minneapolis automatically and Milwaukee asked to withdraw. A second ballot was ordered, but after the vote for Boston had been taken and before the vote for Kansas City could be counted, Boston withdrew and moved that Kansas City be made the meeting-place for 1917 by acclamation, which motion was carried.

AFTERNOON SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

The afternoon was given to round tables, as follows:

(A) ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

Chairman—Carl G. Schulz, state superintendent of education, St. Paul, Minn.

“How Much and What Kind of Supervision?”—C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.

“How Not to Train Rural Teachers?”—Edward Hyatt, state superintendent of public instruction, Sacramento, Cal.

“Rural Supervision in the Mountains of the South”—Jennie Burkes, county superintendent, Claiborne County, Cumberland Gap, Tenn.

“The Status and Need of Rural Supervision”—A. C. Monahan, specialist, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

(B) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 250,000

Chairman—J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, New Orleans La.

“A First Step in Establishing the Six-Three-Three Organization”—Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.

“The Determination of Educational Policies”—Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.

“Textbooks—Principles Governing Their Selection”—Randall J. Condon, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

“The Education of Foreigners for American Citizenship”—Raymond F. Crist, deputy commissioner of naturalization, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

“Adaptation of Schools to Varying Needs”—Ben Blewett, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

(C) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

Chairman—Ira B. Bush, superintendent of schools, Erie, Pa.

“Community Activities as a Means of Motivation”—Fred M. Hunter, superintendent of schools, Lincoln, Nebr.

“Teaching Tenure”—John F. Keating, superintendent of schools, Pueblo, Colo.

“A Study of Deviate Children—The Problem of Delinquency and Subnormality”—C. Edward Jones, superintendent of schools, Albany, N.Y.

“Vacation Club Work”—J. H. Beveridge, superintendent of schools, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

“Short-Unit Industrial Courses”—M. B. King, Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

(D) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION UNDER 25,000

Chairman—John Milne, superintendent of schools, Albuquerque, N.M.

“Effective Constructive Economy in Supervision”—W. E. Hoover, superintendent of schools, Fargo, N.D.

"Effective and Economical Supervision in Small Cities"—Walter S. Deffenbaugh, Division of School Administration, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

"Reliable Measurements of a School System"—Otis G. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Fairmont, W.Va.

"The Ethical as the Essential Factor in Training for Efficient Citizenship in a Democracy"—Charles W. Cookson, superintendent of schools, Troy, Ohio.

"The School's Responsibility in the New Nationalism"—W. E. Albig, superintendent of schools, Bellevue, Pa.

(E) ROUND TABLE OF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Chairman—Frank W. Ballou, director, Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, public schools, Boston, Mass.

"The Two Phases of Educational Research and Efficiency in the Public Schools"—George Melcher, director, Bureau of Research and Efficiency, Kansas City, Mo.

"Standardization of Teachers' Examinations"—Stuart A. Courtis, supervisor of educational research, Detroit, Mich.

"Comments on Ten Intelligence Tests Applied to Ten Thousand Children in Grades V-VIII Inclusive"—Albert Shiels, director, Division of Reference Research, Department of Education, New York, N.Y.

"Improving Instruction thru Educational Measurement"—Frank W. Ballou, director, Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, public schools, Boston, Mass.

(F) ROUND TABLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

Chairman—John W. Davis, director, Bureau of Attendance, New York, N.Y.

"The Control and Supervision of Field Workers"—Henry J. Gideon, chief, Bureau of Compulsory Education, Philadelphia, Pa. In the absence of Mr. Gideon, this paper was read by Howard W. Nudd, director, New York Public Education Association, New York, N.Y.

Discussion: R. L. Cooley, director of continuation schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; Howard W. Nudd, director, New York Public Education Association, New York, N.Y.

"Does a Strict Enforcement of the Compulsory-Education Law Assist Teachers and Supervising Officials in Their Work? (a) Increased Assistance; (b) Reduction of Retardation; (c) Conservation of the Nervous Energy of the Teacher and Supervising Officials"—Edward B. Shallow, associate city superintendent of schools, New York, N.Y.

Discussion: A. B. Rhett, superintendent of schools, Charleston, S.C.; M.C. Potter, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.

"The Policy of Free Education in a Democracy Requires a Federal Child-Labor Law, Stringent and Strictly Enforced State Statutes as Regards Compulsory Education, and a Continuing School Census"—James D. Sullivan, chief, Compulsory Attendance Division, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y. In the absence of Mr. Sullivan, this paper was read by Charles F. Wheelock, assistant commissioner of secondary education, New York State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.

Discussion: Ben Blewett, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.; Herbert S. Weet, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N.Y.; Henry Snyder, superintendent of schools, Jersey City, N.J.; Henry D. Hervey, superintendent of schools, Auburn, N.Y.

EVENING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1916

SCHOOLMASTER-GOVERNORS' EVENING

The meeting was called to order in Arcadia Auditorium by President Shawkey at 8:00 P.M., and the following program was given:

Chorus: The Pirates of Penzance—Boys' Chorus, Northwestern High School; Clara E. Starr, director.

Introduction of President-elect John D. Shoop, superintendent of schools, Chicago, Ill.

Address—Woodbridge N. Ferris, Governor of Michigan.

Address—Martin G. Brumbaugh, Governor of Pennsylvania.

Address—Frank B. Willis, Governor of Ohio.

FOURTH DAY

MORNING SESSION—FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1916

The meeting was called to order at 9:30 A.M. by President Shawkey in Arcadia Auditorium.

The following program was given:

"Booker T. Washington—An Appreciation"—O. T. Corson, editor, *Ohio Educational Monthly*, Columbus, Ohio.

"High Points in the Los Angeles Plan"—J. H. Francis, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

"Significant Developments in Educational Surveying"—Leonard P. Ayres, director, Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y.

"Report of Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education"—Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.

AFTERNOON SESSION—FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1916

The meeting was called to order by President Shawkey in the Arcadia Auditorium at 2:00 P.M.

The following program was presented:

"The Thirtieth Man"—John H. Finley, president, University of the State of New York, Albany, N.Y.

"Definiteness and Compulsion in Education"—A. Duncan Yocum, professor of educational research and practice, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

"Manners and Morals—Our Problem"—Alice M. Carmalt, assistant professor of education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Scouting as an Educational Asset"—James E. West, chief scout executive, Boy Scouts of America, New York, N.Y.

"The National Morality Codes Competition"—Milton Fairchild, chairman, Executive Committee, National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C.

E. C. WARRINER, *Secretary*

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

FRED L. KEELER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
LANSING, MICH.

The state of Michigan deeply appreciates the distinction this gathering brings to her. Michigan's hospitality is extended with special joy to a meeting of the nation's educators, and it is with keenest pleasure I bid you welcome.

Many of you are not strangers to Michigan. To many of you this meeting is a home-coming rather than a visit to a strange land. It is hardly possible to name a city in the United States, certainly not in the West, that does not have teachers and educational leaders who were trained in Michigan. Our state was the first state in the Union to organize a complete public-school system from kindergarten to university. For two generations Ann Arbor and Ypsilanti stood out as the educational centers of the West. We are proud that the newer states have found much in the Michigan system worthy of adoption, and we rejoice over the marvelous progress our sister-states are making in promoting public education.

The people of Michigan have always maintained a broad view of the purpose of education, and with characteristic liberality their educational institutions are open, not only to the citizens of our own state, but to any person from any quarter of the globe who wishes to come. We believe that we do most for ourselves when we do much for others. And there is abundant reason why we should hold this view. Michigan is great because she has done much for others and because she has done much for herself. But she stands ready always to acknowledge that she has also received much.

Michigan was carved from that great empire, the Northwest Territory, which was created by the Ordinance of 1787—a document which ranks with the Declaration of Independence and the federal Constitution. The Ordinance states that “there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in said territory.” That provision was drafted by that greatest statesman of the South, who belongs, not only to America, but to the whole world—Thomas Jefferson. The Ordinance also provides that “religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged.” This statement expresses the sentiment of our whole country today. That sentiment founded New England, and New England gave it to us. Indeed, the very author of the Ordinance of 1787 was Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts. It appears, then, that the founding of the Northwest Territory was conceived in the best thought of the North and the South.

Not only have we received ideas from other sections of the country, but we have received men with ideas. Each state of the Union is permitted to place in the Capitol at Washington the statues of two of its favorite sons. Michigan has placed there the statues of Lewis Cass and Zach Chandler. Both of these men came to us from New England. John D. Pierce, our first state superintendent of public instruction—the first state superintendent in this country—whom we regard as the founder of the educational system of Michigan, came to us from New England. James B. Angell, for forty years president of the University of Michigan, came to us from New England. Dr. Angell is now the president emeritus of the great institution to which he has given his life. A great educator, a great scholar, a great diplomat, above all a great teacher, we are proud today to honor him as the first citizen of our state.

Five New England states have given us superintendents of public instruction. Each New England state has given us a governor, and some of them two. President Jackson made a young fellow from Kentucky governor of Michigan Territory before he was out of his teens. This was done much against our protest. But of course we decided that the only thing to do was to agree with Jackson and we gave the boy a chance. After awhile we liked the boy so well that we adopted him, and when Michigan became a state we elected Steven T. Mason our first governor. It is perhaps noteworthy that up to the present time Michigan has chosen only one

governor who was a native son. This policy, I must say, has not the unanimous approval of the native sons.

I repeat, we believe both in giving and in receiving. There are more judges on the federal bench today who received their training at Ann Arbor than from any other university in the country. There are today twenty-six members of the national Congress who received their training at Ann Arbor—more than from any other university in the whole country. And while we are training these leaders in national affairs, we are richly rewarded in the men we take in from the outside. Several of the superintendencies of our larger cities are held by men from other states. Three years ago, when the city of Detroit was searching for a man to take charge of her great system of schools, she went west and brought home from Denver, Colo., our present superintendent, Charles E. Chadsey.

The most American thing in America is our public-school system. Nowhere is the work of public education better illustrated than in Michigan. Our state university, with over seven thousand students from every country in the world; our normal-school system, with more than four thousand students; our agricultural college, with an enrolment of two thousand students; a group of splendid denominational colleges, with two thousand students; our public schools with over five hundred thousand children in attendance—all these testify to our conviction that the safety of our country demands that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." We tax ourselves to support our educational establishment, not, primarily, to give the young people certain advantages. We regard our tax as an investment which richly repays us in the quality of the citizens we get to take part in our democracy. We believe that the most expensive liability a state can have is an ignorant citizen. When I hear the reckless attack made at times by hostile critics of our schools, I wonder what counsel gives them inspiration. That our schools are not perfect, no one will deny. But when I think how young the institution is, and what prodigious burdens have been heaped upon it all at once, and when I see with my own eyes with what marvelous skill the schools of the country discharge their responsibility, I declare to you that the American public school challenges the admiration of the whole world. A little while ago I visited the schools of Calumet, that wonderful mining camp in northern Michigan. I found there in one schoolroom boys and girls representing thirty different nationalities. The wall before them was draped with the stars and stripes. I saw the boys and girls rise and salute *their* flag. And then in a reverent spirit they sang:

*My Country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing.*

I have heard our national anthem sung many a time before, but since that day it has had for me a new meaning. Go into the schools of Detroit

some evening and you will find there ten thousand men and women who, at public expense, are being given the fundamentals of an education. Many of these are foreigners who are being taught our language and who are being taught the meaning of American citizenship.

My friends, I will close as I began: Michigan appreciates the honor of entertaining this great meeting of the nation's educational leaders. We welcome you the more because you are engaged in a work close to the hearts of the people of Michigan—a work we regard as the most important business in our country. We welcome you because your presence will be an inspiration to us this week, this year, and the years to come. In behalf of the sterling citizenship of our state; in behalf of twenty thousand teachers—the most enthusiastic, loyal, and devoted teachers that ever blessed a great state; in behalf of one million of the most splendid boys and girls; in behalf of the superintendents and teachers of Michigan here present, I extend to you a hand of welcome.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESS OF WELCOME

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

Speaking for the members of this great Association, I cannot assume that your welcome extends any farther than to us as a body of men and women engaged in a great work. I cannot assume that your welcome extends to the ideas which we bring, to the educational programs and resolutions which we shall here formulate. This fact is not mentioned as a matter of complaint, but rather to raise a question which strikes at the very spirit of American life. It is charged that the people of the United States have scant regard for the opinions of their leaders in any field of thought, that they treat with indifference or contempt the opinions of experts, that they resent authority, and show little respect for law. I cannot, of my own knowledge or experience, assert that this attitude is peculiar to America, but some who are widely traveled and deeply learned in the affairs of nations declare that nowhere else in the world are the leaders of thought—the experts—held in such light regard as in this great democracy.

In the face of this great world-crisis, it is becoming in us as the leaders of education in this great democracy to review seriously our educational creeds and philosophies to see whether this gross national defect is in any way chargeable as an outcome of our educational system.

Of course, some of it results directly from the very form of our government. Its cornerstone is the Declaration of Independence, whose glowing lines declare "that all men are created equal and are endowed with certain inalienable rights." No one who believes in the true spirit of a democracy will in any way try to tarnish the luster of those shining, glorious words,

but he will stupidly err if in accepting the doctrine that all men are created equal he concludes therefrom that the judgments of all men are equally trustworthy upon all questions. No one will lightly cast a doubt upon the soundness of this doctrine of equality in so far as it relates to equality of opportunity. The cynic may deny it and the unfortunate may doubt it, but the man of faith, the patriot, will ever hold it as a sound and precious truth, altho he knows that equality of opportunity does not mean equality of condition or attainment. This gospel of equality of opportunity is the modern Jacob's ladder on which are seen ascending and descending, not angels, but boys and girls, men and women. Who are these that are descending? They are the children and grandchildren and great-grandchildren of those men and women who heard the call of opportunity and who, thru heroic effort and merit, climbed to the very top, honored by the people as worthy leaders, and blessed as noble benefactors, but whose offspring lost the gleam of the star and the call of opportunity, and foolishly assumed that achievement and merit can be transmitted from father to son, and stupidly erred in thinking that in America positions of social and civic preferment are hereditary. So down they come, some of them reluctantly, some of them resentfully, but nevertheless they descend to get a new point of view and a new start. And who are these who are ascending? They are those who have caught the glint of the star and have heard the call. Here is a lad whose father but yesterday was a workman on the section. This is the son of a fruit peddler. And this one caught his vision and his zeal between the handles of a plow. These, all, are the children of high endeavor, the sons and daughters of American opportunity. Who, with all of its inconsistencies, with all of its disappointments, with all of its failures, would draw a curtain of doubt and discouragement over this glowing ideal?

But while something of this national infirmity which we are considering may spring from this foundation doctrine of freedom and equality, we may discover if we look farther that much of it finds its origin in our educational creeds and philosophies.

At about the same time that we were writing the governmental theories of Rousseau into our Declaration of Independence we were writing his educational ideas into our systems of education. But it took over a hundred years for his theories of extreme individualism, of revolt against authority in education, to exert any marked influence upon the prevailing methods in education. But reinforced by the sweet and gentle teachings of Pestalozzi and Froebel and systematized by Herbart the spirit of this great revolt against the ancient doctrines of authority and discipline and obedience has swept into and pervaded the entire body of our system of public education.

No one who knows will undertake to deny that this great change has brought into public education a spirit of sympathy which it sadly needed.

It changed the center of gravity of the educational solar system. It placed the child and his interests at the center, and made all other matters—educational theories, courses of study, and methods of instruction—revolve about him and take their meaning from him. It breathed into the nostrils of an austere and rigid form the breath of life and it became a living soul.

All of this the most conservative will admit. They will go even farther and agree that this great rebirth in educational doctrines and procedure has added greatly to the strength of our democracy. But there are many, who are in no sense educational heretics, asking seriously whether we have not carried this spirit of individualism too far. There are those who are not wedded to the old régime in education who feel that modern society has suffered a great loss by this extreme reaction against authority and discipline and obedience.

No one will deny that every child has certain inborn possibilities and potentialities which must be allowed to unfold according to the law of his own nature, but one may very properly question whether any individual, so developed, can live and work with his fellows, can play the part of a man in the affairs of a great nation, unless he has learned somewhere along the line that beyond his individual needs and desires there lie powerful social and civic forces and laws which will add to or subtract from his personal power and influence as he works with them or against them. No one desires a return of the old strait-jacket system of discipline. Everyone rejoices in the new freedom which has come to the child in the new methods of organization and control, but many thoughtful people are asking whether the movement has not gone too far, whether our children are not suffering a distinct loss in character thru the decay of obedience to rule and order, whether it is not breeding a weakness in the very quality of citizenship.

Everyone wants the child to think out for himself everything that lies within his power. Everyone wants him to doubt, to question, to experiment until he finds a satisfactory answer. No one wants him to accept the opinions and commands of others with unthinking docility. No one asks that he stultify his own intelligence and smother his own will in servile, stupid obedience to another. But many believe profoundly that the greatest respect for authority is compatible with the highest degree of intelligence, that the strongest will is capable of the most instant and complete obedience to the will of others, that the very greatest degree of freedom comes only to him who recognizes and obeys established law and authority.

It is very right that we should hold up before the youth of this country the opportunity that everyone has to become a leader in some field of endeavor. It furnishes a worthy ideal. It points out a definite star to which all may hitch their wagon. But we shall err greatly if we do not make it clear that there can be no leaders unless there are followers; that an army made up wholly of generals would be an impossible army. We must show that no one can lead unless he has learned how to follow. We

must never lose sight of the fact that this great economic, social, and civic democracy demands group-thinking and group-acting; that its very safety depends upon the power of its citizens to fix their thought harmoniously upon a common aim, to concentrate their effort solidly toward a common end.

I do not want to be misunderstood. I am not alarmed by every shadow cast by the clouds of war. I refuse to become panic-stricken at the sight of the very clouds themselves. I do not share that feeling of worshipful awe which some good people are exhibiting toward this new international god called Efficiency. How in the midst of this great test of the nations that word has been flung round the world! How it has been blazoned upon the very sky! A gentleman addressing a large audience in one of our cosmopolitan cities declared that unless the United States could effect thru its educational system the same degree of economic and governmental efficiency possessed by some of the European nations, Ichabod would be written across our door and the light of our great democracy would go out forever. Not a few of us will sympathize with the statement of the speaker who replied that rather would he contemplate the destruction of American democracy thru its liberty-loving, wasteful, blundering incompetence than assist in compelling it to that fatal form of efficiency which is driving some European nations on to their certain ruin. Not one of us desires that the American government shall become so compactly articulate that like an ivory ball it shall take its directions and angles of reflections from a cue held in one man's hand.

But we shall be untrue to the sacred trust committed to us as leaders in public education if we do not weigh carefully the meaning of that great word efficiency in its relation both to our educational system and to our government. We may discover that a very great deal of the thing which that word signifies can be appropriated by us with profit to our schools and to our nation. We may discover that thru the shifting of the emphasis in some of our theories of education and thought, the redirection of some of our methods of instruction and control, we shall attain that kind of efficiency which is the essence of a real democracy—individual freedom with respect for authority, personal independence with loyal acknowledgement of leadership, the greatest degree of intellectual and civic liberty, joined with the most profound respect for law and order.

WHAT IS GOING ON IN THE WORLD

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, PRESIDENT, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N. Y.

[*Abstract from Newspaper Reports*]

Have you really considered how profoundly every one of us must be affected by what is going on in the world? The day that marked the opening of the present great war in Europe marked also the opening of the great

struggle to determine whether our present civilization is to survive or whether we are to enter on a period of social retrogression which will pull us back into even lower depths than those from which we have climbed.

At the present time, strange and unfamiliar conditions confront us. So many things that we thought settled forever are uncertain; so many things that we thought we had put behind us are staring us in the face; what we have longed for and prayed for now seems impossible. The times are so grave, the disturbance of settled order is so severe, the break with advancing civilization is so complete, that no man dare speak with confidence or dogmatism.

And it was all so unexpected! In June, 1914, I was in Paris, with one hundred representative men of all the great nations of the earth. They spoke of the multiplying evidences of a new era when all the nations of the earth would be friends, leaving the world to give all its thought to social betterment and civic improvement. And even as we were speaking the thunder clouds were gathering for the greatest storm in history!

We often read of great crises as if they were specimens in a museum. We speak of the fall of Rome, of the Renaissance, of the French Revolution, of American constitution-making, almost as if they were things apart from us. Unless I am mistaken, we are living even now in one of the great world-epochs. As I read history, there have been only two eras of significance equal to this. Five hundred years before Christ, the battles of Thermopylae and Salamis determined that Greek democratic individualism rather than Oriental collectivism of race, religion, caste, and fixed authority, should be the dominant note of government in the Western world. The second great crisis came when Charles Martel drove back the Arab hordes at Tours, thus deciding that Western civilization should be not Mohammedan but Christian. From that day to this, Western civilization has not had so much at stake as in the present war. Happy are we to be neutral, but we cannot be indifferent or withhold our moral judgment when everything that we hold dear is in the melting-pot. With the opening of the European war there began a new epoch in the history of civilization. On the issue of that war depends the existence of this civilization of which we are so proud.

What has the world been doing these past one thousand years? It has been building nations that sought to be ends in themselves. This nation-building began with the downfall of the Roman Empire, and in this struggle of men to express themselves in terms of the nation we have the clew to the history of the past ten centuries. We have erected the nation into something superior to moral rules and obligations. It is this false patriotism—a patriotism that makes the nation superior to moral law—that is now singing hymns of hate. It is that narrow and unethical conception of nationalism that has brought Europe to the edge of ruin. If our

civilization is to continue, this war must be the Nemesis of that nationalism which regards the nation as an end in itself. I am convinced that the present war is the result of this perverted notion of nationalism. It is one of those volcanic outbursts in terms of nations which shows the disturbance within. It is a blind, unthinking fanaticism that is hurling the nations at each other's throats, and, when the horrors of war have been relegated to the past, it will be determined whether the great principle of nationality is to be a blessing or a curse.

What does it mean? Will it prove to be what the Greeks call a "katharsis," a purification or a cleansing of the spirit? Or does it mean that our children are to see the institutions of a thousand years dissolved like mist into elemental forms? The world may or may not learn the lesson of this great conflict. It depends on us, in great measure, to say whether it shall be ruinous, or whether it shall pave the way to more splendid things by reason of the terrible lessons that are waiting to be learned. Spencer said that when evolution reached its high mark, an involution or inevitable downward tendency would set in, and then would come another upward tendency. If we are unable to grasp the lesson of this war, we must be content to drift back. Shall we do that?

I am an incurable optimist. For my part, I have faith to believe that the world is going to profit by its present dire experiences, and that we are going forward to a time when men will live and work together regardless of the too restricted and too narrow views of nationality that prevailed in the past. I believe we are about to gain a new and a splendid conception of life and patriotism—a new internationalism such as the world has never seen. The great struggle of the nations is going to be a great purifier of thought—a stimulus to co-operation. Ultimately it will bring the world to a time when men will truly co-operate, when brotherly love will be a real, tangible thing and not a myth—a time when war will be a thing forever in the past.

Another great lesson of the war will be learned in terms of religion. This will come to pass when we shall cease to worship a tribal God, cease to be twentieth-century pagans, and shall learn to serve the one, the only God of all nations.

I like the saying of Bossuet: "Beware when God wipes out! It means He is getting ready to write!" It seems that the American nation, with all its acknowledged imperfections, has at this time a contribution to make to the world that will be epochal in its effect. We have learned, as the world may learn, that one nation may be made out of forty-eight nations. We have learned that people of diverse language, customs, and religions may dwell together in peace under one flag, provided each is given his due rights. We have developed great leaders whose thought and opinion all the world may well receive. We ask the nations of the world to take Washington and make him theirs; we ask them to take all our leaders

that have done so well in developing the principles of federated unity and follow them in the cause of the civilization of the world and the eternal betterment of mankind.

THE FORD IDEA IN EDUCATION

SAMUEL S. MARQUIS, SOCIOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT, FORD MOTOR COMPANY,
DETROIT, MICH.

The impression has somehow got abroad that Henry Ford is in the automobile business. It isn't true. Mr. Ford shoots about fifteen hundred cars out of the back door of his factory every day just to get rid of them. They are but the by-products of his real business, which is the making of men.

William Carey, cobbler and missionary, asked as to the nature of his business, said: "My business is extending the Kingdom of God, but I mend shoes in order to provide money to carry on my work." Mr. Ford's business is the making of men, and he manufactures automobiles on the side to defray the expenses of the main business.

Some people call the fifty-acre group of buildings out in Highland Park the Ford Factory. Well, it is that, but it is a great deal more. It is a school. Mr. Ford is more interested in men than in machines. He is before everything else interested in the education of his employees.

The Ford school at the present time has about twenty-five thousand pupils. It has fully twice that many more on the waiting list. Before very long people will be registering an application at the Ford school for their boys as soon as they are born, just as they are now doing at some of the more exclusive academies and colleges down east.

Any man can enter the Ford school, provided there is a vacancy, who is eighteen years of age and is out of employment. Married men are preferred to single, and boys with mothers to support are given a chance before those who have no one dependent upon them. The boy under twenty-two years of age with no one looking to him for support is not eligible for profit-sharing. It would be cheaper to admit him than the boy with someone dependent upon him for support; but Mr. Ford prefers the latter at five dollars per day to the former, because the money will do more good in meeting the needs of more people.

A prominent eastern manufacturer said to me recently:

There is no use trying to meet facts with theories. Mr. Ford has done for his men that which I said could not be done and ought not to be done, but he has done it, and it works to the benefit of all concerned, and that puts an end to the argument. I have come on to find out how he does it, for I want to do as nearly as I can the same things for my employees.

Mr. Ford has done in finance that which financial experts claimed was impossible. He has accomplished in mechanical lines that which trained

and experienced men said could not be accomplished. His one answer to the statement, "It can't be done," is to do it.

A young engineer, a graduate of one of our universities, said to me: "If Henry Ford had had a technical training, he would have known better than to have attempted to do some of the things he has done successfully." And the young man did not see the humor in his statement.

It is a good thing that once in a while some man with originality and courage, and unhampered by the traditions of the schools, confronts the mechanical, economic, and social problems of the world. Because there is a man of this kind out at the Ford is the reason why the impossible and the unexpected happen there so frequently.

When the Ford profit-sharing plan was announced, the Jeremiahs got busy. All sorts of dire things were about to happen. The labor market would be upset. Chaos would reign in the industrial world. Ford employees, made suddenly rich, would squander their wealth to the detriment of the community and the lasting injury of themselves. But nothing of the sort has happened. Things quite the contrary have come to pass.

When Mr. Ford made known his intention to give the man who had made a mistake a chance to come back, another howl went up. The city would be overrun with undesirables. Crime would increase. Men, it was asserted, would break into jail in order to get into the Ford. It didn't happen; and the reason why this did not happen, and the reason why Ford employees did not spend their money in a manner detrimental to themselves and to the community, and the reason why the labor market was not demoralized, and the reason why workmen in other factories did not throw down their tools and go on a strike, and the reason why all the other dreadful things predicted did not come to pass, was that along with the profit-sharing plan went a plan for the education of the working-men in thrift, honesty, sobriety, better housing, and better living generally—a plan that protected them and everybody else. The Ford idea in education was declared impossible. The men would not stand for it. It invaded their personal rights. It took away their liberty. It was paternalism of the worst sort.

But it has worked. It is not resented except occasionally by a man who claims that the liberty guaranteed him under the Constitution of the United States to get drunk and beat up his wife has been invaded.

The Ford school provides five compulsory courses. There is a course in industry and efficiency, a course in thrift and economy, a course in domestic relations, one in community relations, and one in industrial relations.

The Ford English school, which is an important branch of the main school, provides courses in speaking, reading, and writing English, and in arithmetic. This course is not exactly optional. A man who declines to take it is laid off for a couple of weeks in order that he may have time to

think it over. If after further persuasion he refuses to attend the classes he is given an opportunity to find employment elsewhere.

I must not forget to mention that in this school we have our professor of table manners who teaches the art of eating a meal in a manner that will not interfere with the appetite of the other fellow. We also have a professor of etiquette, such as is required in the ordinary station of life.

Then we have a special course in the art of making a new start in life, with the degree of A.M. LL.D., which being interpreted means: A Mistake Doubly Lived Down. The big lesson we try to teach in this course is that while no man can *outrun* his past he can *outgrow* it.

A study of the foregoing courses will make it clear that the Ford idea of education is:

1. To improve a man's tastes and at the same time increase his earning power.
2. To teach a man to use his income in a constructive manner.
3. To put a man into a right relation with his family.
4. To put a man into right relations with his community.
5. To put a man right with his work and his employer.
6. To fit the foreigner to become a citizen and to encourage him to do so.
7. To give the man who is down and out a chance to come back.

It is a poor, blind, blundering, educational system which cultivates in a man a taste for things which it in no way prepares him to obtain. To increase a man's capacity for happiness and at the same time to fail to develop his power for procuring the means for obtaining the happiness for which you have given him the craving is a cruel thing to do, not a kindly one. That educational system is a failure which does not provide for compulsory vocational training for every boy or girl, high and low, rich and poor. The system of education which only increases, thru the so-called cultural studies, the capacity for happiness, and fails to develop the power for gaining that happiness, is a system bound to increase human misery and failure. The Ford idea is to increase a man's capacity for happiness and at the same time to increase his efficiency, his earning capacity, his worth to society, so that he may have access to the things he has been taught to enjoy.

The thing we need to see is the cultural possibilities in vocational training. It is possible to develop a man's mind and soul in the training of his hand. We fail to see this because we underestimate the dignity of manual toil and its worth to society. "I want you to go to school and get an education so that you will not have to work as hard as I have worked," was a remark often made to me by my father. He did not mean to do so, perhaps, but he was instilling into my mind the idea that an education meant a higher standing in the social scale and exemption from the degradation of physical toil. One still meets too frequently with this enervating and demoralizing idea in the atmosphere of our public schools and colleges. A college man at the Ford school discovers that he has a great many things

to learn under the tutorship of men who have never seen the inside of a college. The fact is, we are giving at the Ford a great many high-school and college men their first real cultural training so far as will, thoroughness, accuracy, honesty, and a sense of the dignity of labor are concerned. Education does not consist in developing the human intellect alone, but the will and emotions as well. It is not enough that a man thinks right, he must be able to will what is right, and to feel what is right as well. We believe at the Ford that the true aim of education is to increase the sum-total of human happiness, but you cannot make an addition to a man's happiness that will stay unless at the same time you increase his usefulness to society. In order to get more, he must be able to give more. Cultural training without vocational training is about as wise a procedure as planting wheat in the desert before developing a system of irrigation. True culture cannot be imparted before one has experienced the toil out of which culture springs. Much of our school culture starves to death. It is blindly given at the expense of the training on which it must depend for sustenance in after-years.

In public school and college we stimulate study by assuring the pupil that an education will pay. It will mean more dollars in one's pocket later on. We stimulate a man's desire for an education at the Ford school in the same way. But we go farther. We not only teach a man how to earn more money, but we begin at once to teach him how to spend it. Lessons on how to use money are just as important as lessons on how to earn it.

We receive every man on six months' probation. This is our preparatory school in which a man qualifies for profit-sharing. It is during this time that we make a careful study of his habits. If, at the end of six months, we are satisfied as to his ability to make use of his profits, we place him on the profit-sharing list, but he must have demonstrated the fact that he spends money in a constructive way. There are but two ways of spending money. One builds up and the other destroys the man, his family, and the community in which he lives. The Ford man must be a builder. If he is not, he is called into the office and his destructive habits are pointed out. He is informed that until these habits are overcome his profits will be withheld. If he makes good within thirty days, all withheld profits are restored; if it requires sixty days for him to get right, he receives 75 per cent of his withheld profits and 25 per cent are put into a charity fund. The company does not benefit by the withheld profits of its men. If a man taken off his profits does not qualify within six months, his discharge at the end of that time is automatic. Needless to say, few men discharge themselves. The certainty of the loss of a minimum income of five dollars a day, by spending it unwisely, is a strong incentive to the constructive use of money.

Environment plays an important part in the Ford idea of education. The environment of a man must be right if you expect him to come clean and

strong out of it. Thru our investigators, we frequently take a look into the homes of our employees. If conditions are not right in the home, we set ourselves the very first thing to the task of making them right. If families are separated, we endeavor to bring them together. If husband and wife are living apart, we leave nothing undone in our effort to reunite them.

When the efficiency of a good workman begins to decline, we have come, as the result of past experiences, to look into the home for some kind of domestic trouble. In the majority of instances we find our suspicions confirmed. Family quarrels have an almost immediate effect on the output of lathes and drill presses.

Much has been said about the home as the foundation of state and church. We have made the discovery at the Ford that the family is also the basis of right economic and industrial conditions. The welfare of the factory, no less than the welfare of the state and church, depends upon the home. We therefore keep a close watch on the home. We encourage better housing. We take families up bodily, if need be, and move them into better neighborhoods. We insist that a man shall provide generously in proportion to his means for his wife and children. Should he fail to do this, we may turn his profits over to his wife, until he learns to do the square thing. We impress upon a man's mind the fact that the one condition on which we will share profits with him is that he in turn will share them with his family.

Mr. Ford's idea is that a home in which there are roomers or boarders can never be a real home. We therefore insist that the wife of a profit-sharer be free to give her entire time to the home. Roomers and boarders must go or profits are withheld. Wives seldom object to this ruling.

So firmly convinced are we that the home is the first essential to right living that more than once we have gone out and rented a house, sent to distant cities for the workman's family, and put them together in the new home. The results are worth many times the investment.

I regard the discovery by the Ford school of the economic value of the family as one of the most important contributions made in modern times toward the problem of bringing the home back to its proper place in modern society. It is a fact, once it is appreciated, which will throw the energy of our great industrial organizations into the reconstruction of the home.

In addition to the course in domestic relations, we have a course on civic relations. We have a great many foreigners. A great many letters come to us criticizing us for employing so many. To these we reply, reminding the writer that his great-grandfather—possibly his grandfather or father—was a foreigner, and that had the people already on American soil treated his illustrious ancestor as he wants us to treat the foreigner today, he would be wallowing in the slums of some European city instead

of enjoying his present privileges. We are taking no little pains to make these foreigners citizens in the best sense of the word. We are trying to teach them a higher kind of patriotism than some of our "hope to die" American critics display in their condemnation of our employment of the "hated foreigner." In short, we are trying to lead these men to love their adopted country without acquiring a hatred of the one from which they came. It is curious how many people mistake the hatred of other lands for the love of their own. These are those patriotic people who tell you how the sight of the stars and stripes in a foreign port brought tears to their eyes, and in the next breath tell you how cleverly they beat their beloved country out of its revenue when they passed thru the customs on their return from abroad.

The Ford English school, of which mention has already been made, was established especially for foreigners in our employ. In that school we have at the present 136 instructors and 2,200 students. We teach them to speak, read, and write English and give them instructions in other fundamental branches of knowledge. We use the dramatic system of instruction. The men come to classes before and after work for a short time two days in each week. The lessons last an hour and a half. The course is given in 68 lessons covering a period of 34 weeks. The men who come up to the required standard are graduated. On next Sunday we graduate a class of 512 and have our exercises in the Light Guard Armory. Each graduate receives a diploma. Our teaching force is a voluntary one, and in order to increase the efficiency of these men, some of whom have never been beyond the sixth grade in school, we have organized a Teachers' Club which has much of the spirit of a college organization. Matters of general educational interest are discussed, college songs are sung, and a fraternal spirit is created. The object of this English school is not only to make the men more efficient in our work in the shop, but also to prepare them for citizenship. The first thing we teach them to say is, "I am a good American," and then we try to get them to live up to the statement. We found in the beginning a prejudice on the part of one nationality in the factory against another. A candidate for the vice-presidency of one of our graduating classes was repeatedly turned down, and when the men were asked why they did not vote for him they stated that it was on account of his nationality. It was explained to them that neither he nor they were foreigners, but that they were all Americans and should vote for the man purely on the basis of merit. After this explanation was made the man was unanimously elected.

We encourage these men to buy homes, knowing that the ownership of property will lead to interest in civic matters. We encourage them to take out naturalization papers, rendering them every possible assistance we can in this matter. And in promoting men we do not overlook the efforts of those who have co-operated with us along these lines. We feel,

and we try to make them feel, that there is something wrong with the man who accepts the privileges of this country and refuses to assume in return his full share of the duties of citizenship.

The right relationship between employer and employee follows naturally in the wake of the things we try to do for our men. The spirit of the Ford school is not that of paternalism but of fraternalism. "Help the Other Fellow" is the motto of the institution. We try to be fair with our men, and their appreciation is shown in the hearty good-will with which they do their work.

One hears a great deal of Ford efficiency. The secret of Ford efficiency is the good-will of his employees. The men are happy, made happy by the wage and profit-sharing that put anxiety out of life. In return for what they receive the men work not only with a will, but with a "good-will," and no efficiency methods ever devised can take the place of the "good-will" of employees toward employer. Will plus scientific efficiency methods will do great things, but "good-will" plus ordinary intelligence will do a lot more. And when you get the two together—good-will and efficiency—competition ceases. This is why Henry Ford is getting out of raw, unskilled, and what some ignorant people call "ignorant foreign labor" greater results than any other employer in modern times.

The consciousness of having made his workmen happy was the pay he expected for doing it. The increased efficiency of his men as a result of their good-will came as a by-product and exceeded all expectations.

Our special course for the man who is struggling to regain his place in the world would require an article of great length were I to go into detail. Suffice it to say that of those given the chance, the great majority do make good. Mr. Ford's idea is that the cure for crime is work, not in stripes and behind stone walls, but in the open where men are made strong by the confidence and encouragement of their fellow-men. Experience is demonstrating the truth of his theory.

There is a very definite end in view in the Ford idea of education. We have in mind a man who is right in his relations toward his employer, his family, and toward the community in which he lives. This is the kind of man we have in view. This is the human product we seek to turn out, and as we adapt the machinery in the shop to turning out of the kind of automobile we have in mind, so we have constructed our educational system with a view to producing the human product we have in mind.

Knowing the kind of man we want, we proceed first of all in accordance with Mr. Ford's idea to make it possible for a man to have his share of human happiness; for no man can be right in his relations to his employer and to society so long as they deny him the happiness, or the means thereto which it is his right to have.

Henry Ford's greatest desire in life is to make others happy. Incidentally he has proved to the world that the business of making others

happy pays commercially. But the fact that it pays is not his first consideration. A great deal of his money comes as a sort of by-product of the business of helping the other fellow. It seems that every time he discovers a way of making more people happy, more money pours in. But so long as the money is used, as it always is, to give more people employment at a wage that provides for some of the luxuries of life, as well as for its necessities, nobody cares.

Henry Ford is one of the few men controlling great wealth whom the masses of men want to see control still more.

*DEBATE: THE BEST ORGANIZATION FOR AMERICAN SCHOOLS
IS A PLAN WHICH SHALL DIVIDE THESE SCHOOLS INTO
SIX YEARS OF ELEMENTARY TRAINING AND SIX YEARS
OF SECONDARY TRAINING*

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How long are the elementary schools and the high schools to stand apart? How long are pupils in the seventh and eighth grades to be deprived of their right to a richer course of study because of the artificial line which has heretofore cut them off from geometry and biology, from the languages and literature of other nations, and the skilled arts which train the eye and hand? How long are we to accept with complacency the wasteful and discouraging reviews which characterize the eighth grade and compel children to mark time on the threshold of the great change into the first year of high school? How long are we to tolerate a curriculum in the first year of the high school which seems so strange to the ordinary child that he is alienated from the pursuit of higher knowledge?

These are the questions which we are to discuss today. The answer is brief and clear. So long as you listen to the dark counsels of those who say to you that children in the upper years of the elementary school cannot do more than they are now doing, you will hold them back. So long as you let those who scoff at their fellow-teachers make you think that high schools are for the few and elementary schools have the secret formulas of democracy, you will be content to shut your eyes to the fact that the American high school is one of the most typical expressions of our western-world democracy. So long as you are willing to jog along with the clumsy school organization that originated in the middle of the last century, you will waste the time of children by your ox-cart methods.

If, on the contrary, you will open your eyes and realize that our high schools today register 30 per cent of all the children of high-school age, you will begin to see that the time has come to adopt a modern form of organization which will facilitate the continuation of every child's education.

If you realize that the three R's have expanded in the modern world into science and civics, into art and knowledge of human life, you will be inspired with enthusiasm for the introduction of some of these better things into the earlier years of a child's life. Elementary schools should not be the homes of drudgery and the abode of the downtrodden. Elementary schools have a right to a part of the new light of a new age.

If we liberalize the elementary school, we shall also, in like spirit, liberalize the first year of the high school. When one thinks of the wall of Latin, algebra, and ancient history, over which most of us climbed half a generation ago, he is certainly glad of an opportunity in mature life to knock a few stories from the foundation of that moss-grown barrier.

The answer, I say, is brief and clear. We cannot longer allow anyone to befool us into satisfaction with the present breach between the elementary schools and the high schools.

Lest there should be a few conservatives among us, let us begin by asking them what is sacred about the eight years of the present elementary school. Were these eight years determined upon after careful consideration? Not at all. The elementary school was, at the outset, an undefined and, in many respects, unlimited institution. One can remember, if his experience goes back to a district school, how the older boys and girls of the community came in during the winter term and took a little work when they were otherwise unoccupied on the farm or in the home. Pupils in such schools were frequently much older than our present eighth-grade pupils. The reason why they came to the common school was that no high school was near at hand to offer them extended opportunity. These older pupils were the forerunners of those who today are demanding a larger and a richer education than that which has heretofore characterized the grades.

Indeed, in New England, where economic conditions were favorable, the experiment of a nine-year elementary school was tried. Even today over the whole state of Maine, except in the large cities, the nine-year school is the standard school and expresses the ambition of the people for more education than can be included in the limits of a course based on the three R's.

On the other hand, there are seven-year elementary schools in the United States which go to show that there is nothing sacred about the eight-year school. In many of our southern states the seven-year school flourishes and is retained by men and women of this organization who are thoroly acquainted with the eight-year school.

The famous experiment in Kansas City shows that a seven-year school is a perfectly rational and altogether economical school. So much misinformation has been circulated about the Kansas City schools that I took pains to secure from Superintendent Cammack information on the matter. The average time required by the pupils who last year completed the seventh grade in Kansas City was 7.65 years. We know that the

average time required by children in eight-year schools to complete the eighth grade is 8.5 years, so that it is seen that the Kansas City schools get their children thru the elementary course a year earlier than other schools. Superintendent Cammack's figures show, also, that more of the children get thru the Kansas City schools than in eight-year systems.

All these details show that the eight-year school is not a fixed law of nature. Where, then, did it come from? Some time in the middle of the last century when the high schools were very little developed, when the common school gave the common child all the training he was to get, the example of Europe was accepted and our eight-year school crystallized into form.

The European eight-year school is the product of an entirely different national attitude toward education. In Europe, the boy or girl who goes to an eight-year school goes no farther. The eight-year school is a complete unit. The eight-year school of Europe is the device of aristocracy to give only a limited education to the common people.

The school of Europe which is intended for children who are going on is not an eight-year school. No child of the governing class goes to the eight-year school in Europe.

This is the thing we borrowed from Europe—an eight-year school for the poorer classes, an eight-year school which aims at a meager education, an eight-year school sharply marked off from the higher schools.

It is interesting to note in this connection that the age of fourteen which was selected as the upper limit of compulsory education was not determined by a careful investigation of the intellectual life of children or the subject-matter of instruction; it was originally established in Europe and in the traditions of our civilization because it is the period of confirmation in the church. In Europe religious education has always been a part of the work of the school, and when the child is ready for confirmation his education automatically stops.

The student of education sees in the later developments of American schools a brilliant illustration of the biblical parable. This old European bottle, full of the New World ferment, is covered with the patches put on by conscientious but misguided hands, and yet hope grows less and less that our new ambitions can be held together in this antique vessel.

The elementary school breaks up when nature asserts itself. In the best schools of this country the upper grades are departmentalized. This means that the methods of teaching children cannot be the same in the lower grades and the upper grades. The division of the eight-year school into upper classes conducted by one method and lower classes conducted by other methods is a natural and wholesome readjustment.

Further evidence that the eight-year school is no unit appears in the fact that the present-day course of study is different from that offered in the old-fashioned unit school. One cannot keep an eighth grade alive on

ditch-digging problems and definitions of parts of speech. There are new courses in civics, new courses in local industries, and new courses in science. There is even a tendency to read some of the classics in English literature which used to be labeled as the exclusive property of the high school. The duplicating of high-school work has gone so far in the upper grades of the elementary school that harsh words are sometimes passed down by high-school teachers who find that Julius Caesar and other strictly high-school characters have been kidnaped.

What does all this duplicating mean? It means that you can surround the common people of the United States by an eight-year school, but they will break out as soon as they can. In America there is today in reality no eight-year school. The shell is broken, save only in those unfortunate localities where some arch-conservative is holding it together by devices which repudiate nature.

If we turn from worn-out European tradition to scientific studies of human nature or even to observation such as a sensible teacher can make, we find that it is the twelve-year-old child who is putting away childish things in the first flush of adolescence. The twelve-year-old child begins to look into the larger world. He begins to think of his duties to society and himself. When he is fourteen or fifteen, he will be half thru the critical period of adolescence. If you want to influence an adolescent in a large way, you must begin at twelve, not fourteen.

Another product of the science of human nature is the principle of individual differences. The fallacy of believing that all pupils are exactly alike was the fallacy of a generation ago. The study of human nature and the needs of society have forced upon us a new conviction. We now realize that an individual to be a productive member of a democratic society must play some part other than that which is played by his fellows. In our schools we must provide preparation for the diversified duties of democratic society by giving full recognition to individual capacities and individual training. Children in the lower grades exhibit personal characteristics which deserve attention, but in those early days when the most fundamental types of learning are being worked out, the common traits of human nature are in preponderance. By the time the child has reached the fifth and sixth grades, his personality begins to express itself emphatically in new ways. Having cultivated acquaintance with the fundamentals of knowledge, he now begins to make applications of knowledge to his own individual life, and the period of adolescence finds him ready to assume personal responsibilities and make personal decisions with regard to intellectual and moral matters. Whether we like it or not, the child in the seventh grade is growing into an individual. Whether we like it or not, his tastes and outlook will begin to mark themselves off sharply from the tastes and outlooks of other members of the class. That school alone is

intelligent in its management of seventh-grade children which recognizes the fundamental principle of individual differences.

There are those among us who contend that children of this age must be driven into the same mold, that they must be made to fit some abstract notion, developed in the mind of the pedagog. Some of these conservatives may have their way for a time, but the years will prove that their conservatism is falsely conceived. That education is most appropriate to a democracy which is most broadly planned and executed.

Up to this point we have shown that reorganization is going on in our school system thru the changes which are naturally developing in the elementary school. If we turn abruptly to the high school, we shall find here a tendency toward reorganization which is even more pronounced. The high school has been in some degree from the earliest period an institution organized to give to all its students a broad outlook upon life. Some high schools have degenerated into appendages of colleges and have been satisfied to offer merely a narrow preparatory course. But the typical, the vigorous example of the American high school has been characterized by the broad purpose of introducing the student to life. The great fields of human knowledge are to be canvassed by the student in series of courses which carry him thru history, literature, science, and mathematics. In our modern high school there is added to this list of academic subjects an intensive study of the vernacular and a whole series of practical and industrial arts which are to widen the student's horizon. The result of this ambitious program is that the curriculum of the high school has come to be so crowded that it is quite impossible to meet the demands in the short four years allotted to this school. The Committee of Ten, when it made its report in 1894, saw very clearly that the secondary school cannot do the work which it must undertake and confine its program to four years. The pronouncement^{*} of that committee in this matter is perfectly definite and is as follows:

In preparing these programs, the committee were perfectly aware that it is impossible to make a satisfactory secondary-school program, limited to a period of four years, and founded on the present elementary-school subjects and methods. In the opinion of the committee, several subjects now reserved for high schools—such as algebra, geometry, natural science, and foreign languages—should be begun earlier than now, and therefore within the schools classified as elementary; or, as an alternative, the secondary-school period should be made to begin two years earlier than at present, leaving six years instead of eight for the elementary-school period. Under the present organization, elementary subjects and elementary methods are, in the judgment of the committee, kept in use too long.

The secondary school is thus on record as having discovered the problem of reorganization before the lower school became clearly aware of it.

^{*} *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies*, p. 45. Published for the National Education Association by the American Book Company. 1894.

Even today we have a situation which can be described in somewhat the same terms. The secondary-school people are taking up the innovations of the intermediate school or the junior high school with enthusiasm. Elementary-school officers, on the other hand, are somewhat more conservative. The elementary-school principal hesitates to lose his upper classes; the elementary-school principal is afraid that he is to be deprived of his most experienced and efficient teachers. While the high-school people are driven by sheer necessity to accept a change, the elementary-school people are not convinced because they feel that it may be possible by makeshift devices to evade for a time the real issue.

That the high school is compelled to expand may perhaps be made more impressive by calling attention to the fact that it has already expanded at the upper end into the Freshman and Sophomore years of college. There is not an American college which does not complete the secondary course of its students. In many institutions this is done by an evasion which can hardly be described as subtle. In these cases the college prints a long list of requirements, accepts students who do not fulfil these requirements, and then compels these students to make up conditions after entering. A "condition" is a confession that the college cannot demand from students its own prescribed secondary course.

Other colleges deal with the problem more directly and say to the student, take elementary German or French, elementary history and science, in the early years of your college course and thus complete the broad survey of human knowledge which the high school could not complete. Until you finish this introductory work we cannot let you specialize or enter the professional schools.

The evil of this situation lies, not in the fact that the colleges are in reality secondary schools in their Freshman and Sophomore years—the evil lies in the fact that many colleges are making a frantic effort to force the high school to do more work. Students take not four but five and even six units in a year in the effort to cover human experience in four years. The high school needs relief, and the broadest educational statesmanship will be exhibited in providing this relief.

It would be easy to pile up arguments for the reorganization of the high school. What does it mean that some of our better schools are organizing two-year courses? What does it mean that the elective system has come to the rescue of the first year? What is supervised study? Every reform in the high schools is an eloquent pronouncement in favor of an extension and a modification of the present school organization.

Why one should have to present all these facts in the form of arguments is hard to understand. Let one look out over our schools and he will see the change coming. This is not a prophecy; it is a fact. More than 10 per cent of the approved high-school systems in the north-central territory are at work today on the problem of organizing intermediate schools. We

ought to have every ounce of our energy to devote to the discussion of the best way of carrying out the program. It is truly irritating that one must pause to say, "Come with us; it is so, it is so," when he should be in council discussing the next step forward.

Perhaps there are some who do not understand why this movement is so swift in our day. Perhaps those who hold back are merely dazed by the rapidity of the change. There is an explanation for all this, and perhaps we shall do well to give that explanation in all detail.

When the Committee of Ten made its report, it had a theoretical insight into the situation, but its contentions operated only very feebly in bringing about real changes. This teaches that change in organization does not grow out of theory, and we have new confidence in the vitality of the real changes of today. In the same way, the forces that have been operating to change the elementary school have been at work slowly until, finally, within the last few years, there seems to be a consummation of this movement with a rapidity that is literally astonishing. When the historian of education writes an account of the last five years, he will point out the fact that during these years the great fundamental need of social economy bore down upon our people with unmistakable emphasis. It made very little difference in the early days of our American civilization that a student lost one or two years thru our clumsy school organization, but today we are not at liberty to waste the time of students in any sense of the word. We must give to students and we must give to communities the best forms of organization possible. There have been inco-ordinations in the earlier years, as every serious writer on education has realized and pointed out. Today the public is calling upon us, in an age of efficiency and scientific insight, to cure these inco-ordinations. We are forced to act and act promptly. What was theoretical discontent has become a real demand for improvement.

Curiously enough, this demand for economy is misunderstood by some of our conscientious colleagues. They think of intellectual parsimony when we speak of economy. They think we are going to hold back something from children. They cry out for the old-fashioned waste as the sure mark of generosity. Let us exercise what charity we can with them. Let us tell them that economy means better organization, less friction, more rapid progress, less loss. Everywhere the forces of society are set in the direction of improving the opportunities of every child. These opportunities must be so complete and so well organized that there shall be no question at all about the investment of equipment and teaching which society is making in the schools and the investment which the child is making in time and energy. We must see to it that there is no wasteful duplication. We must fit the courses to the needs of the individual child. We must fit these courses to the needs of his growing mental life. We must change the methods of our administration at a time when it is appropriate to the child's

change in mental attitude. Anyone who stands in the way of this movement is an enemy of society and an enemy of the individual child. Economy does not mean something that is narrow and limiting; it means, rather, a better organization.

Sometimes it has been said by those who oppose the intermediate school that the break between the sixth grade and the seventh grade will be widened by this new form of organization. They are saying, also, that the break between the ninth grade and the tenth grade is a menace to the fuller development of the child's education. The answer to these criticisms lies in the fact that the whole motive of this organization is to create a continuity where heretofore there has been a disjointed and wastefully duplicating system. The seventh grade is to recognize the individual child's needs and is to give him such a course as is suited to his adolescent experience. In doing this, it will effect a change in methods of operation just at the point where the child himself is undergoing a change. The child will reach out and meet the change in school organization which is provided for him. To delay this change until two years after the child is prepared for it, as we do in an eight-year school, jeopardizes the whole relation of the school and the pupil. To make the change at the time in the child's life when he is ready for it and when the change will be congenial to his needs and intellectual demands is to economize his life and energy in the largest sense of the word. We avoid a break by moving parallel to the child's own motion, not by crossing him obliquely in the path of development. In exactly the same way, if we change the first year of the high school so as to make it fit the child's needs, we shall effect economy by removing those obstacles to the natural progress of the pupil which now exist in the first year of the high school.

The effect on teachers and school officers will be equally wholesome with the effect on students. It is quite impossible to work out these changes which are contemplated in the organization of an intermediate school without showing the irrationality of all the harsh feelings and criticisms that heretofore have existed between the elementary school and the high school. We shall make for unity by cultivating in the school organization itself a new spirit of adaptation of the courses to the students. If the whole corps of teachers could be trained by this new form of organization to see that the one dominating principle of school organization which is acceptable in modern society is the principle of continuity and adaptation to the child's needs, we shall have eradicated those criticisms and personal animosities which have in the past so often expressed themselves in the petty criticisms passed back and forth between shallow-minded partisans of distinct and antagonistic schools.

In these few paragraphs, I have tried to outline the changes which are transforming the eight-year school into a richer school, better adapted to

the children, and better related to the other members of the school system. I have tried to show that the high school, too, is changing.

The consummation of these changes is seen in a new amalgamation of those grades which have until now been universally held apart. The seventh, eighth, and ninth grades belong together. No artificial line can permanently divide them. As we become more intelligent in our scientific insights, as our social life expresses itself more freely, we become vividly aware that the sixth grade is the natural point of differentiation and that the problems of secondary education unfold themselves from the child's twelfth to eighteenth year.

The new order of school is not an imitation of an outworn model; there is here all the vigor and appropriateness of a new social life finding its large and natural expression. There is a cure in this new organization for the littleness and provincialism of those earlier days of separation.

Surely the burden of proof lies heavily on the shoulders of anyone who would oppose this movement. He must show that the old order is efficient, economical, and full of harmony. He must make us believe that the upper years of the elementary school are like the lower years. He must persuade us that the high school can give an adequate view of life in four years.

He must not only persuade us, but he must also persuade the children in the schools and the parents in the homes. The strength of this new organization is in the fact that it meets a felt need. Where it is put into operation it holds children in the schools, equipping them for life in accordance with the laws of their natures. This movement is a great substantial social fact and he who opposes it must answer to society.

II. CARROLL G. PEARSE, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
MILWAUKEE, WIS., NEGATIVE

In beginning this discussion, the negative makes no denial of the fact that the elementary schools of the country, as well as the secondary schools and the colleges, need readjustment and a much better adaptation to the needs of both the pupils and the community; none of these three grand divisions of the American educational system has kept pace with the changes in the industrial and social life of the nation, nor is any of them, in general, meeting satisfactorily the demands of the time. But to the plan proposed by the affirmative as a remedy for existing difficulties, the negative offers a most positive dissent.

Our present educational system is a growth; it was not prescribed for us by others. It has grown up as the joint result of our national conditions and our compelling desire that all the people be educated. It is, therefore, reasonable that it, and the causes that have produced it, receive consideration before it is gaily thrown aside for the plan here proposed, or for any other plan.

Our ancestors in the colonies that have given us our ideals in education clearly held two beliefs: first, that all children should be taught to read and write and cipher so that they could read the Bible and the laws, communicate with others or make a record, and compute, as required by their daily business; secondly, that leaders were needed, ministers, lawyers and judges, doctors, to tell the people what to think and what to do. To educate leaders, colleges were needed. These two notions gave us the elementary school and the college.

Boys who wished to enter the colleges must be trained in that knowledge which was required by those institutions. Not all boys could be fitted for college by the father, or the minister, or some learned friend of the family. Academies and "grammar schools" were set up for this purpose. Two generations after the Revolution, Horace Mann preached his crusade, with its principle that every child should have the chance for an education, which, to him, meant a college training. To make broad the highway from primary school to university, the academy and the "grammar school" were turned into the public high school.

General intelligence increased; other subjects joined the "three R's" in the common-school curriculum. We wanted our children to learn certain things. But more especially we wanted them to remain in school until about the age of fourteen, at least, before taking up the burdens of life, or before deciding on the particular direction their future studies should take. The curriculum was arranged, from time to time, so as to occupy generally the time indicated. In Maine and in other New England states, where youth matures later, some nine-year elementary schools were established; thruout the South, owing to climatic conditions, maturity comes earlier, and many seven-year schools were instituted. But in general the eight-year elementary school became the accepted pattern for the country.

There were always failures in the old-style schools. But the boys and girls who were poor at their books often did best at their work; they dropped out and went to work, and little was said. But when people flocked to the towns, schools became large, and were of necessity more closely graded. Here the large number of failures in the grammar grades attracted attention; school funds are wasted when it takes two years to teach a boy what he should learn in one; also, many children who fail leave school unprepared for successful work in life.

But the high schools and colleges are having trouble as well as the elementary schools. Too few children get into the high school; too many fail after getting there; too many who fail, and too many others, drop out.

Young men graduate from college too late by two or three years. When they enter the professions, they too often, because of the preparation now required, come into the practice two, three, even four years later than

they ought. A committee of the National Education Association on Economy of Time in Education stated a few years ago:

Since the early New England college, we have added four years to preparation and three years to specializing for the professions. Instead of converting the college into the university, we have piled the German university on top of our imitation of the English type [of college] without adjustment of the system, and the situation is full of difficulties and absurdities.

For this generally unsatisfactory condition we have been seeking remedies. Some public schools have put their grammar-grade failures into "industrial classes," giving them mostly hand work, in the effort to interest them and hold them in school; other schools have had similar classes called "prevocational classes," which have sometimes tried also to train these children, made failures by the faulty conditions in regular classes, into usefulness as shop or factory hands. Now comes this proposal to cut off the seventh and eighth grades—separate the twelve- and thirteen-year-old children—from the elementary school and put them into the high school, thus organizing a six-year elementary school and a six-year high school. When we remember the difficulties which fourteen-year-old children now have in too many high schools, it seems a queer remedy.

Two types of the six-year high school are proposed; sometimes one type is urged, sometimes the other. The one type is to provide separate courses, and probably, where possible, separate schools, for different groups of children. These are to be required to choose, at the end of the sixth grade, whether they will follow industrial careers, or go into commerce, or have a liberal education and probably go into a profession. If the children do not know what to select, someone is to choose for them and put them into the compartment selected. The other type is to be a sort of glorified grammar school, somewhat different from our present schools in equipment and curriculum, but differing chiefly in having the seventh and eighth grades separated from the lower grades.

The first type of six-year high school, where children are separated into classes according to their "probable future employment," is no doubt suggested by those familiar with the secondary schools of England and Germany. In both these countries, only those who are to go into the professions or those who are to have a liberal education enter the secondary schools, which are largely separate institutions, and do not have any close or direct connection with the elementary schools. These secondary schools are for "the classes"—the children of families of wealth and social position, and for a limited number of other children who show promise of special mental ability; these are taken out of the elementary schools at twelve years of age or earlier, while most of the children—the common children—are left in the elementary schools to be trained as workers.

The headmasters in the English secondary schools, which are in reality college-fitting schools, clamor to have their students sent to them at the

age of twelve or earlier; in the German schools, children who are to have the "higher education" go into the secondary school before the age of twelve, often at the end of the fourth or even of the third school year. America does not wish a public-school system the organization of which is drawn from such educational practices, or from countries with such social and educational ideals.

It is fair to ask who among us is now advocating this plan. I regret to say that our highest educational official has taken this, as I believe, erroneous view of the remedy for existing conditions. The honored and influential ex-president of a great eastern university is quoted as having said at an important educational gathering a few years ago that each child should choose, or someone should choose for him, at the age of twelve, his future career, and his future education should be shaped to that end. A Committee of the National Education Association on Economy of Time in Education in its report a few years ago favored the plan. In connection with this report it may be noted, however, that on this committee of five there were three college men and one high-school man; only one public-school man was among the number, and he was not the most aggressive member of the group.

Many college men, including my distinguished opponent, would be pleased with this plan, and there are reasons why college men should favor it. The young men now too frequently come from the professional schools three or four years too late; too often they graduate from the colleges two or three years too late. Some kind of an adjustment will, within a few years, be forced. If the plan we are discussing could be adopted, the organization of the professional school could be saved; the college could retain its present organization and prestige as a four-year institution. The college could then also get from the high school that more thoro and extended training in the college-preparatory studies which the college is now asking for but which the high school does not find itself able to give. That the two years thus gained for the benefit of the colleges would be taken from the elementary schools is no doubt of little importance to the college men. Only a small minority of children get thru the high school, and fewer yet get to college, and the college is interested only in this selected minority. By this plan too the proper aspiration of the high school to expand and become a more important institution could be gratified. It may be that if, by taking the two years from the elementary schools, this importance could be given to the high schools, they might relinquish the desire to expand by the plan of taking into the high school the "junior college," the first two college years. Only the common schools of the common people would suffer. Shorn of these two years, they would be greatly reduced in importance, in prestige, and in their power to influence American life and institutions.

Many employers would be glad to see this six-and-six arrangement. The differentiated courses for the industrially destined pupils would give

a means of training hand workers in the years from twelve to fourteen that nothing we now have can equal. One such employer is quoted as saying that he would like to have the public schools send him a boy who could "read a blueprint, run a drill press, and be satisfied with his job." A boy caught at the age of twelve and trained for his "probable future employment" as a hand worker might perhaps fill even this last specification and "be satisfied with his job" as attendant to a drill press for life.

It is to be regretted also that some public-school men, who can hardly have realized what such a six-and-six plan would quite certainly do to the common schools sooner or later, are echoing the cry for the plan, the chief benefit of which is to be reaped by the colleges. Perhaps this is only natural; many public-school men are loyal graduates of the colleges which are pushing this plan; they have been accustomed to look to the colleges for leadership; the colleges have recognized and regular means of giving publicity to their views. Public-school men seldom have mediums of publicity; they perhaps too often take the word of some one who offers to give it.

The advocates of the plan tell us—that is, some of them in arguing the question do—that the great change in our young people comes at twelve, not at fourteen; that the age of twelve marks the time in a child's life when he puts away childish things and becomes a man. This, from "scientific men," sounds queer. Common people know without asking "educators" that these great physical and spiritual changes come at about the age of fourteen in our latitude and climate. In the tropical south, the time of change arrives earlier; far to the north, it may be delayed; but, for the great majority of our young people, it comes at about fourteen. I quote only one authority, G. Stanley Hall, who will no doubt be accepted as such. He says in his great work on adolescence:

These years are the best decade of life, and that it [the book] may directly and indirectly help the young to exploit aright all the possibilities of the years from fourteen to twenty-four, and safeguard them against insidious dangers, is the writer's desire.

It is childish to say that our elementary school has been made to end with the pupil's fourteenth year because the church confirms its children at fourteen. We have fixed the end of our elementary school to coincide with the fourteenth year for the same reason that the church confirms young people into its membership at that age; because, at about the age of fourteen, profound spiritual as well as physical changes fit the youth for this experience and participation. The church of Europe has learned thru a thousand years the wisdom of this course; and this is based upon an even older experience and practice running back into the mists of pagan antiquity. If we should accept the age of twelve as a "change" period requiring a new and separated school organization, we must remember that there is another "change" period at about the ninth year; we must make another sub-organization and establish still another school in a separate watertight compartment for children of that age.

Children at twelve years of age are seldom fit to make choice of a life career; parents and teachers are seldom fit to make this choice for them at that time. You know that this is true of your own twelve-year-old children. Why should you presume to require the children of others—the “common people”—to choose at that time? The changes of even preadolescence often put a very different face on matters in two years, and choices made at the age of twelve will often be and often ought to be remade at fourteen or later. The two years in question are, however, invaluable for vocational guidance—as a time for reflection and for obtaining information before children are forced to the iron gates of decision. Traditional standards and considerations, parental influence and the influence of surroundings, up to the age of thirteen are strong; after that young people begin to exercise greater independence in choosing occupations.

But there is still a weightier reason than any of the foregoing why this type of the six-year high school ought not to be permitted to get a foothold among us. The deeper reasons for a public-school system are social and political. Every man pays school taxes to help to train every child of the state as an intelligent citizen. More important even than the knowledge which is so important to intelligent citizenship is the sentiment of real democratic equality, and a knowledge and understanding of each other and an interest in each other on the part of all our people—not merely the liberally educated, not merely the workers in industry or in commerce, but all the people. There is enough scramble and selfishness and conflict of interest after the youth leaves school for the work of life; there is enough tendency to social separation and exclusiveness if we do the best we can. But to push downward by two years the time when our children in the people's schools are separated into groups, largely if not wholly according to their “future probable employment,” would be little short of a crime on the part of those responsible for it, and nothing short of a calamity to us in our national life. The separated high schools, where commercial and industrial and “liberal” high-school courses of study are followed by separate groups of pupils under separate roofs, are bad enough; but to introduce this division at the end of the sixth grade would be as inexcusable as it is unnecessary.

That form of the six-and-six plan which proposes a common course of study for all children but proposes to cut the seventh and eighth grades away from the grades below, while less dangerous and fraught with less grave dangers to our institutions in the near future, brings with it certain serious dangers nevertheless, and is wholly unnecessary; all the improvements and reconstructions which are required can not only be made without resorting to it, but they can be more advantageously made with an eight-year elementary school than under the six-and-six plan.

The end of the elementary school is a natural stopping-place. If the common school ends with the sixth grade, a far greater number of pupils,

especially those who are over age, will wish, or will be urged by shortsighted or greedy parents, to leave school, than will be the case if the elementary school stops only at the end of the eighth grade. This does not need argument; every practical school man knows it.

If the six-year elementary and six-year high school is to be accepted as our type, a general reorganization of our schools everywhere must take place. This will require in many, probably in most places, the erection of special buildings for the new type of school, with new and expensive equipment and furnishings. It will require the appointment of teachers of the high-school type and with the high-school standard of salaries. A good many public-school administrators, as well as a good many experienced parents, will wonder how much better off boys and girls in their thirteenth and fourteenth years will be if placed in charge of the type of teachers often found in charge of high-school classes in the earlier years; they will be sure to raise the question at once as to how much better and more wisely the entering high-school students will now be handled by the high-school teachers under high-school conditions than the same pupils have been handled by grammar-school teachers and principals in the later years of the grammar schools. But, waiving this point for the present (tho the superiority of high-school teachers and high-school methods should be clearly shown before the proposed plan can be seriously considered), can anyone doubt that the plan proposed would greatly increase the cost of carrying on the schools? The cost of high-school buildings is very much greater than that of entirely satisfactory grammar schools; the cost of instruction for high-school students thruout the country approaches, if it does not reach, a figure twice as great as that for pupils in elementary schools.

The difficulties of the plan would be largely increased by the fact that only the larger towns could or would organize in accordance with it. The expense of separate establishments, or for greatly increased high-school facilities and equipment, would be out of the question for the small communities with limited financial resources. This would result in a dual school organization, with most of the larger towns administering their schools on one basis and the smaller communities on another. This would cause endless trouble and loss to pupils transferred from large to small or from small to large school systems. Public-school men know how constantly this circulation from one town and school system to another is going on, and they, at least, can realize how serious a problem this constant readjustment of pupils entering from other school systems would be.

But to one who studies the six-and-six problem from the standpoint of the needs of the community and the needs of the pupils, the plan is seen to be wholly unnecessary. The present common organization of school units has within it the possibility of all the reforms which are necessary. By the plan which the negative side favors, the necessary modifications

to give vitality and motive and interest to the work of young people up to the age of fourteen, and to enable the schools to meet more effectively the needs of their communities, are entirely possible within the present form of organization.

The work of the grammar grades in the average school neither appeals to the interest of most of the pupils nor serves their needs or the need of the community. The studies are for the most part suitable, so far as they go. Each subject in the curriculum has been included in response to a felt want; it is not likely that any of them will be dropped out. The things taught have a purpose, either practical, for business or citizenship, or cultural in a desirable way. But something is lacking in the way the subjects are treated, and something much more important is lacking, namely, the things that are not taught in the schools.

The schools are still teaching the things that sufficed when much education was given, incidentally, it may be, but nevertheless given, at home and elsewhere out of school. The morning and evening and vacation-time duties which once filled the out-of-school time of children have become almost obsolete, so far as town children are concerned. For them the morning and evening chores and the vacation-time work about the farm are things of the past. Even the old-time sports and the recreations in which we and our fathers took delight and found education are no more. The schools must bring back the opportunities which have slipped away.

The school grounds must give the play space and the space for digging and planting which once could be had elsewhere. The short school day is now packed full, but it can be made longer, if the required variety is given to the school exercises. It was made short when children had work at home; make it long enough now so that they can do some hand work at school. A school day one hour longer, with another hour available if the child desires; a school year four or five or six weeks longer than at present—long enough to turn to useful training a considerable part of the long and useless vacation which is a bane to children and a plague to parents—will give opportunity for all the vitalizing and motivation that will be required, and that within the present form of school organization. The course of study, suitable enough when the home, the shop, the farm, and the playground were educational auxiliaries, can, with this added time, be reshaped so as to give this physical and motor training, so as to develop judgment and poise, and so as to have vital interest for all normal children. Increased opportunity for hand work, not for dull children only, but for all; outdoor work and play, work in the dirt and with growing plants and animals; unorganized play, and sports and games which require organization and direction; a more detailed and practical study of our history and government, especially the practical application of the will of the people to the affairs of local government, including a study of and instruction in the obligations of the citizen to his government and to his neighbor, his fellow-citizen; a study of

vocations and of the proper choice of a career; the study of household economies—the apportionment of income, the relative and particular responsibilities of the earning and the buying partner, the necessity for thrift, both in saving and in avoidance of waste; the responsibility of the head of the household to understand the care and upkeep of the “plant” in which he lives and to see that it is a comfortable home; household arts for all girls—cookery and sewing, homemaking, the art of simple home nursing, the care and feeding of little children; for both partners in the home, the duty of maintaining its essential standards, and an understanding of the importance and the rightful place of the home in the community; these topics suggest something of the mines that lie waiting to be worked, and the possibilities of enriching and motivating and rendering vital and fruitful the work of the grammar grades in the elementary school. Utilizing these and other things which lie waiting to be used, it is not necessary to cut off the seventh and eighth grades and separate them from the lower grades in order that the pupils may be interested or happy or profitably employed.

There does not seem to be any reason why, with an hour in the day allowed for optional studies as suggested, classes in algebra or in Latin or in German or in French cannot be formed wherever there is a call for them, for those pupils who wish, or whose parents wish them, to begin these subjects.

Such a plan would be of the greatest value also in that the improved facilities for the seventh and eighth grades would be available, in a considerable degree, for sixth-, and fifth-, and fourth-grade pupils, and even for the younger ones, where they were fitted to profit by the opportunities.

Such a plan would make the six-and-six arrangement, as a means of securing desirable provision for the seventh and eighth grades, as unnecessary as an automobile in Venice.

But strong as the educational and administrative reasons to be urged against this perhaps less dangerous type of the six-and-six plan are, the strongest argument is again political and social.

We have long viewed with apprehension the gradual disappearance of men from the elementary schools. In many cases now the more energetic and ambitious women are beginning to follow the men into the high schools, where the pay is better, and into the professions, and into business. Every superintendent of schools knows how difficult it is to keep those women who are strongest and most able, and especially to keep men of the type we wish our boys and girls to be associated with, in the service of the average elementary school. With the seventh and eighth grades cut away, nothing is more certain than that the most desirable men and the stronger women would be drawn, in increasing proportion, into the secondary schools and into business employments. The elementary schools would be left more and more in charge of the more mediocre and less aspiring women and of a few unambitious men.

The American common school has not always been high in economic efficiency; it has not always given back dollar for dollar the value that was put into it. But as a nursery of democracy, no instrument has ever equalled it. For four generations, it has been transforming the children of Old World immigrants into American citizens. It is more important to the perpetuity of American institutions than any other agency. Imperfect as it has been, it is indispensable.

With the plan proposed by my opponent, the American common school, in which all the children of all the people are to be educated, would sink from its high estate. It would become a school composed of little children taught by women. Beautiful and splendid as the service of American women has been to American schools, no one, they least of all, would wish to see such a result. The welfare of the nation demands that the common schools be not reduced below their present dignity and importance; that the needed reforms in the grammar grades be made without destroying the elementary schools as an influence in our national life.

We cannot afford to listen to a proposal which will delegate to the secondary schools and colleges the chief duty of shaping the social and political ideals and attitudes of the nation. We cannot stand idly by while the birthright of the American public school passes from it; we cannot consent to this plan which will make of the common school an ineffective and feeble thing as regards its function as a nursery of democratic sentiment and patriotic citizenship; we cannot consent to have the common schools, which have been the bulwark of American ideals, transformed into a system of infant schools.

GREETINGS

DAVID B. JOHNSON, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
ROCK HILL, S.C.

I congratulate the officers of this Department of Superintendence and I congratulate you upon this great meeting in this great and progressive city.

As we are having a record-breaking meeting here, so also we hope to have a record-breaking meeting of the general Association at New York City next July. In order that we may have that, however, we must have your loyal support and your presence there. May we not confidently count on both?

I hope that none will allow his allegiance to the parent Association to be weakened in any respect because of his commendable allegiance to this great department. The parent Association needs your presence and your help. I believe the great body of teachers of the rank and file will be benefited by your attendance upon the meetings of the general Association and I believe you yourselves will be benefited thereby. Let us have then a great get-together meeting next summer of the teachers of all classes in this

great country. Let us determine to put the National Education Association where it belongs—first among the educational associations of the world in numbers, in influence, and in helpful work undertaken and accomplished. It does seem that out of 600,000 teachers in this country, we ought to have more than 7,200 active members of the National Education Association. Would it not be a great service to the schools, to the teachers themselves, and to our country for us to work to increase the active membership of the National Education Association, an organization which stands for development of leadership in that army which is doing the most effective work of all forces of any kind in preparing for the defence of our country against its most deadly foes—ignorance, inefficiency, disloyalty, and low moral standards?

The meeting in New York next summer will be the first meeting of the Association ever held there, and we hope to make it memorable in many respects. I am glad to tell you that all of the educational, commercial, and civic forces of New York City and the educational forces of the state of New York are working together heartily and enthusiastically to help us make the meeting a great one. Columbia University and New York University have both postponed the opening of their great summer schools until after the meeting of the Association to avoid conflict with it.

A number of entertainments and interesting trips will be arranged for the visiting teacher, of which one will be a trip up the Hudson, probably to West Point. I cannot speak officially as to Coney Island or Chinatown, but, without these sights, the many other sights and experiences of New York City will prove a liberal education to anyone who has never been there and renewed inspiration to everyone who has.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL AND THE NEW AMERICAN SPIRIT

J. GEORGE BECHT, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION,
HARRISBURG, PA.

Little more than a month ago, there occurred in the city of Philadelphia an event which was widely noted in the public press as one of the most significant and important conferences assembled in this country in recent years. That conference sounded a national call to public and private agencies to enlist in the work of Americanizing America. Gathered together on that notable occasion were representative men and women from the various phases of social, professional, industrial, and civic life. Capital and labor, official and civilian, settlement worker, teacher, preacher, and social economist sat side by side in earnest conference on one of the most complicated problems that confronts the America of today.

The conference had its origin in a propaganda, inaugurated less than a year ago, to promote a nation-wide movement to bring American citizens,

foreign born and native born alike, to a realization of the common privileges, the common opportunities, and the common loyalties of all the inhabitants of America wherever born. Directly stated, its object is to devise ways and means to amalgamate the many diverse peoples inhabiting the United States into a national unity; to encourage the use of the English language thruout the nation; to promote the best standards of American living in every community; to teach the proper interpretations of American citizenship; and to encourage a recognition of foreign-born men and women in the human, social, and civic aspects as well as in the industrial aspects of our American life.

Thoughtful people everywhere recognize the fact that the problem of self-government is not solved. Far from being solved, it is just beginning to disclose itself in all its vast complexity. In small units of government where the interests of the people are limited and range along well-defined lines, where there is a common ideal, and where competition is slight, there the problem of self-government presents relatively few difficulties. But where the unit of government is large, where the interests and purposes of a people are diverse, and where the spirit of competition is marked, there we shall find self-government an increasingly complex problem—one that challenges the best thought of a free people.

In this country we have passed from a simple homogeneous people into a highly complex heterogeneous cosmopolitanism. The several groups of early settlers were widely differentiated in point of customs, creeds, habits, manners, and traditions, and succeeding generations retained and passed on many of the racial or group characteristics, yet within each group life's activities were ranged along simple lines. Because people live far apart, racial characteristics did not obtrude themselves and national life developed with comparative smoothness. But the multiplication of interests thru invention, scientific discovery, industrial and commercial expansion has expanded simple life. Into this natural expansion of the internal life of the American people, Europe has poured annually for many years thousands of her subjects. The vastness of our territory and the economic opportunities on this side and a restless discontent with the intolerant social, political, and ofttimes religious conditions of the Old World have caused a flood of immigrants to invade our shores, greater in number of individuals than any recorded migration in history. The first decade of the present century added nearly 9,000,000 aliens to our population.

An examination of the figures relating to the alien element in this country shows that every third person in the United States is either foreign born or born of foreign parents, and that three millions cannot speak the English language and twice as many more cannot read English. One-sixth of the population (15,000,000) of the United States is therefore directly or indirectly influenced by foreign conditions. Four-fifths of the more recent immigrants belong to the class of unskilled laborers. Seventy-five

per cent of the inhabitants of cities having a population of over a million are foreign born or in the generation of the immigrant. Furthermore, the tendency to mass in certain states and centers is a marked characteristic. It is a current saying that New York is the largest German city in the world except Berlin; the largest Italian city except Rome; the largest Polish city except Warsaw, and by far the largest Jewish city in the world. Fifty different languages are spoken by this alien folk. One thousand two hundred newspapers in the United States are printed in thirty-one languages other than English. These papers are generally American in spirit, but their chief items of interest are news of the fatherland. Thus they keep the alien in constant touch and sympathy with his native land.

The assimilation of this polyglot immigration into the American nation is one of the tremendously significant problems confronting America today. The matter of absorption is becoming increasingly difficult owing to their vast numbers, their varied habits and traditions, and their inability to grasp the full meaning of the spirit of liberty as exemplified in the thought and activities of our people.

The elemental background of American liberty was the fusing of the spirit of Puritan and Cavalier thru the shock of the Revolutionary War. That influence may be traced across the continent. From the crossing of their blood, the union of their virtues, and the mingling of their best traditions came the type of American citizen who influenced history during the greater part of the nineteenth century. During the early period of immigration, beginning distinctively in 1840, most of the immigrants came from Northern Europe. Since they had many of the same traditions and ideals and the same political standards, the process of assimilation was comparatively easy, but in the last twenty years most of the immigrants have come from Southern Europe and are farther removed from the thought and spirit of American life. With limited understanding and lack of training and of vision, they do not readily adjust themselves to the new environment. Misunderstood and ostracized, as they often are, their disappointment gives way to discontent, which is likely to express itself in turbulence.

But a new social ideal is taking possession of America today. It is the spirit speaking out from the great heart of humanity. It recognizes the vast and intricate human relationships the world over. It realizes that the treatment of the immigrant and his relationship to the social and industrial order present an unprecedented problem. The new American spirit stands not for the elimination of whatever has not been produced on American soil; but it rather welcomes the best of the culture, the arts, and the crafts of the Old World, that thru the process of education and training these may be incorporated into our life and thus we may be enriched with this spiritual inheritance.

In aid of this new movement to Americanize America, the distinctive formal educational forces of the country will play no unimportant part.

Already the United States Bureau of Education is co-operating with the Bureau of Immigration, and the public school has become the rallying-ground for the organization of the new forces. The school is rapidly divesting itself of the archaic methods of teaching citizenship. The time is not far past when memorizing preambles to constitutions, powers and duties of congresses and legislatures, outlining departments of government, and learning definitions constituted the teaching of civics. The painful results were apparent when pupils described England's government as a "limited mockery," and confidently asserted "that the first conscientious congress met in Philadelphia and that the constitution of the United States was established to promote domestic hostility."

The adult foreigner must be prepared for citizenship no less than his children—nay, even greater is the necessity that he shall have special training. Fortuitous conditions will educate the plastic and impressionable child, while the parent responds only to specific training. And all too frequently the alien receives no aid, encouragement, or opportunity to prepare for the sacred right except at the instance of political partisanship. The school for the adult is becoming to be as much a part of public education as a school for the child. Our attitude to the foreigner has not always been characterized by sympathy or even respect. Too often we have tried to awe him with the superiority of our institutions, by exploiting our traditions, extolling our heroes, and boasting of our freedom, hoping thereby to impress him with our vaunted greatness and thus cause him to forget his fatherland and to discard the customs and culture of his race. Such an attitude clearly violates the fundamental principles in training for loyalty.

Critical observers of social heredity point out what must be very apparent to anyone who analyzes the problem presented by the fact that a man deeply and truly disloyal to his own folk and culture is not likely to become a deeply and truly loyal American. Then, too, there is always the obvious danger which has its basis in a profound and fundamental psychology that in any attempt to change or completely transfer from one loyalty to another, the very capacity for loyalty is destroyed. Nothing is more deeply rooted than social and group instincts and traditions. To strip these from the individual and to cover him with an alluvium of social habits ever so thick may after all prove to be only a cheap substitute.

What makes the Japanese patriotism so vital is the fact that the religion of the Japanese includes a reverence for the past. That reverence is the thing that is perpetuated. The school must make more of our national holidays. Unfortunately, one of our essentially patriotic holidays comes during the vacation period. But happily there has been a decided reaction from the degeneracy of a bombastic, half-riotous occasion, with its toll of injury to life and limb, to a more dignified mode of celebration in which sanity and safety are predominating characteristics. The schools here can render a service by making our national holidays an opportunity for teach-

ing the lessons of sacrifice. Too often the alien looks upon this land of the free and this home of the brave as a land of unrestricted liberty. He must understand that personal liberty must always comport with moral law and political liberty with civil law. In our land, democracy has a problem of race as well as a problem of social and industrial classifications.

The revival of pageantry in various communities, working out thru ceremonial and dramatic form the episodes that marked the rise and progress of a city or community, is one of the most significant methods of impressing upon the young the spirit of sacrifice and social service. American children show their love and appreciation for heroic deeds in their selections of declamations which set forth the exploits of such heroes as Horatius, Gustavus Adolphus, and William of Orange. These make their appeal to children, not because the expression of their lives symbolizes a race or a group, but because they represent fundamental expressions of human life. The school and the community should help preserve the best traditions of the alien and help him to work them out into the newer relationships. To neglect their heroes is to subtract one of the most fruitful factors in teaching patriotism. Garibaldi, Pasteur, Disraeli, Volta, Mendelssohn, Marconi have a meaning to the world that is not consequent upon the fact that they were born across the sea. The courage, strength, ardor, and spirit of the great men of any nation are admired by other nations.

Hitherto the school has regarded the teaching of citizenship as a special topic, or the work of a separate department, but we are learning that every recitation constitutes a lesson in citizenship, and that there is an arithmetic of character, a geography of character, as well as the ethics of character. There is no branch of study that may not lend itself to training for civic righteousness and civic efficiency. The problem of training youth in citizenship does not involve new institutions, new text, and new subject-matter, but rather a new attitude of the teachers and a new atmosphere in the classroom. Children must be helped to think thru the problems of the community and the relationships of the individual to the social group to which he belongs as well as to the civic order. The alien, as well as the native American, needs to be instructed in the limitations of liberty. He must learn that his liberty must be liberty under the law. If American children understood this as thoroly as they ought to understand it, we should not have to blush in the presence of the foreign child when children of native Americans, with half-baked ideas about liberty and independence, interpret that liberty and independence in terms of unbridled license. What indeed must be the effect upon children of the alien when in high schools or in the grades they note the pupils strike because someone has been punished, or because a teacher has been promoted or demoted or a holiday refused? Above all else, the school must teach a reverence for the law and respect for the rights of others. No word is so misunderstood as "liberty."

The problem of democracy is this: "How to utilize without waste the tremendously potent forces of human life that are everywhere about us." The problem is largely individual. The wealth in character of the state is, in the long run, the wealth in character of the individuals composing it. Every social structure is the outgrowth of personal ideals. The public school has been an efficient agency. It will be more effective in the future as, with deeper consecration, superintendents and teachers advance to the unprecedented problems that lie before them. With new ideals, new aspirations, new hopes for the enlarged brotherhood of America, may we not hope that these dissimilar nationalities will be incorporated into the newer type of citizenship?

THE SUPERINTENDENT AS THE LAYMAN SEES HIM

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There are 5,833 public-school superintendents in America. I have a speaking acquaintance with only 111. From the superiorities of these to fashion an ideal head, including such pulchritudes as a layman especially admires in a school executive, is my undertaking.

In mixing my paints I should like plenty of red. Rousseau's dictum comes to my mind: "Let him first be a man." You want warm body color in making the portrait of one whose main business is the rearing and culture of men. Red blood, hard muscle, virile speech, manly manners seem to me indispensable in the head of a school system. The traditional pattern with spectacles, with the scholar's stoop, the parchment skin, the painfully proper speech chastely devoid of slang and expletive—the type strictly devoid of variation from the conventional—has had its day.

The perpetuation of a deep and accurate scholarship has long been preached as the purpose of public schools by mild-mannered men who expressed rather their own instinctive desire than any great public need. Those who founded the American public-school system had no such notion. Enlightenment, liberty, self-management, self-government—that is, ability for, and desire of, democratic citizenship, each working for all and all for each—was the result expected by the early patriots who proposed in America that education should be free and universal. There cannot be any doubt of this. The words of Jefferson, of Adams, of Franklin, of Washington, and of the framers of the Ordinance of 1787, under which the schools of this western territory grew, are as clear as the sunshine in this particular. The perpetuation of scholarship, the preservation of polite learning, the bestowal of a literary culture—all as an asset of personal distinction—was undoubtedly the aim of educators in the period before the Revolution. Learning meant gentility. Gentleman and scholar were words repeatedly linked together. School meant leisure; leisure meant means; means meant birth or high estate; all meant aristocracy.

No one would think of disputing that. It is too plainly written in the history of the world before the overturn of 1776. But what especially interests us now is the slowness with which the principles of the Revolution permeated the soul and substance of education. The Fathers of the Republic and the statesmen of succeeding years have been in substantial agreement that tax-supported schools are for the creation of an intelligent, liberty-loving, self-directive people. On the other hand, there has persisted in the public schools a surprising amount of Old World assumption that the lower schools ought chiefly to concentrate their attention upon grammar and classic arithmetic, leading to upper public schools where Latin, ancient mythology and history, rhetoric and polite scholarship are the staples of instruction. Is that not true? Our forefathers conceived a school system to generate political virtue for the future; our fathers let the school master continue to retail the pedantic learning of the past. Our theory of schools proposes the cultivation of manhood; our practice clings to the mediaeval purpose of producing learned men of letters. Tradition insists that the school superintendent be a scholar. All the underlying reason for the existence of schools, all the needs of the time demand, "Let him first be a man." A century and a half of American familiarity with the school manager assuming the scholar-type has lamentably failed to give the school superintendent that confidence and respect which are required to enable the schools to realize the purpose for which they were established. Perpetuation of a scholastic ideal dear only to a very small proportion of the country is much easier for a superintendent than any other course. His life, spent among books, his thoughts, guided from infancy along well-trodden paths thru normal school and university, his purpose incrustated with academic ideas, repeated year after year in conventions of his own kind, make of him a Living Yesterday. He is concerned with the perfection of systems by which what-used-to-be may more perfectly be preserved. This notion of a superintendent's function has lamentably failed. There never was, since the nation was born, so widespread and definite a protest against the failure of schools. Cities misgoverned, public lands stolen, whole precincts selling their votes, juvenile crime increasing, colleges bending their necks for the yoke of rich men's foundations, periodicals reeking with salacity, the drama smothered in sex-madness, and prominent employers informing the newspapers that the school children can neither read, nor write, nor spell, heads of state departments of education confessing that "the lives of school children are wasted,"¹ all these things are weakening the American faith in public education. Far be it from me to insist that all or any of these distressing things can fairly be charged to the failure of the schools. But the pertinent fact is that the founders of the free-school system expected it to produce a higher type of self-governing citizen than the Old World knew. The distressing outcome is that so many

¹ Andrew S. Draper, state commissioner of education, New York.

prominent publicists¹ declare that the hopes of the Fathers have been bitterly disappointed.

Among the many answers that suggest themselves to these somber reflections, these two take prominence. Either the expectations of what public education ought to do have been too high or the public schools have not been efficiently directed toward realizing these expectations.

First, was the hope and belief of the founders of the free public school that it would preserve liberty, prevent tyranny, decrease vice and crime, and increase human happiness, too high a hope and too confident a belief? Most of you have said no. When the superintendent campaigns for increase of funds, he urges that the money be spent for schools so as not to be needed for jails—to set men right rather than to lock men up for going wrong. You call the school the bulwark of the nation's liberties, the agent of progress, the urging force for "that one far-off, divine event toward which the whole creation moves." We cannot look to the school superintendent for a denial that the results expected from free and universal education have been estimated too high. We come to the other query: Have the public schools been really directed toward delivering an intelligent, liberty-loving, self-governing, co-operating, happy people? I think not. They have been too generally used as the means of perpetuating an ancient conception of scholarship. Their programs show it, their managers' words declare it. Nothing short of a complete revision of the conception of public-school service will abate the dissatisfaction which has arisen as the result of a comparison of the product of the schools with the conception of what public education is for. The main agent of this revision is obviously and inevitably the superintendent. He must purge himself of the fallacy that scholarship is the main desideratum in himself or in the school system. The public does not tax itself for scholarship. It expects intelligence. Intelligence is as distinct from scholarship as morality is from theology. Intelligence is common-sense; it is "know how" penetration, brightness, understanding. Scholarship is the sum of the conventional attainments which custom and fashion have imposed upon schools. Intelligence is mind-power for use in any circumstance, old or new. Scholarship is an accumulation which requires a special situation for its enjoyment, either the leisure of the study or a company of specially trained persons. Your communities are not demanding of you the graduation of scholars, but an output of human creatures who can think, reason, judge, and decide about the large concerns of personal and national life. Most of you and most of your helpers have been trained to think about academic subjects—about nouns and pronouns, *x* and *y*, which do not matter much. To say a thing is academic (that is, pertaining to school) is to say that it will not work. This was well enough when education was the preparation of gentlemen

¹ Richard Grant White, Rebecca Harding Davis, Charles W. Eliot, Rabbi Emil Hirsch, Edward Bok, Michael Friedsam, Captain Charles King.

superior to toil. To maintain such an academic education at the expense of a nation of workers is as fatuous as it is dishonest. These observations do not hurt you any more to hear than they hurt me to say. I, too, have been nurtured on flowers from the gardens of antiquity. I, too, love the echoes from a learned and refined past. To be called scholar, to parse, to scan, to quote, are as dear to me as to the most refined of this learned body, but scant 5 per cent of my post-academic life is spent upon the things my schooling emphasized. Scant 5 per cent of all our citizens travel paths to which their school training naturally leads. To bring a school system to an adequate public service does not demand a scholar. Were it not for a fashionable tradition about it, such as requires the English judges to incase their heads in cages of false hair, or Michiganders to vote the Republican ticket, a superintendent might properly be unable to know whether it was Nessus or Narcissus who had trouble with his shirt, or whether Savonola was an indoor skater or a toilet preparation. But truly it is of supreme importance that the person to undertake the commission of bringing the schools to produce what they were founded to produce—intelligent, self-governing, co-operating citizens—shall be a supremely manly man.

I have known superintendents who set great store by organization. They made and tended systems. The mechanism bedeviled them. They could act only as the machines within their own heads would allow. "Keep the rule even if you lose the boy" was their motto. Their hero was that sweet little idiot of our boyhood days, Casabianca of the burning deck, immortal martyr of stupid regularity.

Of what use is an organizer who fails to produce anything that is worth organizing? Our school system is wonderfully provided with good roads laid out by superintendents, but the highways do not lead where the children have to go. The expert roadmaker, the skilled organizer, is in great danger from his own ability. Often the people of his system will travel more joyously and arrive more quickly at a more desirable place on paths of their own making. The organizer runs a great risk of becoming a driver. He mechanizes education too much, therefore he dehumanizes it. Maybe some parts of the country need more organizing power in their superintendents. Those I have seen ought to soft-pedal their organization for a while and use the human stops a little more. Let us have a superintendent who can organize, but let him first be a man.

One hears much about the superintendent as leader. It sounds exalting, more often to the superintendent than to the teachers. A need of leadership there has always been since superintending was invented. Where the leadership idea is over-prominent in the superintendent's mind, there is inevitably a narrowing of his ideas down to those put forward by himself in exclusion of those offered by others. An educational department is a garden of talent wherein hundreds of valuable seeds of education lie in the soil along with weeds a-plenty. Some leaders are so keen to banish

weeds that the possibilities of the varied talent all thru the system are never realized, but remain dry seeds in dry dust. It stands to reason that the sum of the brains of a teaching staff, including the brains of a superintendent, ought to amount to more than the brains of the superintendent alone. Leadership, personal authority, concentrated spotlight on the head man, have kept back many a city from its money's worth of education in the schools. What we want in the superintendency is a man, not a monopolist, a discoverer who searches out and pushes along every genuine fellow-laborer who will contribute ideas for the common good. Let us have manly give-and-take in educational councils with the superintendent conscious of the fact that there ought to be many persons in the department as intelligent and as able as he. There is an innate spirit of advance in every normal personality. A superintendent suffused with a real devotion for public service will nurse that spirit, inspire it, give it scope and employment to develop a school system rich in able personalities. A narrow-minded superintendent will fear the competition of other minds, will give none of his supreme problems to other workers in the schools, and will carry on what should be a democracy of public service as tho it were the realm of an absolute monarch and he its czar.

In schools and colleges there have appeared the students' council and other co-operative associations. The vital element of such an idea is the very American essence. We believe in the management of their own affairs by the people themselves. We believe that to prepare the people for such management public schools were established and are maintained. We count it, therefore, a regrettable condition if any school system or any superintendent neglects to use to a large degree the form and principle of democratic government in the conduct of departmental affairs. I know the objections that are running thru your minds; that the teachers are not big enough to discuss educational policy; that the teachers are too selfish to recommend an extensive improvement of the service if it brings any hardship upon them; that in many cities of the country the teachers are pulling one way and the superintendent another. But, granting all the infirmities of teachers, which make the sharing of participation with them seem unduly arduous, the way to make teachers big enough to grasp big policies is to bring teachers up against big policies. The way to cure the selfishness of teachers is to bring it up against a great service demanding sacrifice. The way to stop teachers and superintendents from pulling in different directions is for superintendents when teachers are pulling toward the public benefit to pull with them. The educational work in each locality is greater than one superintendent can do. There must be a larger number of hearty people uniting for the common good. No mere scholar, no organizer, no one full of the ambition of personal leadership, can get hearty and efficient service out of these people. Back of scholarship, formation of plans, and desire of leadership, is the great inspiring hope which constitutes the essence

of teaching, namely that the nation shall grow in wisdom, in loyalty, in generosity, in the great qualities of manhood. For this, scholarship has proved inadequate, organization has failed, leadership has not sufficed. Greater than all these and waited for by city after city thruout the whole nation is the incarnate spirit of manhood, a living, virile sense of the great possibilities of life, a determination to organize the agencies at hand to realize it. I yield to none in respect for the clergy, those ministers of God in a careless world preaching the Gospel of a clean and happy life. But yours is a ministry which gives you mankind in the making. Twelve times as long as to the clergyman, you have the minister's flock each year in the schools. In your hands is the rearing and culture of men. The makers of our free school conceived this to be its work, and not the delivery of that cut-and-dried curriculum of yours which goes by the name of an education. I do not conceive your main business to be the question: "What is the Boston course of study?" or "What does Cleveland teach?" But I do know that in your own town there is waiting for an answer the query: "What are these children around me? What are the possibilities before them? What are the forces of manhood and womanhood by which they shall realize their destiny? How can I help these forces grow? How guide them aright?" We may no longer close our ears to these demands and salve our souls with the unction that we are doing what Boston does and with as much success. The business of a superintendent is not now to keep in motion the old machine that came over in the "Mayflower," a pattern of the thing that polished the sons of gentlemen in the days when knighthood was in flower. A superintendent is not a tale that is told, but an agent of a better tomorrow. His mission is not to prove that Horace Mann was right, but to propound anew to the best minds in his own town: "What is the most we can do for these children?" It means the breaking of old ties, the surrender of fond memories, the abandonment of assumed omniscience, the adoption of humility and willingness to learn, bravery to advance, audacity to hazard new adventures, courage to take one's commission in one's hand and to risk it among carpers and cavilers such as have obstructed progress since creation's dawn. Oh, it is inspiring to be a school superintendent in 1916! There never was a time when a real one was greater in demand. If he will cease to be content with forms and will give himself, both heart and soul, to the pursuit of that end which the best vision of the best thinkers of '76 conceived, a sustaining spirit will come within him driving out all pettiness and weakness whatever that has at any time brought any superintendency into contempt. He will, by this devotion and this service, feel himself to grow and to remain in the full stature of a man.

TO WHOM IS THE BOARD OF EDUCATION RESPONSIBLE?

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

It is true that a school consists of a teacher, textbooks, and pupils, but in America there would be no teachers, no textbooks, no schoolhouse, no equipment, nothing out of which to make a school, but for the board of education that administers the funds that are tax raised.

So far as the public schools are concerned, the boards of education, directly or indirectly, have the first word and the last as to the use of tax-raised school moneys. Doctrinarians may quarrel as to the desirability of having experts, pure and simple, handle the funds, and direct how they shall be used, but they will achieve so little in our day that we may assume that boards of education will stand sponsor for the use of these moneys.

Members of boards of education are as intelligent, as devoted, as honest as any class of people intrusted with any official responsibility. The traditional assumption is that boards of education are chosen primarily to prevent the spending of the people's money, that their business is to put on brakes, to make it difficult for superintendents and other school officials to get money for school uses. Boards of education often try to find ways and means to prevent teachers from getting influence that might increase their salaries. This is due entirely to the inherited tradition that it is the first duty of these boards of education to prevent increase of taxes for school purposes. Unless this attitude can be changed, it makes no appreciable difference whom we elect to boards of education, men or women, experts or philanthropists.

The board of education is elected by the people to look after the interests of the children and to do that alone. It is the business of the board of education to get as large appropriations as can be wisely used for the good of the children, for schoolhouses, for equipment, for textbooks, for teachers. Boards of education are expected, are required by common-sense and conscience, to get as adequate and as modern buildings and equipment and as efficient teaching as they can get the money to buy.

Every law providing for the election of such boards specifies that they are elected to provide school privileges for "all the children of all the people." No law was ever passed that stated that these boards are elected to prevent the use of money, to put on the brakes, financially. Whoever is elected on a ticket that virtually pledges a candidate to serve in the interest of the taxpayer instead of in the interest of children is virtually doing an unlawful act, is trying to thwart the purpose of the law. It ought to be possible to indict such a man for contempt of legislation, at least for conspiracy to defeat the ends of the law. Any party or organization or group of citizens who should run a candidate on the issue of serving the interests of the taxpayer should be indictable for conspiracy to defeat the purposes of the law. The mayor and the city council are expected, officially and traditionally,

to guard the treasury, but the board of education is expected by specific law to get all the money that can be used advantageously for the advantage of the children.

It is not at all uncommon for board members to be elected to erect a schoolhouse in a given section out of spite against some other section of the district, or to oust a superintendent who has said or done something with no relation to education that arouses the prejudices of a given set of people, or to depose a principal who has offended some influence, or sect, or organization. Any such campaign, any such pledging of a candidate, any action based on such a pre-election pledge, is definitely, deliberately, emphatically unlawful and should be indictable. Members of boards of education are responsible first, last, always, and everywhere to the children and to them alone.

Boards of education have the greatest of all responsibilities in American official life. They have America's future in their hands as have no other class of Americans. On the lower side, they must protect the men and women of tomorrow from the civic pests of the cheapness and narrowness, the prejudice and spite of today which have been inherited from yesterday. On the other side, they must protect the men and women of tomorrow from the conceited dreamers of today.

To the members of boards of education alone is given the opportunity to get the right perspective of the child in the schools as he is jeopardized by the conservative of yesterday and the zealot of today while trying to plume his wings for the opportunities of tomorrow.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE RURAL-SCHOOL CURRICULA

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The whole rural-school problem may be considered as a large one in itself. And there are many phases to the problem. Where population has decreased, there is an attendance so small as to hinder proper class organization or the incentives to work that come from the enthusiasm of numbers; there is the frequent changing of teachers, due to goodness knows how many reasons, but economic chiefly; there is the inexperienced girl-teacher trying her apprentice hand in the rural school; there is the poor equipment and the non-attractive school and surroundings; there is the non-progressive board of trustees, interpreting trusteeship to mean doing only what the law makes compulsory and with no vision of the great dividends to be earned in investing generously in education; there is irregularity of attendance, owing to bad roads, sickness, work at home, and indifference to education; there is the lack of play—that best part of school life; there

is need for medical inspection; there is need for truancy officers and real compulsory education; there is the dropping out of school of the boys about the time they reach fourteen years of age, going out into life thus insufficiently equipped; there is the school work reflecting courses of study prepared with the graded urban school in view; there is the high school only at a distance, requiring boarding in town and again giving instruction specially adapted to the urban dweller or the few pupils who may proceed to the college or to professional life.

Agricultural teaching is the remedy.—What is the best way to meet the defects in our schools and what different kind of school should be aimed at? Our answer to the first question is: The rural-school problem will be best solved by the introduction of agriculture and domestic science. We must make our schools appeal strongly to our patrons as institutions worth while, deserving strong financial support as institutions giving children something which they cannot afford to do without. Not agriculture in the school so much as the school in agriculture is the goal. There will be a rationalizing of the work of the rural school; it will reflect its environment and meet the real needs of those depending on it for an education. It will seek to serve and not to stand off apart from its best opportunities. It will not interpret agriculture and homemaking as narrow things. It will mean play and music and books and social mingling as much as soils and crops and cattle and cooking, "for life is more than meat as the body is more than raiment." The school will be for everybody; not limited to the uses of children but bringing everybody to school, if not for instruction, then for no less necessary recreation. It will be the heart of the community, vitalizing every home. From it will arise new visions of education.

The new kind of school.—What different kind of school might be aimed at? There is a kind that embodies the new spirit of co-operation. Perhaps it will necessitate the breaking down of our sectional scheme of school administration, making the township or a group of schools the unit of administration. It will need a new kind of trustee, and perhaps a larger outlay of money.

In many places the old kind of school has served its day. There should be a consolidation of schools which will permit of the introduction of agriculture, domestic science, and manual training. Possibly this may be associated with a township or county people's high school, located in a central place (not a town) in the township, managed by a township board of trustees composed of farmers. Such a school will have as its headmaster a teacher trained at the agricultural college; his classes will be conducted chiefly in the winter months, and pupils of all ages will be taught; his summer work will be to follow his pupils on to their farms, help in the other schools of the township, and work his own little farm which is provided with his home. In time a teacher of domestic science will carry on similar work with the girls and women. The school will be provided with adequate

grounds and facilities for play. The school will be a social as well as an educational center for the township. There will be a good assembly hall in which public meetings, lectures, and social gatherings may be held. With the school as the head, all the other schools of the township will be closely associated, receiving from it help and inspiration.

Such a school might be, if the people desire it!

In spite of the general progress undoubtedly being made, all these defects must be recognized and met. We have made considerable advancement in the last ten years; we have still a long way to go. We must ever set up higher ideals if continued progress is to be secured.

In introducing this topic, I am presuming that all of us have long ago in our minds settled two questions: (1) That every boy in every country school should have an opportunity to learn the scientific principles of his father's business. (2) That every girl should receive instruction in household science whether she or her parents believe in it or not.

No matter how strongly you and I have thought on this matter, however, these subjects have not been generally introduced into our schools, perhaps for the following reasons: (1) It is easy to outline a course of study that seems simple and easily introduced. It seems altogether different to transfer a course of study from paper into reality. You have no doubt found this out for yourselves. (2) Agriculture seems to be especially hard, not to introduce, but to get practical results therefrom. It is easy to interest children in plant and animal stories, but it is not easy to instruct children so that an improvement is readily seen in the field crops and the flocks and herds and the home life of the neighborhood. (3) The pressure of the general course of study limits the time for such new subjects. (4) There is a lack of knowledge of these subjects on the part of the superintendents and inspectors. They may assume, or even feel an interest in the work, but without definite knowledge the lack of ability to be helpful soon manifests itself and the teacher and pupils soon lose interest. (5) There is frequent changing of teachers. (6) The limited knowledge and experience of the teachers is beyond question the greatest difficulty.

Teaching agriculture in rural schools.—We have long since come to the conclusion that special training must be given to the teachers if definite or really instructive work is to be accomplished and that the state should pay for this training. This may be done in one of two ways: (1) The board and lodging and traveling expenses may be paid by the state, for a definite time, to some central place where agriculture is well taught; (2) the state may offer a bonus of \$25 or \$50 a year, to be added to salaries of such teachers as take such courses and afterward successfully teach such subjects to their pupils.

It is for each state to settle for itself where in the state such teacher's courses may be taken up. At first glance, it would appear perfectly natural to use the grounds and buildings and equipment and staff of the agricultural

college. We believe at the Ontario Agricultural College that we are doing some of our best work in training teachers for rural-school work. This does not mean that we are turning out teachers from our regular agricultural courses, but that we have thrown open our doors to the rural teachers of the province, and that in co-operation with the Department of Education we are using our large plant to help the cause of the rural school. This is bringing results.

The other way of trying to teach agriculture, in a pedagogical way in normal schools at odd hours and sandwiched in between other studies, has not met with success. On the other hand, given a purely agricultural environment with practical science teachers and fields and woods and flocks and herds and plants, and nature everywhere, it seems easy to interest and instruct along all lines of rural activities. We have had intelligent teachers in training who at first showed resentment when asked to make their own gardens, to collect insects or plants, and to make observations of temperatures and erosion and wood-lots. We have never had one who continued for six consecutive days who did not show first interest and then enthusiasm in the work.

School gardens.—Perhaps the easiest and best way to start the agricultural work in rural schools is to start the pupils to plant and care for gardens. We have had pupils return to the school-garden work on Saturdays when nothing that we can think of would induce them to return for regular school work. The garden idea permits of starting in winter with germination tests and weed-seed determinations, also selection of seed and removing of impurities from samples from father's granary and corn crib. While gardens imply flowers, I have seen in schoolyards splendid experiments with field crops, such as liming soil for alfalfa, spading under clover for green manure, the eradication of weeds by cultivation and by spraying, the growing of potatoes at different dates of seeding and with different kinds of fertilizers. In some gardens enough vegetables are grown to supply the domestic science class the following winter, from which the girls in turn make vegetable soup each day, for one cent a bowl, and serve it to all those who bring their lunches to school. Then again the garden furnishes endless illustrations for teaching arithmetic, language lessons, and so forth.

The school fall fair.—This has been one of our most progressive movements. The teachers and pupils seem to find in it a long-felt want.

With a small beginning in 1912 of 25 school fairs, the work has progressed so fast that this past season of 1915 as many as 234 school fairs were held in 41 different counties, including 2,291 schools representing 48,386 children. Seed was supplied and instructions were given to the children, who planted and cared for 51,243 plots. They also became responsible for 6,868 settings of hens' eggs of bred-to-lay strains. The total number of entries at the school fairs amounted to 116,236, and the total attendance, including children and adults, was 157,000.

A regular inspection of the plots in the summer is important. It keeps the teacher in the neighborhood; it helps the children to a better care of the plots, lends a pleasant diversion, and enlists a larger sympathy from the parents. Competent judges who can give their reasons for the awards are also a great help, not only in insuring fair play and no favoritism, but in emphasizing the importance of careful selection and preparation of exhibits.

At these fairs, oratorical contests have been inaugurated with splendid results. Hardly a school fair but had its attraction of ambitious boys and girls speaking from an improvised platform. Exhibits of cooking by the small girls have also come to be a very important feature of the school fall fairs.

Live stock judging is coming also to be a part of our school fair work. The parents supply the stock to be judged, and the district representatives or county agents conduct the contest, or some other agricultural college graduate is secured to superintend.

Teaching domestic science.—I shall not dwell upon this phase, as you have a special section on this program devoted to the work. I will say, however, that as 95 per cent of the people in the United States and Canada do all their own housework, it seems stupid that the people have not long since risen and demanded that the art and science of the household be made compulsory by every board of trustees in the country.

For one hundred dollars, equipment may be procured and used even in a one-room school, so that every girl may receive useful instruction in cooking and sewing and laundry work. She wants only a start, the rest she will get at home by constant and careful practice.

The older boys.—Many farmers' boys leave school permanently just when they should be starting their secondary education. There are many reasons why, and it is not necessary to mention them here. What we have not done is to make it easy for such boys to return to the same school some years later and find instruction according to the need. We have, it is true, added continuation classes to our common schools, but these have not attracted many pupils who have been out of school for any appreciable length of time. There must be hundreds of thousands of young men, between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, who would be greatly benefited, and perhaps given an entirely new viewpoint in life if they could get some systematic instruction just at this stage.

We find that six weeks' and ten weeks' courses for farmers' sons in the winter time are coming to play an important place in our agricultural educational scheme. As many as fifteen hundred, in classes of from ten to twenty-five, have been in attendance at such short courses in one season. Given a class of young men who have had practical experience in farming, and offer them a chance to learn the why of farm operations, and it is wonderful how quickly they will become interested. Keep them at it for six

or ten weeks, and it is remarkable how their whole outlook on life is changed. Co-operation becomes possible in the neighborhood; the agricultural college and experimental stations become real and personal; reports and bulletins are read and understood; cow-testing is made easy; a water system is now within reach; tile draining is practicable and possible, and the whole future looks altogether different. We secure agricultural college graduates to do the teaching. Good men who perhaps were school teachers before going to college, and who are now farming, are easily attainable at a moderate cost. We are trying in this way to give help to those who want it when they want it.

To sum up, it seems to me that what our rural-school curriculum needs is the teaching of real agriculture to young farmers and a chance for every girl to get a start in systematic homemaking while her time is not worth very much. I should like to see in every rural schoolhouse a creed for every boy and every girl, something like this.

ONTARIO COUNTRY BOY'S CREED

1. I believe that life in the country can be made just as pleasant and profitable as life in the city.
2. I believe that father and I can form a partnership that will suit both of us.
3. I believe that if I kill every weed on my father's farm we shall be well paid by the increased crop alone, to say nothing of the benefit to our neighbors.
4. I believe that by careful selection of our chickens I can double the output of the flock.
5. I believe that by introducing alfalfa on our farm we can keep twice as many domestic animals as at present.
6. I believe that by keeping twice as many animals we shall be able to grow much larger crops of alfalfa and other things.
7. I believe that by planting shade trees, growing flowers, shrubs, and keeping a tidy homestead, we shall be better contented and happier in every way and our farm will increase in value.
8. I believe not in luck, but in pluck.
9. I believe that farming is a most honorable calling, and, having decided to stay on the farm, it is my duty to make the best use of my time in school that I may be the better farmer in the days that are to come.
10. I believe in working when I work and playing when I play, and in giving and receiving a square deal in every act of life.

ONTARIO COUNTRY GIRL'S CREED

1. I believe that I have a right to be happy every day.
2. I believe that God's blue sky and God's green earth are a part of my inheritance.
3. I believe that I have a right to love little chickens and ducks and lambs and puppies as well as dolls and ribbons.
4. I believe I could take care of these things as well as my brother who does not love them as much as I.
5. I believe I would love to keep house better than anything else, and I only wish they taught housework at school.
6. I believe that keeping a garden all my own would be great fun, and I believe that I could be very happy in giving away the flowers and in cooking the vegetables that I raised myself.

7. I believe that I could study real hard at my grammar and geography and arithmetic and spelling if I could do cooking or sewing with the other girls in the afternoon.

8. I do not want to go to town and leave my father and mother and my brothers and sisters, for I know I shall miss them all and the trees and the creek and the green grass and the old woods and everything; but oh! I do not want to stay at home and do nothing but wash dishes and carry water and do the chores and grow old like auntie. I want to laugh and love and live.

9. I believe I can learn to sew and cook and do laundry work and do them well, and I want to learn them and I want to learn to do them well.

10. I believe in the square deal for girls as well as boys and I want everybody to be happy all the time—the old as well as the young.

JOINT DISCUSSION

THE MINIMUM ESSENTIALS VERSUS THE DIFFERENTIATED COURSE OF STUDY IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES

I. LOTUS D. COFFMAN, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

There has been a growing educational theory that individual rights and liberties are paramount to social duties and to the social will. It is true that the most distinctive and valuable contribution of current educational psychology is a knowledge of individual differences. The discovery of these differences has resulted in an exaltation of the importance of the individual, and that exaltation has become the dominant note in educational theory and practice. So deeply enmeshed is the doctrine of individual differences in educational thought that we are in some danger of forgetting that interest, one of its by-products, is not always a measure of value, that mere spontaneous activity in itself never produced reflective thinking, that natural learning, apart from human intervention, is a fiction, a dream, an anomaly.

The only national rights anyone has are those he uses for collective welfare. Certain standards and certain values must be set up for the training so that all may more satisfactorily satisfy the conditions of good citizenship, of neighborhood, and of family life. At this particular time it is becoming increasingly imperative that we ask what is best for society, what is best for the state, rather than what is best for the individual. The gigantic problems this country is facing and will soon have to solve will demand new conceptions of responsibility, a more wholesome respect for the ideals of American life, a stiffening of our moral fiber, and a more rigorous mastery of the tools of learning.

If the efficiency of a state or of a nation depends upon the trained intelligence of the people, the school must play its part in solving those problems which are basic to social welfare and to national integrity; and in doing so it must provide first and above all a curriculum consisting of

minimum essentials, a curriculum consisting of those great facts and principles which all should be expected to acquire within the limits of their respective capacities.

The violent reaction we are experiencing against providing a curriculum consisting of minimum essentials is due to the wholesale attempt to apply a uniform curriculum uniformly to all classes of children. This practice has placed no premium upon variations in methods. But initiative upon the part of teachers will be stimulated and encouraged if we vary the methods of instruction to harmonize with the capacities of the children for the purpose of securing more uniform outcomes in matters of skill, knowledge, standards, ideals, appreciations, obligations, and duties. We regard it as a healthy sign and as a mark of progress that teachers enjoy great freedom in the adaptation of materials to the abilities of children. Any educational program that offers little opportunity for the exercise of resourcefulness and initiative on the part of teachers is the product of mediaevalism. A certain amount of freedom is desirable because it stimulates ambitious teachers to improve their methods; a certain amount is necessary because some individuals and some classes will do more work than other individuals or other classes.

But the great fact remains that there is a certain irreducible amount of material, constantly increasing in character and in amount, which all children should be required to master if they are to be in possession of those things which constitute the essentials of our common life and common welfare. It is quite as necessary, and certainly as valuable, that we emphasize the stabler aspects of society in the curriculum as that we be conversant with every variation proposed. Initiative is an eminently desirable quality, but initiative without guidance becomes anarchy; initiative without being founded upon a substratum of common ideals determined by sane leaders will result in national destruction. But ideals cannot be formulated in a vacuum. They always follow in the wake of or cluster about ideas, and it is those ideas and practices which constitute the basis of social life for which we are pleading.

It is not uncommon to hear the special pleaders of individual differences proclaiming that reading should be taught without readers, arithmetic without arithmetics, and that we should abandon all textbooks and courses of study. The discovery of an obsolete bit of material in the curriculum or some defect in method has encouraged them to declare the entire school system to be antiquated and worthless, the "most gigantic and momentous failure of modern times." They also urge differentiation in the seventh and eighth grades because of the elimination and retardation found in these grades, and they cite as the cause of this retardation the lack of adjustment between the different grades of ability found in the school and the course of study. While this mal-adjustment has no doubt contributed to the mortality of the schools, still the total population in school between 1900 and 1910,

as shown by the census returns, increased proportionately more rapidly than the general population for each age group, and more rapidly for boys than for girls in every state in the Union except Nevada. Altho mortality is descriptive of a condition to be ameliorated, we have much evidence to show that both enrolment and attendance are improving. The greatest achievement of the last century, one unparalleled anywhere else in all the world, is the retention in school of four children in ten to the age of fifteen and of one child in ten to the age of nineteen. We are not familiar with a single trustworthy investigation that establishes beyond question the fact that retardation and elimination are due primarily to the uniformities of the curriculum. That much of the retardation and elimination is due to causes over which the school has little or no control has been clearly demonstrated. Moreover, a recent investigation in one state has shown that enrolment and attendance have increased as rapidly in 120 schools having no vocational work as in 117 schools having vocational work. Evidently there is a nation-wide faith in public education, whether it be general or special, cultural or vocational.

Another of the stock arguments for the differentiation of the curriculum in these upper grades is that it should be organized to serve the needs of the community in which the school is located. We have no desire to minimize the importance of this conception. We are convinced that there should be many more contacts than now exist between the school and the community, that we have not yet become sufficiently sensitive and self-conscious concerning the possibilities of social service thru such contacts. The localization of the activities of the school in terms of the dominant industries and activities of the community will vitalize the curriculum and motivate instruction. It will make a direct appeal to the pupils and it will encourage local support for the schools. These results are highly desirable. But attempts to localize the school curriculum may result in a situation inimical to the interests of democracy. The natural consequence of localization may mean an accentuation of the differences already existing between the communities. If such be the case, and if the practice be extended indefinitely, then one of the great obligations of the public school will be neglected. If, as is generally admitted, the common school, and in that we would include the seventh and eighth grades, is the agent of universal education, if the station of a nation among the nations of the world can be determined by the attention it is giving to the general education of the masses, if social solidarity depends upon likemindedness rather than upon unlikemindedness, then we must safeguard those things which made for the homogeneity of our people, and not accentuate unduly community differences.

We cannot educate all who live in farming communities to be farmers, or all who live in mining communities to be miners. We know that a majority of the sons of any generation will not follow the occupations of

their fathers. Since there is a tremendous shift in occupations from generation to generation, is it not all the more important that all people be educated alike in those things which are essential to mutual understanding and to mutual intercourse? This does not imply that all shall think alike all the time, but that all shall have the basis and the instruments for similar thinking when it is required. Otherwise, the charlatan, the mountebank, and the demagog will need to appeal only to the emotions, the superstition, and the ignorance of the people to lead. But few will deny that an educated citizenry is as necessary to fight the battle of peace as a trained citizenry is necessary to fight the battles of war, and neither can be secured without common elements in our educational program.

Frequently the advocates of localization forget the fact that approximately one-half of the people living in cities were born, reared, and educated in rural districts. Had they been trained in the district schools in a narrow curriculum, colored by one or two local occupations, they probably would have found it far more difficult to adapt themselves to city life. Moreover, the mobility of our population between states, a tendency we should hardly think of restricting, must be reckoned with when we are considering education in terms of national good and national integrity. Unless we safeguard all those things which make for social welfare and mutual understanding and social intercourse in our educational program, the localization of the curriculum, valuable as this conception is, must lead to occupational stratification.

When any educational theory seeks to establish new ethical standards, to undermine our codes of personal morality, when it strikes powerfully and sharply at the value of racial experience, when it declares that many of our stabler institutions are antiquated and worthless, the validity of its arguments should be tested. Not education merely, but every phase of American life has been permeated and infected by the invidious implications of the doctrines of individualism.

The extent to which the doctrine of individual liberty has forced itself into business is a matter of common knowledge. Men will refuse to buy of a grocer or a butcher whose scales are not properly adjusted when they themselves resort to trickery in disposing of stocks and securities. Men will vote to imprison the dealer of adulterated milk when they themselves do not scruple in selling watered stock. In other words, business has become a game. At least, it is called a game in which each player is dominated by self-interest.

The same tendencies are at work in the political field. Politics, as such, is looked upon as a game in which trickery, deception, and fraud are the proper cards to play.

It would seem that we need a new conception of public responsibility. Taking morals and public duties as we find them, we are impressed with the necessity of devising new standards if we are to prevent degeneracy. We

must prevent the spirit of our trusteeship from sinking into abeyance and from being replaced by the spirit of selfish or local ends. To divert attention from the immediate and alluring and to center it upon the stabler aspects and interests of society is a problem of paramount importance.

The trial of democracy as a form of government before the civilized world has been going on too long to be overlooked in the burst of enthusiasm for human freedom. All human freedom is limited by its capacity for stable and efficient government. Democratic nations have died only by self-slaughter. The last shreds of autocracy can be extirpated in a democracy only by learning submission to law, not to a master; to efficiency of organization under a higher servant, not under a ruler; to energy and efficiency of devotion to the common welfare, not to individual liberty. Our nation faces the task of reinterpreting its ideals and readjusting its life. Purpose must take the place of destiny, and there must be a change from drift to mastery. Our domestic and public affairs and our educational program must all be more efficiently organized. In the future there will be less talk of rights and more insistence on duties. It will be realized that there can be no solidarity without sacrifices. If we do not loyally volunteer for the new life of our country, we shall be drafted. In this work of national readjustment our educational system will be tested as never before.

President Eliot has recently declared that democracy is on trial now and that unless it can effect a highly efficient organization with national unity as its goal it must perish when it comes into competition with more efficient nations. National integrity and economic efficiency depend upon intelligent citizens and they depend upon the educational ideals fostered by the country. If education is not used to promote the resources of the nation as a whole, but to divert these resources into individual channels, it becomes a source of weakness instead of strength. As Fouillée points out, "The danger that above all others the democratic nation must avoid is the disintegration of society into units with no immediate concern but self-interest, into individuals to whom social duties and bonds are gradually ceasing to appeal." A growing consciousness of social welfare and of social organization is calculated to shift the emphasis from the demand for individual liberty to a demand for social unity.

Modern educational psychology has not only made us aware of variations in ability, it has also discovered that there is a common central tendency around which individuals cluster or tend to cluster. Slight variations from this central tendency are numerous; large variations from it are rare. Similarities in mentality as well as similarities in social ideals and standards are after all important criteria for determining the selection of the materials of education and the attainments of children. Variation in ability is essential to social progress, but resemblances in ideals, customs, skills, and standards are essential to social stability. Differences among people are no more basic to democracy than likeness among people. That

community of ideals and ideas, which serves as the basis for mutual understanding and which must be lifted from level to level with each succeeding generation, cannot be assured without a common pabulum in the school. If this and succeeding generations are to consider common problems, if democracy is dependent upon agreement in thought and action with reference to the great fundamental conceptions and issues of life, then education in measuring up to its responsibility must seek to transmit the facts, principles, and standards and to inculcate the ideals which will safeguard those conceptions and issues.

A curriculum which serves this purpose cannot be narrow and restricted. It will be an enriched and socialized curriculum. All those things which relate to health, to civic responsibility, to our relations with one another, must be emphasized. There must be an examination and reinterpretation of the subjects now in the curriculum for the purpose of making them more serviceable and valuable to us all. New materials will be introduced under the sanction of new pressures for the purpose of satisfying new demands of general social utility.

Before specialized skill and knowledge are set up as ends of education, all that knowledge of a non-technical nature with which every well-informed and reasonably well-adjusted citizen in an American state is equipped; all those social and personal habits; all those ideals, attitudes, appreciations, prejudices, and contempts which distinguish the desirable citizen; all those duties and obligations which fix our responsibility and constitute the basis of our social life; all those tools which represent the instruments of learning and the expression of experiences as our common usefulness—all these common elements the seventh and eighth grades, whatever else they do or do not do, must see that their pupils possess on leaving them.

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The question of differentiated curricula versus common elements in the seventh and eighth grades is not a question to be solved on the basis of expediency; it is not a question to be solved on the basis of individual, local, or partisan interests; least of all should the issues that it involves be clouded or obscured by emotion or prejudice. The answer that this department gives to this question is fairly certain to commit both the department and the public schools definitely and perhaps irretrievably to one or another of two fundamental educational doctrines, and this at the present time especially is not a responsibility to be considered lightly. Today, more than ever before, we are in a position to appreciate the fundamental influence which a permeating philosophy exerts over the conduct of a people. In a country where institutionalized education is universal, the doctrines that dominate the people's schools will have a large share in deter-

mining the doctrines that dominate the succeeding generation. Under our decentralized system of school administration, the body that has the largest power in determining the dominant educational doctrines is this representative body of school administrators. Your decisions will have a preponderant influence in shaping public opinion upon educational problems. Your judgment will be a large factor in giving to the people the counsel and advice that may determine basic educational policies.

It is important, then, that our discussions should emphasize basic principles. The issues that are involved are too fundamental and too serious to justify a quibbling debate over unessential matters. We shall quarrel neither as to the need of differentiations nor as to the wisdom of meeting individual needs and individual capacities by a rich and varied program of studies. Personally I believe that there is a place for certain differentiations, not only in the seventh and eighth grades, but even from the very outset of school life. The important question is not, Shall differentiated programs be provided? but rather, Upon what principles shall differentiations be based?

Touching this important question, there are three theories or doctrines widely current in American education that appeal to me as fraught with the gravest dangers. The first of these theories is this: that common elements in the school program are unnecessary beyond the point where children have fairly mastered the "tools of knowledge"; substantial uniformity up to this point, we are told, is both economical and expedient, but uniformity beyond this point, while both cheap and easy to administer, cannot be justified by any principle of educational values. According to this view, common elements beyond the fifth or sixth school year are not essential, and while there will continue to be some uniformity, this will be determined merely by convenience, not by basic and fundamental principles. This, I believe, is substantially the view held by a group of prominent students of education who have recently published a joint statement of principles that, in their judgment, should govern the construction of curricula. It is also a view that is either implicit or explicit in the current arguments for reorganizing the seventh and eighth grades on the junior high-school plan.

This point of view, while representing a wholesome reaction against the extreme and deadening uniformity that once prevailed, overlooks entirely, and to my mind inexcusably, one of the most important problems that education in a democracy should strive to solve—the problem, namely, of insuring an adequate number of common elements in the people's culture; the problem of insuring an adequate measure of likemindedness, a fund of ideas, ideals, and standards common to all the members of the democratic group. If a democracy needs anything that education can furnish, it certainly needs this essential basis of mutual understanding, for if democracy means anything, it means that the people in the last analysis must govern their own affairs; it means that the will of the people must be

supreme. If this collective will is to guide aright the destinies of a great nation, it must be based upon a collective intelligence of a high order; and collective intelligence of a high order is impossible without a high level of common ideas, ideals, and aspirations.

The curriculum problem in the seventh and eighth grades and in the high schools, then, is not to be solved by discarding or belittling the principle of uniformity. The obvious avenue of solution is first to determine with great care what elements of knowledge, skill, and aspiration may best be made common to all; to insure that, whenever we ask everyone to master certain elements of knowledge and skill, these elements shall be really worthy of the honor that is being conferred upon them—the honor of being among the common denominators of the collective thinking of a great people. In the past, the common elements of the school program have not always or often been determined carefully, and while it is probably true that many if not most of the materials now standardized in the elementary program deserve the high recognition that has been accorded them in making them the basis of the common culture of the people, it is also true that some of them have outlived their usefulness, while the presence of others could not be justified even as having historical value. The first problem in curriculum construction, then, is to make this determination of the minimal essentials which are to constitute the common elements of basic education. These must be thoughtfully and carefully selected, not upon the basis of individual whim, or doctrinaire caprice, but upon the basis of their human worth. They must represent the most precious and enduring parts of the culture-heritage of the race. Nothing cheap, nothing tawdry, nothing that is of merely evanescent or superficial value should be included here.

Carefully selected, rigorously tested common elements, then, should form the core of every seventh- and eighth-grade program. Around these should be built the differentiations, the diversified offerings, but no one should be permitted to escape the common elements—that is, no one who is to have a voice or a vote in the government of the people.

And this leads to a second current doctrine that, to my mind, is surcharged with social dynamite. It is the insidious notion that what we call general or liberal education is needed only by those who are going into the professions; that workers in the industrial, agricultural, and commercial fields do not need the kind of culture that the general and liberal work of the seventh and eighth grades and the high school is supposed to represent—that instruction in history, in geography, in literature, is really vocational education preparing for the “white-collar” occupations. And so we have the proposals for differentiated courses in history—industrial history for those going into the industries, political history for those going into the professions; and we have proposals and even experiments in the teaching of English which would relegate the great masterpieces to the white-collar pupils, and feed those destined for other callings on the inspiring contents

of poultry bulletins and mail-order catalogs. I do not mean that the sober sense of the educational public has yet permitted the lower schools to be exploited by these fantastic schemes; I do mean that proposals no less absurd have been made by serious and sincere individuals who have been caught by this notion that the cultural materials of our upper grades and high schools are of value only to those who are headed toward the professions.

That the work of the seventh and eighth grades is now very far from perfect from the point of view of providing the essential common elements of general education, we shall readily admit; but the defects are those of detailed application, not of fundamental principles. Certainly these sweeping reorganizations which propose differentiated curricula beginning with the seventh grade are an extreme and unwarranted means of solving the problem. To adopt a policy which in time is certain to force vocational choices at or before the age of twelve is to work a personal injustice to millions of immature children, most of whom will not thank you at a later day for thus prostituting their interests and selling their birthright. Most of those who advocate early vocational differentiation are not thinking of their own children. Of course a broad and liberal training is presupposed for *them*. These opportunities for early vocational choices are for other people's children. And what do the "other people" think about them? Two years ago, the Illinois Federation of Labor adopted a report from its educational committee—a report, by the way, which expressed a keener appreciation of the difficult service rendered by the public-school teacher than any similar document that I have seen coming from a group of laymen. In adopting this report the Federation went on record against vocational differentiation prior to the age of fourteen. Even Mr. Cooley, with whose advocacy of the dual system of vocational schools I have had no sympathy, has at every point in his constructive proposals safeguarded inviolably the general and liberal education of all children to the age of fourteen. And he has done this, I am told, against the pressure of some of the powerful commercial and industrial interests that he has represented. When this department last year adopted a resolution that apparently indorsed vocational differentiation at the age of twelve, a Chicago newspaper that was advocating the dual system immediately seized upon the resolution as an illustration of the inconsistency of the schoolmen. This paper said in effect: Here are the schoolmen protesting in one breath against the dual system of schools which threatens their control of the educational situation, and protesting on the high grounds of democracy; and in the next breath they adopt a policy of premature vocational differentiation tenfold more undemocratic than the dual system could ever be.

With the junior high-school movement as an agency for instituting wholesome reforms I have no quarrel. There are many things to be said in favor of segregation of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. But many prominent advocates of the movement are insisting that its essence is

differentiated curricula, and differentiated curricula will inevitably mean vocational differentiation; they will mean a separation of the sheep from the goats, and class restrictions in respect to liberal education; they will mean curtailing by two full years the common pabulum of culture so essential to a democracy; they will mean the inevitable narrowing of interests at a time when, above all times, interests should be broad and liberal. Furthermore, if the downward movement starts, it will certainly continue. Those who predicate their confidence in the junior high school on the theory that an important corner in mental development is being turned at the age of twelve can easily find another corner at the age of nine. In fact, if the junior high-school movement is based upon the assumed virtues of vocational differentiation at the age of twelve, it is simply the first step toward the Europeanizing of a democratic school system which, with all its faults, has still constituted an "educational ladder with its base in the gutter and its tip in the university."

The work of the seventh and eighth grades is open to vast improvement—in which respect, by the way, it bears a close resemblance to the work of the high school, the work of the college, the university, and the graduate school. Mortality is still too high in these seventh and eighth grades. Our boys and girls who reach the end of the compulsory education period before they graduate from the elementary school need opportunities and stimulus for further cultural and vocational training; these opportunities and this stimulus should certainly be provided. I am heartily in sympathy with every plan that promises to alleviate these conditions without at the same time surrendering, as do these present-day proposals, the fundamental principles that form the educational basis of true democracy. I am also in favor of certain differentiations all along the line that will supplement and complement the essential basis of common elements. We must provide adequately for the 10 or 20 per cent of pupils who find the present standards too rigorous to meet, and we must also provide for the 10 or 20 per cent who find the present standards too easy and who acquire enduring habits of laziness and carelessness because they are not stimulated to their best efforts. But the differentiations which these problems involve *will be primarily differentiations in teaching rather than differentiations in materials*. The problem is one of adaptation. We can never hope by any legerdemain of subjects, courses, and curricula to meet every individual difference in rate of mental growth or in capacity for mental mastery. To take the materials that have proved their worth and to adapt them to the needs, capacities, and aptitudes of individuals is the task of the teacher. As a teacher I cannot escape my responsibility merely by throwing the blame back upon the curriculum that I may be attempting to teach. The fault may be in the curriculum, but it avails me nothing to advance the faults of the curriculum as a cloak for my own inefficiency. It avails me nothing to say that I could teach all right if only I could find materials that

everybody wanted to learn. If such materials were available, my office would soon be vacant; it would necessarily disappear for it would represent a luxury without a purpose.

A great deal of our trouble today lies in the fact that we are looking upon all of the ills of education as curriculum ills, when, in reality, many if not most of them are teaching ills. And in the improvement of conditions in the seventh and eighth grades, this matter will need some attention but hardly, I take it, from the high schools and colleges. During the past few years, I have visited several hundred classes on the elementary, secondary, and higher levels of public-school work. Easily the best teaching that I have seen has been in the primary grades and in the seventh and eighth grades.¹ I shall not generalize from my limited experience, but personally I am very skeptical of any proposal which would bring down into the seventh and eighth grades the methods commonly found in many high-school classes—methods which have in turn been derived from college classrooms. Nor am I wildly enthusiastic about the prospect of reproducing among seventh- and eighth-grade teachers the attitude toward the work of teaching which characterizes many high-school teachers and many more college professors. This may be a minor point, but if my earlier proposition is correct, if the problem of differentiation to meet individual needs and capacities is primarily a teaching problem and only secondarily a curriculum problem, then it seems to me that the teachers in these grades should be men and women to whom the *art* of teaching is something more than a topic for sneering contempt.

Closely akin to this phase of our discussion is the third and final current doctrine that has intimate relations to this matter of differentiated curricula in the seventh and eighth grades. I refer to the belief that educational values are to be determined exclusively or chiefly by the relation of educational materials to the "immediately felt needs" of the pupils—the doctrine that interest is the chief measure of value. The weight of this doctrine obviously falls on the side of curriculum differentiation, for the greater the number of offerings and the fewer the common demands, the greater the likelihood that something appetizing to the individual will be found.

Again it is necessary to keep the balance. Interest is an educational agency the potency of which it would be folly to ignore. We have indeed traveled far from the rigorous doctrines of the Puritans, and no one can greatly regret that the severity, the harshness, and the repression of the olden time have given place to a recognition of pleasure and happiness and the joys of life. But, after all, the problem is to balance the two forces. *Then*, nothing was good unless it had a bad taste; today nothing is good

¹Classroom efficiency varies with supervision. Effective supervision is much more prevalent in the elementary school than in the high school. It is practically non-existent in colleges and universities. There is a prejudice against classroom supervision among secondary and higher teachers; hence the danger of the movement to reorganize the upper grades on the high-school model.

unless it tickles the palate. Both are extreme views, and either, unbalanced by its complement, will lead to individual and social disaster.

Toward a solution of these problems of seventh- and eighth-grade work—of all educational work, for that matter—we need a co-operation of these two forces. The teacher's attempt to make work fascinating and attractive must be met half-way by the aggressive effort of our boys and girls. In the last analysis, the efficiency of our educational system depends upon the capacity of our boys and girls to do "hard, uncoaxed, uncomplimented work willingly and heartily." With this attitude as a basis, the doctrine of interest may be applied to the last notch; with this attitude lacking, our present emphasis upon the doctrine of interest commits us to a pernicious individualism that is full of social perils.

Is it not an opportune moment to suggest that our schools can never be more than superficially successful until public opinion places its powerful sanction upon what may be called the duty of intelligence? The kind of preparedness that a democracy needs most is not primarily the kind that we hear so much about today. The kind of preparedness that a democracy always needs, whether to face the crises of war or the crises of peace, is that which is represented by the highest possible level of general intelligence. Under the influence of the present crisis, it should not be an impossible task to direct the thinking of the people toward this momentous problem.

There are those who believe, and believe sincerely, that duty and sacrifice are outworn virtues that have no place in a democracy. It may not be enough to argue that, if democracy can find no place for these virtues, the world will shortly find no place for democracy. Can we insure on a large scale an effective sense of duty that will impel all the children of all the people to pay the necessary price for the trained intelligence—the price of effort and sacrifice that must always remain the basic factors in mental mastery? There are boys and girls in our high schools and in our state-supported colleges and universities who look upon the opportunities and privileges that the bounty of the people provides always with the attitude that these are rights, never stopping to think that a right implies a corresponding duty. It is wrong to permit this condition to continue—wrong to these boys and girls themselves, wrong to society primarily for whose benefit public education has been established, wrong to the schools whose efficiency is impaired and whose service is restricted by the essentially individualistic attitude that our current educational doctrines deliberately encourage.

The fundamental issue in this matter of "differentiation" versus "common elements," then, is the issue between individualism and collectivism, and the struggle here is only a tiny example of the eternal struggle between these two forces. It is the struggle to find the proper balance, the adequate proportion of emphasis to give to each factor. It is the lack of a proper balance on a vastly larger scale that is drenching Europe with

blood today. Many are asking whether, in our own country, we have not gone too far in the direction of individualism. In our educational theory we have certainly gone too far, and educational practice has gone about as far as it is safe to venture without a counteracting movement. In my opinion, the time is ripe for a little tincture of iron in our educational philosophy; for the touch of a more virile idealism; for a renaissance of thoroughness and a reasonable measure of rigor; for something approaching a revival of the ideals of duty and effort.

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The efforts now being made in various states to reorganize curricula of training and instruction for children from twelve to fourteen or fifteen years of age constitute undoubtedly the most significant and important of contemporary movements in education. We are justified in assuming without argument that the scope and character of that instruction and training will be materially modified in the near future. Readjustments in administrative plans, restatement of purposes, and new developments in means and methods employed may all be expected. For some years educators have discussed plans for a "six-and-six" division of the years given to elementary and secondary education; and we now hear much about the intermediate school and the junior high school as means of providing better education for children from twelve to fourteen years of age. Already a large number of interesting experiments along these lines are being tried.

The writer holds that the theses given below can now be successfully defended, and in this paper it is proposed to contribute toward their discussion:

a) The educational needs of pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age are variable to such an extent that, if conditions of educational administration permitted, a number of courses of training and instruction, dissimilar as to many important elements and also even as to quality of results expected in common studies, should be provided.

b) The number and variety of subjects of training and instruction suited to and desirable for at least some important groups of pupils of these ages are now far too large to be properly included in the educational program of any one learner; and the number and variety of these desirable studies tend steadily to increase.

c) It is highly probable that as regards flexibility of courses of instruction and training the school suited to the needs of pupils from twelve to fourteen years of age will in essential respects repeat the history of the liberal arts (general) college and the general secondary school which, in the early stages of their history, offered uniform curricula composed in

the main of prescribed studies, but which subsequently and in ever-increasing measure found it desirable to increase the range of their studies and to give pupils wider latitude in making individual programs of study.

d) While it may safely be assumed that for some years to come at least the individual programs of instruction and training for all pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age will be required to contain studies or elements common to all, nevertheless it is even now expedient and desirable in well-organized schools, and, of course, subject to administrative limitations as to expense and also subject to certain general conditions hereafter to be described, to allow pupils to elect individual programs in large measure from among all the subject courses offered.

UNLIKE ENDS OR OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Every specific subject or even phase of subject of school work should, of course, be taught with certain conscious ends or objectives in view. These objectives or goals determining the teachers' aims are but illy defined at present, especially where the education of children from twelve to eighteen is concerned, but we may expect them to be more fully analyzed and stated in the near future, as educational processes become more scientifically correlated between social and individual needs on the one hand, and individual powers and possibilities on the other. But, in the light of present experience, it seems highly desirable to classify the objectives of the education that is adapted to children of twelve to fourteen years of age into at least two groups according to the presence or absence in each study or phase of study of certain fundamental characteristics. A few concrete cases will make this clear.

The objects to be attained in teaching a pupil to spell, for example, differ essentially from the objects to be attained thru having the same pupil listen to a good musical recital or witness a dramatic performance. It is unfortunate that educational psychologists have not given more attention to the fundamentally unlike character of the learning processes here contrasted. In teaching spelling the outcome expected on the part of the pupil is a certain quite definite and easily recognized ability to do, to execute, to express in action, and the learning process cannot be terminated economically until this end is achieved. On the other hand, the learning achieved in hearing a recital or witnessing a dramatic performance (and we are agreed that some form of learning is thus achieved) can be subjected to no profitable test of expression, of doing. We expect absorption, assimilation, growth, as results, but the final outcome is so remote from the original stimulus that we do not, ordinarily, seek to trace connections.

For the sake of convenient classification, let us call the first type of learning the alpha type, and the second the beta type. Let us repeat that the conspicuous result expected in the case of the alpha type is ability to *do*,

to *express in action*, while the most tangible result expected in the case of the beta type is *appreciation* or, in one sense of the word, *interest*.

In the seventh and eighth grades, it is probably in accordance with sound pedagogy so to teach arithmetic, penmanship, composition, spelling, and, presumably, grammar that these subjects should properly fall in the alpha class. On the other hand, literature, science, and civics are, or doubtless ought to be, so taught as properly to belong to the beta class.

History, geography, music, art, and practical arts seem to be composite. It is manifestly important, for example, that certain phases of history and geography should be so definitely taught that the resulting fixed knowledge becomes as available and inerrant as should be knowledge of the multiplication table. But it is intolerable that all geography and history as organized for children from twelve to fourteen years of age should be so taught. Most of the supplemental material used, and indeed much of the contents of the textbooks in current use, also, should be read, talked over, and the resulting impressions assimilated, but no fixed and instantly usable knowledge need be expected. Hence the proper organization of these subjects should involve a conscious and definite differentiation between alpha and beta portions, teaching units or phases.

It is difficult to determine the effect of the differentiations here proposed on music and drawing (or art), because the purposes of these subjects in elementary education are, as yet, so imperfectly defined. It is probable that both subjects are now composite, and that in the interest of effective teaching they should be differentiated into alpha and beta phases or teaching units. There is much discussion at present of the teaching of music for the purpose of developing musical appreciation. Picture-study has a place in some schools for a similar purpose. Clearly these are beta phases of these subjects. But it is also probably desirable that some children should be taught to execute music—that is, to read musical notation accurately, to sing, or to play. These are clearly alpha phases. Perhaps, also, upper-grade pupils should be given definite drill in drawing as an art of expression—also an alpha phase.

Now the distinction here made is of fundamental importance in any discussion of flexible courses, or elective systems, because of the probability that the right and expediency on the part of the school of prescribing studies or phases of studies applies with far greater force to the alpha group than to the beta group. For one thing, the processes of learning in the alpha group are much more arduous, as a rule, than in the beta group; but in the alpha group, at least for the elementary school, will be found many of the common intellectual tools of civilized society—the arts of oral and written expression, receptive (or silent) reading, definite knowledge of geographical and historical facts, simple principles of hygiene, generally accepted rules of behavior, etc. On the other hand, learning in the beta group is easier, or should be, if needed adaptation is made for individual interests;

and in respect to appreciation studies generally, society can well afford to have and perhaps even to procure a large degree of variability rather than of uniformity among its members. We should all spell alike and have in common a definite knowledge of some of the facts of American history; but it is of advantage rather than disadvantage that our people should vary greatly as to the fields or individual examples of literature, and of history, in which they find interest and satisfaction.

It should, then, theoretically prove possible for us to enumerate all the desirable ends or objectives in the systematic education of young people from twelve to fifteen years of age, and to classify them into the two divisions suggested above, according as the learning sought is specific, definite, and instantly usable in active life, or as it results in appreciation, taste, modified sentiment, ideal, and undifferentiated background of knowledge (experience, intellectual nurture).

THE POSSIBLE CURRICULUM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH
OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL

In order to set clearly before ourselves, without unnecessary restrictions, the possibilities of flexibility in schools for children from twelve to fourteen years of age, let us assume a very large city school receiving only pupils who have completed sixth-grade work, and designed to retain these pupils for but two or three years. Let us assume further that the school possesses financial means sufficient to enable it to organize and offer any kind of instruction for which there is a substantial demand, and which in the judgment of the authorities it is wise to offer to pupils of the stated years and qualifications. Let us furthermore assume, for the sake of concrete description, that the work is offered as units, a unit consisting of the equivalent of five weekly periods of 60 minutes each, extending thru twelve weeks, to cover both instruction and recitation, and any other form of exclusive claim on the attention and energy of the pupil of average power for the 60 minutes. Theoretically, then, in view of recent progress in enriching elementary-school curricula and in urging desirable new forms of instruction and training, the following subject courses might profitably be offered in Grades VII and VIII in such a school, the alpha and beta units being separately indicated:

Name of Subject	Alpha Units	Beta Units
(Figures at left refer to explanatory notes at end of section)		
(1) English expression:		
(2) Oral expression	6	
(3) Written expression	6	
(4) Grammar	3	
(5) Word analysis	1	
(6) Spelling	1 or 2	
(7) Penmanship	1 or 2	
(8) Alphabet	1	
(9) Silent reading	1 or 2	

	Name of Subject	Alpha Units	Beta Units
(10)	General history		6
(11)	American history	3	3 or 6
(12)	Community civics	1	2
(13)	Literature	1	5
(14)	General moving pictures		3
(15)	Music, individual vocal	3	
(16)	Music, chorus	1	
(17)	Music, piano	3	
(18)	Music, appreciation		3
(19)	Music, band	1	
(20)	Drawing, representative	2	
(21)	Art, appreciation		3 or 6
(22)	Geography	1 or 2	2 or 4
(23)	Science, general	1	2 or 5
(24)	French	3 or 6	
(25)	German	3 or 6	
(26)	Spanish	3 or 6	
(27)	Latin	1 or 2	2 or 4
(28)	Industrial arts		3 or 6
(29)	Agricultural arts		3 or 6
(30)	Commercial arts		3 or 6
(31)	Household arts		3 or 6
(32)	Arithmetic, commercial	3 or 6	
(33)	Arithmetic, industrial	3 or 6	
(34)	Arithmetic, home	3	
(35)	Arithmetic, geometry, and algebra	3 or 6	
(36)	Hygiene	1 or 2	2 or 4
(37)	Physical training	1 or 2	5 or 4
(38)	Vocational guidance		3 or 6

(1) To include all general studies designed to give greater power in the use of the vernacular, oral and written.

(2) Including reading aloud, "speaking," correct use of voice, "oral composition" (or sustained delivery to audience), debate, correct usage, etc., all from standpoint of effort to secure definite attainments.

(3) Composition, letter-writing, correct usage in writing, etc.

(4) Systematic analysis, with correction of personal solecisms.

(5) Origin and structure of common words.

(6) Chiefly to meet individual needs. Good spellers excused.

(7) Chiefly to meet individual needs. Good writers excused.

(8) Drill in alphabet, to produce readiness in use of indexes, dictionaries, etc.

(9) Drill in technique. The subject not clearly defined as yet, but evidence exists that it is very important.

(10) A general reading and lecture course—no drill.

(11) Selection of special details and fundamental generalization for drill for alpha units; general and interesting phases of subjects as beta units.

(12) To include a small amount of definitely organized knowledge as alpha units. Beta units to cover thrift, reading about sanitation, practice voting, school self-government, readings, visits, etc.

(13) Close analytical study of one or two selections, and certain central facts of literature, under alpha units. Beta units to include home reading, library reading, etc., but

no requirement as to uniformity of material for all pupils. Individual choices, subject to approval of instructor.

(14) That is, not definitely correlated with other subjects, and is designed chiefly to enhance discriminative appreciation of moving pictures as a means of education and diversion.

(15) Drill for pupils having marked capacity to profit from such study.

(16) Selected group desiring drill.

(17) For selected pupils desiring definite training.

(18) All available forms of music offered to all desiring such training.

(19) Selected group desiring definite training.

(20) A general course; additional specialized work in correlation with practical arts.

(21) Plastic and decorative, and in part correlated with practical arts, but should include pictures, room decoration, architecture, advertising illustration, and moving pictures.

(22) Separation of formal or drill phases from appreciative phase, preserving correlation, by means of specific "teaching units" for both alpha and beta phases.

(23) Largely interpretive of scientific aspects of surroundings.

(24)-(26) To produce mastery of spoken or of written language, according to pre-determined aims.

(27) For drill in part. Subject could be reorganized to give insight and appreciation (beta units) in part.

(28) Miscellaneous shop experience on projects from wide range of industries, including reading about the industries, and other means of enriching experience. Projects from textile, printing, metal-working, woodworking, food-packing, transportation, and other industries.

(29) Including gardening, poultry-raising, correlated reading, etc.

(30) Typewriting, elementary bookkeeping, commercial penmanship, commercial readings, visits to commercial establishments, etc. Much of it on practical project basis.

(31) Primarily to build on home experience and to enhance appreciation.

(32)-(34) To be definitely practical subjects, correlated with practical arts courses.

(35) Recommended for pupils expecting to enter high school and college.

(36) To include certain alpha phases for definite knowledge and practice—teeth, posture, etc.—and others (beta) for insight and wide appreciation.

(37) Some definite physical training to cure defects or to prevent apprehended defects (alpha units). Games, "boy scout" activities, miscellaneous developmental play, athletics, etc., for beta units.

(38) Readings, individual conferences, lectures.

THE VARYING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN OF TWELVE TO FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE

The foregoing idealized curriculum shows clearly that there is even now available for possible use in courses of study for the junior high or intermediate school many times as much material as any one pupil can compass. Common experience teaches that hardly any subject is included above which cannot be "used" in some educational way, and to the interest and advantage certainly of individuals and even of groups of pupils. But there are no great numbers of these units that can reasonably be regarded as essential to all pupils alike, and which therefore should be universally prescribed as positive requirements. Equally, there are few

that any pupil should be prohibited from taking if he wishes—here called negative prescription.

But what shall be the bases of these positive and negative prescriptions? They certainly include at least the following: (a) the limitations imposed by the varying native capacities of pupils; (b) the requirement that each pupil, even against his own desire and that of his parents, shall, as a part of his right to a protected childhood and as a logical accompaniment of compulsory school attendance, be required to receive the instruction and training that will probably be necessary or greatly advantageous to him in later life; and (c) the right of society to have each person fitted as far as may be to take his part as citizen, parent, soldier, and worker in a world where all human activities are increasingly socialized and corporate in character.

No argument is required to prove that children of twelve to fourteen years of age vary greatly as to natural capacity. Some are so talented that they can carry a large program of studies with ease and profit. Others are fortunate if they can, only at best, meet minimum requirements. Some are born with natural gifts for music, foreign language, and drawing. These pupils can master their favorite subjects with an ease not possible to children less gifted in these directions. It is the observation of every teacher that some children have inferior natural capacity for arithmetic and other forms of mathematics, while others find only slight difficulty in these subjects, even in portions where rigorous abstract thinking is required. These natural limitations will therefore be influential in determining what large numbers of pupils will, or will not, be allowed to take.

On the other hand, the rights of the child, irrespective of his own desires in early youth or those of his guardians, to obtain or be given the education essential to a fair start in life are of paramount importance. This right applies not only as regards those minimum attainments in reading, writing, spelling, and number which are to be expected of all normal children; it should include also the requirement that children, manifestly talented in certain directions, shall be obliged at a suitable age to begin studies, such as foreign language, that may later, as far as can reasonably be foreseen, prove essential in the careers and positions of personal influence toward which their native powers seem to direct them.

Finally, no one will dispute the obligation on the part of society to require all persons to acquire in childhood at least the minimum of knowledge and training which is essential to their successful participation in corporate life. Not only are the arts of expression to be included here, along with moral training, knowledge of civic facts and responsibilities, and everyday arithmetic; eventually each person may be required to submit to the training required for a vocation, and for the work of the soldier. Society must give this degree of education as a means of self-preservation.

But, when an extensive curriculum of subject courses is offered in a school, the burden of proof rests on the school to establish a strong presumption as to the necessity of the units which are prescribed, whether for all or for those electing stated courses. Subject to the requirement that the pupil and his parents provide for the full use of the pupil's time, the learner should be free to elect his own program of studies, unless the school authorities can definitely establish the desirability of prescription.

THE PROS AND CONS OF THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

Clearly, then, educators charged with organizing and administering education for persons from twelve to fifteen years of age are, or soon will be, confronted by conditions which constitute, if the distorted figure may be permitted, a three-horned dilemma: (a) Possible educational offerings (or opportunities for giving particular kinds of instruction and training) are becoming many fold more numerous than can be taken by any one individual or group of individuals presenting like characteristics; (b) the native capacities of pupils or of distinctive possible groups of pupils vary greatly; and (c) some subjects or phases of subjects, as yet not fully determined or defined, should in some cases be prescribed for all, and in other cases for all having stated forms of ability or probable future fields of usefulness. How shall the administrator proceed under these conditions? Shall he disregard, as he has heretofore done, the first and second considerations, and insist on a limited curriculum of prescribed studies for all, thus ignoring opportunities for varied training and instruction? Shall he include in his curricula all possible studies, but segregate them in rigid courses, so that each shall constitute a fixed system in itself, like a railroad route, of such a character that the pupil, once *en route*, cannot cross to another line, and can change his route of travel only by going back to the starting-point again? Or shall he simply organize the school offerings into one long series and allow the pupil to range and choose *ad libitum*? Manifestly, each of these courses is open to objection. They are all psychologically unsound.

In reality, each method is desirable and feasible as to certain elements or types of studies in the curriculum. Some studies or subject courses should be prescribed for all pupils; some should be prescribed only as component elements of definite courses, and therefore to be required only of learners electing such courses, while, possibly, elective to others; and some should be freely elective to all. But it is here contended again that as regards all prescribed work, whether generally prescribed or prescribed for those electing specified courses, a heavy burden rests upon the authorities making the prescriptions to establish the presumption that it is *better* that these prescriptions should thus be made than that the pupil, subject to reasonable supervision from home and school, and to the general requirement that he must employ all of his school time profitably, shall freely elect his own course (subject, also, of course, to the limitations imposed by

the necessities of efficient and economical school administration). Here we are, of course, at once involved in the old debate as to the merits and demerits of the elective system and the capacities of learners wisely to use such a system.

All of us have read (and perhaps participated in) lengthy discussions as to the elective system in college and school. We were long ago told that learners—whether college Juniors or high-school Freshmen—were not old enough or wise enough or earnest enough to choose their own studies to advantage. They would usually choose “snap” courses. Their programs, under freedom of election, would consist of unco-ordinated subject-courses, the resulting learning would be fragmentary, discursive, and unsubstantial. “Easy instructors” would be in favor, real efficiency would disappear, and chaos would prevail.

It is a fact that in nearly all debate as to the elective system, its opponents have had the stronger arguments. The proponents, while usually able eventually to win the day in action because of favoring circumstances, have never, it would seem, formulated the most fundamental and strongest arguments in favor of their position.

It must surely be admitted that the pupil, whether in seventh, or tenth, or fifteenth (college Junior) grade, is but poorly equipped to make so momentous a choice as that involved in electing the studies he will henceforth pursue. Almost equally, after college graduation, he will be but poorly prepared to elect his profession, his place of future work, his physician, his political party, a woman to be his wife. Here we express, of course, only an admission that our system of education includes as yet hardly any provision for adequately guiding the individual in the matter of many, if not all, of the important decisions he must make in life.

For, if we ask what is the alternative to free election of studies, even, let us say, in the college period of education, we are confronted by the fact that except in rare instances there exists as yet no organized procedure whereby the *individual*, with his limitations of capacity and opportunity, his interests, and his obligations to society, can be guided into making choices that best meet or serve his needs. The opponents of election have probably never asserted that they were ready to provide the personal attention and scientific insight that would be required adequately to have prescribed for the individual student on the basis of sound diagnosis the best program of studies for *him*. It is certain that in college and secondary school this could not be done, for the sufficient reason that never yet have educators in those institutions accomplished anything substantial in the way of capacity for making scientific diagnoses of the capacities, limitations, and probable opportunities of individual learners.

Furthermore, even assuming that such diagnoses were possible at any period, the prepossessions of the advocates of rigid courses—or, usually, of one rigid course—would probably have prevented them from studying

the variant qualities of the minds of their students, again for the sufficient reason that the all-important consideration, as teachers have believed, was the subject to be taught—Latin, algebra, Greek, rhetoric, logic, physics, etc.—and not at all the characteristics of the individual learner.

In other words, the historical alternative to free election, at least of courses, if not subjects, has been rigid prescription as determined by inflexible tradition or custom or educational theory. The variability of learners as to capacities, interests, and needs has been ignored. Traditions and dogmas as to the superior or even unique educational values of certain ancient subjects of study have governed. The newer subjects were intrinsically inferior, if not worthless, educationally; hence any choice of them has been regarded as necessarily bad. The thought that election of studies is bad has always been fathered by the wish that it should prove bad from the standpoint of the opponent whose favorite studies might not be elected.

The various attempts heretofore made to modify, on the one hand, the rigidity of the inflexible one-course curriculum, and, on the other, to prevent the wasteful possibilities of completely free election, have constituted admissions that adjustments of courses and studies, based partly upon the capacities of learners, and partly upon their varying needs, are highly desirable and probably feasible. But it is a fact that no satisfactory statement of the principles which should guide in the matter has, as yet, been formulated. There is still too often the naïve assumption that the "system"—that is, the collection of educational dogmas and traditions as expressed by unprogressive educators, usually thru conference or committee edict—knows best what the "student" needs and should have. This is not an individual student, James Ferguson, for example, but an abstract human being, an educational John Doe, who has met entrance requirements and who is probably assumed to be taking his class attendance in the same spirit in which he would accept a necessary, tho distasteful, sentence to a hospital.

It is still too early, perhaps, to formulate the underlying principles which should govern flexibility of curricula and courses; but it is possible even now to apply to the possible junior high-school curriculum the best results of contemporary theory and practice as to this educational problem in secondary school and college.

CONTROLLING PRINCIPLES OF FLEXIBILITY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

If we take, for example, the entire range of subject-courses that it is possible to offer in the junior high school, it is clear that all cannot be regarded as being on the same footing from the standpoint either of election or of prescription. Some are essential to all, many essential to none. Some are essential in certain courses, others essential to no particular course. On the other hand, there are many that may well be regarded as educational luxuries—highly pleasurable to those who can afford them and surely not

injurious to any who can take them without detriment to their more necessary work. But what are the subject-courses that belong in those respective categories? It is difficult for us to reach sound conclusions here because our prepossessions are at present so much stronger and more clearly defined than are any available findings based on scientific study. In the idealized curriculum for a junior high school given above there are found from 58 to 88 alpha units (or subject-courses to be taught with the aim of producing power to do), and from 52 to 82 beta units (or subject-courses in which *appreciation* is a controlling purpose). No one average pupil, probably, could take in two years more than 30 of the total 140 units supposed to be offered. A slow pupil could take perhaps not to exceed 20, while an exceptionally strong pupil could take 40. What requirements shall we make, what advice offer, and what liberty allow, to our junior high-school pupil confronted by the foregoing curriculum?

First, let us repeat that our attitude toward the alpha units should not be the same as that toward the beta units. If the beta units are taught (or, better word, offered) with due regard to appropriate pedagogical principles, we may experience difficulty in keeping pupils from them, or, at least, from some of them. They should prove inherently interesting to children as do play, the "movies," sports, and certain kinds of fiction, or as the opera, fiction, travel, and association prove attractive to adults. On the other hand, the alpha units present, in the main, the characteristics of the harder work of the world. The interest with which they are pursued must often be a derived interest—derived, in some cases even, from fear of punishment, or fear of forfeiture of desired approval, or from love of gain or approval. Hence it can at the outset be asserted that prescription will be much more necessary in the case of the alpha than of the beta units.

Let us assume that a careful study of the capacities of average children of twelve to fourteen years of age, coupled with an equally careful study of the objectives, individual and social, which should be realized thru their education, shows that it is expedient and desirable that their two-year programs could and should include substantially 15 alpha units and 15 beta units. We might then establish the following rules to govern the making of individual courses:

- a) Any pupil deficient as to spelling, writing, and silent reading according to some definite standard shall be required to take these alpha subjects.
- b) Every pupil shall elect four alpha units in English expression, in addition to those required under (a).
- c) Every pupil shall elect at least six units designed to provide a definite course in one of the following fields: (i) foreign language and mathematics; (ii) commercial arts; (iii) industrial arts (boys); (iv) household arts (girls); (v) agricultural arts.
- d) No pupil shall have fewer than 15 or more than 20 alpha units.
- e) Every pupil shall elect at least 10 beta units.

CONCLUSIONS

The following are the conclusions of this paper:

1. The reorganization of education designed for young people from twelve to fourteen is one of the most important of contemporary movements in the field of general education.

2. It is right and proper that this period should continue to be reserved for general education (cultural, physical, and social education), and that no specific vocational education should be offered in it; but (a) vocational guidance, based on communicated information (books, lectures, individual conferences), observation of men at work in vocations, and participation in simple processes derived from industry, all designed as phases of general education, is acceptable and desirable; and (b) differentiated courses in practical arts, partly as a means of enabling each pupil to find himself, and partly as a means of acquiring valuable experience in reception and expression or execution (not necessarily contributing to vocational power however), are desirable.

3. Central schools should, as far as practicable, be organized for all pupils from twelve to fourteen, to include not only the normal in grade, but the retarded as well. As far as practical, retarded pupils should take the same studies as pupils of normal grade; and where, in the more technical studies, they cannot do this, special courses containing work especially adapted to their needs should be provided.

4. Whenever it seems that a new study can profitably be offered to a substantial group of pupils of these ages, it should be introduced.

5. It is to be expected that many more studies or subject-courses will be offered than can be taken by any one pupil; and hence will arise the necessity of election of courses or subjects.

6. In providing for the selection of individual programs, prescribed studies should be reduced to the minimum, and large freedom allowed to the pupil and his parents to elect, subject to full advice, the subject-courses to be taken by the pupil. Choices made by pupils may frequently be unwise, but rarely more unwise than the courses prescribed arbitrarily by the authorities.

ADDRESS

WOODBIDGE N. FERRIS, GOVERNOR OF MICHIGAN

I want to have it distinctly understood that I appear before you as an educational exhorter. I haven't a new thing to say to you; I haven't anything to tear down. I just want to present two or three very old notions and exhort you to their observance.

If I were to organize an educational system, I would make for its center health—h-e-a-l-t-h, health. I ask teachers to care as much about health as the great industrial institutions of this country care about

health. If you will do that much, there will be important changes in the United States in a comparatively short time. Our great factories are today houses of glass. What for? Light, light, and more light. They are so built that they can have air and more air. The industrial world has found out that it pays in dollars and cents to have light and air, and of course any industrial institution that has light and air has all other sanitary provisions.

Many of our school buildings, viewed in the light of what I have already said, are unfit for the use of our boys and girls. You say, "What can we do about it?" You can do everything. It is about time schoolmasters and schoolma'ams came to realize the power they possess. You can do almost any wise thing if you have a mind to, or rather, if you want to.

Tonight I make the appeal for air and sunlight. In Michigan we have a state sanatorium for tuberculosis patients. This sanatorium is full of patients, every single case a well-defined case of tuberculosis. They are sleeping out of doors, living out of doors, playing out of doors, working a little out of doors—everything out of doors except dressing and undressing; on account of the peculiar usages here in America, particularly in sanatoriums, they are obliged to dress indoors. The same restrictions are not placed on people who are well as on people who are ill. We know that the only means by which we can help these people is to have them live out of doors. Well, what under heaven has Michigan and the other states in the Union against people who haven't tuberculosis? I want you to answer that question. My state is going to stamp out tuberculosis, that is, kill tuberculosis, get rid of it somehow. I ask our officials to take hold of the educational machinery of my state and see if they cannot do something to get well men and women to live as they ought to live with reference to air and sunshine. Now, you yourselves don't do it. You don't believe in fresh air, you don't want fresh air, you won't have fresh air; you won't live out of doors, you don't want to get out of doors, and consequently what hope is there?

Microbes do not thrive out of doors; they don't sit up in the trees nor on brick or stone walls. They are indoors. Every cold, every case of pneumonia, is an indoor disease. Let us come a little closer to our subject. What can you people do with the present schoolhouses? You cannot have them condemned and torn down; you cannot build new buildings in order to have air and sunshine. You can take out the lower or upper sash, and put in a cotton-cloth screen for the entire year. You will use more fuel possibly, but you will have fresh air and better air, less sickness, and teach a few boys and girls how to live and have health instead of tuberculosis or any other disease. Will you do it? No, the majority of you won't.

And what else can you teachers do? On every sunshiny day, on every fair day, in the rural and village schools, you can take your boys and

girls out of doors and conduct out of doors every class that can be conducted successfully out of doors. I dare you to do it. There has never been a schoolroom built to equal God's schoolroom. I would much rather have the boys and girls out of doors, now and then glancing at a bird in a tree or a squirrel scampering around, than observing a curtain when it falls down inside.

I go further, I plead in behalf of medical inspection. I hold that every American child, when he enters the schoolroom, has the right, if the state is going to demand what it does, to have just as good teeth as modern science can give him; he has a right to have a pair of eyes just as good and efficient as modern science can give him; he has right to have just as sound ears and efficient ears as modern science can give him; just as good a throat and nasal cavities as modern science can give him; just as good a body as modern science can give him. You agree with me, don't you? Is there any possibility of disagreement? You see then what I mean by health in the schoolroom. In five years, you can perceptibly improve conditions thru your own efforts along the lines I have suggested, without state aid. It is up to you. By the way, the people will respond. They will listen to you.

We have in this country a tremendous school equipment, costing millions and millions of dollars, and for whom? Your traditional answer is, for the boys and girls of a certain age. Talk about superstition—I haven't any language whereby I can describe my contempt for this answer. And what has it done? It has paralyzed the majority of people, so that, when a man whose hair is like mine speaks about getting an education, he is told that he is too old. When a man or woman is too old to learn, there is only one thing I can suggest. He should take a shovel and pick, go to the family cemetery, where I hope he has bought a lot, dig a grave, get into it and stay there.

In our democracy, public schools should be for all of the people all of the time. We now use them less than 50 per cent of the time. The remainder of the time they are idle. City schools should be open six nights in a week and six days in the week. There are many schoolmasters who think that the people would not take advantage of these privileges.

I love the flag. I like to hear folks talk about it; but I have always had a profound admiration for the people who carry the flag. I want to say that one of the highest forms of patriotism in this country consists in carrying out the idea I have suggested, of giving all of the people in this country an opportunity to acquire the fundamentals of an education, and especially an opportunity to learn to speak and write English. Oh, what a gigantic influence it would have on the solution of industrial problems, on the solution of national preparedness!

One other thing: Don't forget the few fundamentals we have taught in the public schools ever since they were organized. Above all, teach a

few things so that they will stick. Isn't it humiliating to hear the graduate of a college or university say: "Oh yes, I have been out of college five years; I cannot read my Virgil, I cannot read my Cicero, it is all gone." Or, "I once knew a little something of geometry, but it has vanished; I knew something of chemistry, but it is gone." Don't mention it again as long as you live. What is the use of advertising your foolishness? Don't take particular pains to mention it. I am not afraid of any of those fellows. I am afraid of the fellow who has learned something that has stayed with him. There is E. A. Strong, professor of physical sciences, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan, who is now nearing his eightieth year. He has taught science all his life. If an Ypsilanti girl tomorrow should say: "Doctor, I am puzzled a little with that passage in Virgil," he would read it as tho he had only learned it yesterday. He mastered the classics at Union College. I am not arguing as to whether you should teach the classics or not, but whatever you do teach, teach it so that it will stick. The greatest teacher I ever had was Herman Krüsi. He covered plane geometry in just forty weeks, but in some of the high schools in Michigan the period is sixteen weeks. Every theorem was presented in the form of a problem. No textbook was used. Every student presented his own solution. I would like to find a Krüsi student in the United States who today does not know his geometry. I know plane geometry and I have not taught the subject in twenty years. Somebody says: "Do you teach geometry that way now in your own school?" No, because I am compelled to cover a certain amount of ground in a certain number of units of time. Why so? Many of my students enter colleges and universities, and I must meet the requirements of these institutions.

Please don't think lightly of my appeal for health, my appeal for all the people, my appeal for throness.

ADDRESS

MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA

In the United States we have gone far to put to the test a new theory of government—that the will of a majority expressed in law, constitutional and statutory, is the sole and adequate guidance for all the people. We have put democracy on trial. We have proclaimed its adequacy. We have unhesitatingly subscribed to its beneficent operation. We stake on it our lives, our property, and our sacred honor. We have at all times, with bated breath, in the solemn hours of reflection, asked ourselves whether after all we have found in our democracy, as it works its issues, the golden good we are proud to claim that it holds. What gives this heart-tremor, this tender solicitude, this half-awakened fear that perhaps we have not, after all, found the pot of gold at the end of our rainbow of hope and faith?

Why are we half fearful to put our democracy fully to the test? Is it because we question its fundamental rightness? Absolutely no. What visioning souls wrought in Independence Hall we hold sacred and secure. The doubt is born, if at all, because we have not given to democracy its adequate channels of expression. We have not been fair to our own dominant ideals.

What we need to do—and do it now—is to make possible a complete reliance upon our theory of government and put it to its fullest use. To do this we must unhesitatingly lay larger reliance upon education. An enlightened democracy is the hope of the nation. The school is the hope of the Republic.

This agency, devised by wise insight and carried steadily into the generations of our advance, needs re-establishment and rejuvenation in these stress years of our advance. The whole theory of preparedness is fundamentally a theory of education. Our armies and our navies, the front line of preparedness, and our industries, the secondary line of defense, are alike dependent upon a trained, skilled, intelligent, efficient citizenry. The resources of a people, material and spiritual, are its safeguards. Education is the guaranty of resourcefulness.

Our educational system under control of our fundamental theory of government is not only the most potential agency to stabilize our national ideals, but it is the agency pre-eminent for their completest realization. No equipment of material good can replace a training of our people into a homogeneous nation. This fact is emphasized as one considers the far reaches of racial ideals that here fuse and fashion this mighty people. From every land and from every clime they have come, they are coming, they will come, and, unless these all pass the portals of our educational system, and in its halls get essential baptism of American ideals and achievements, and a keen understanding of national purposes, we cannot hope for a nation whose democracy is its boast and its certain permanence.

We turn then to the school and demand for it a much larger place in the American mind. It is increasingly manifest that it, best of all our institutions, trains for service, for efficiency, for living, and for promoting the government whose agency it is. We must in the school train for co-operation in all civic duties, for competition in all industrial activities, for moral steadfastness in all social endeavor, and for the intertwining of these into one serviceable and substantial system of national equipment.

We have committed ourselves to a vast enterprise—the making of men and women fit for the Republic. There must be no looking backward. We must go steadily on until the proud boast, "I am an American citizen," shall be a synonym for civic pride, industrial efficiency, and moral and religious worth. Then we shall be prepared—not for war—but for the peace that passeth all understanding and is permanent.

ADDRESS

FRANK B. WILLIS, GOVERNOR OF OHIO

In these times we hear much about conservation, a word to which the last ten years have given a new significance. We hear of the conservation of the public domain, of forests, of game, of insectivorous and song birds, of water power, of mineral resources, and the public health. All these are important. I wish to say, however, that to the teachers of the country is committed the momentous problem of the conservation of the intellectual and moral energy of the Republic.

We see around us in the material world evidences of the prodigalities of nature. We see life in myriad forms struggling for existence. We see in the elements the manifestation of mighty powers that are yet to be utilized in the service of man. In the motion of the air as it sweeps over the country and in the power of the restless sea thundering on rocky shore, there is sufficient energy to heat and light and move the world.

To the educators of the United States is committed the intellectual and moral energy, in large measure undeveloped, of those who will soon not only shape the destinies of the Republic, but constitute the Republic itself: for what is our nation but the aggregate of its citizenship? On you more largely than on any other body of men in the United States devolves the problem of the conservation and development of the energies of the children of the nation.

Garfield once said, before he was president: "I always feel like taking off my hat to the American boy. I do not know what possibilities are wrapped up under his plain jacket." To the schoolmasters of the land are reserved the privilege, the opportunity, and the responsibility of developing these large possibilities. The intellectual and moral powers must not be dissipated or frittered away and wasted. They must be directed to useful and beneficent ends. It is a great thing to attain dexterity in kicking the football or plying the oar in physical contests, but it must be made just as worthy in the public eye to wield the hammer and the trowel, to guide the lathe and the drill, to follow the plow and drive the harvester thru fields of golden grain; and hand in hand with manual training must go the intellectual and moral development suited to the varied needs of our American citizenship.

On Washington's birthday there was published in this country a detailed statement setting forth the pre-eminence of the United States among the nations of the earth. In making comparisons, population was considered, but much was properly made of the fact that the efficiency of the individual citizen must be taken into consideration. The enormous population of China and the relatively large population of Russia do not give them a dominant position among the nations of the earth. By careful calculation, the expert arrives at the conclusion that "the United States exceeds all

other nations in size of effective population." In wealth and resources our dominance is even more pronounced. If this superiority is to be maintained, the energies of the rising generation must be conserved and the average individual citizen of the United States, morally, mentally, physically—in all that goes to make up efficiency—must be the peer, yea, even the superior, of the average citizen of the most favored nation beyond our borders.

To make him such is in large measure the work of those who are assembled here. The subjects for discussion on your program show that you are awake to this fact. You are met to discuss practical educational problems of momentous import. I bid you Godspeed in your work. With the realization of your ideals we shall have not only "a new conception of nationalism," but a new nationalism and a new patriotism that shall include all in the old that brought us to our present high estate, and add to it all that is to lead us to the greater Republic yet to be.

We hear much of preparedness both for national defense and for national elections. Probably both are necessary. Certainly the President must be backed up with power if his efforts for peace are to be successful. Our foreign policy must be something more than an international school of correspondence. Peace is our passion: "our interest is in concord not in conflict"; yet we must have an army and a navy big enough to protect every American citizen wherever he has a right to be. On the wings of a new American-built merchant marine, Old Glory must be carried to all the ports of commerce of the world. With this preparation for defense, not conquest, must come also industrial preparedness to maintain our standard of living and thinking. Let us inculcate the homely virtues of honesty, hard work, and hopefulness. One of the qualifications absolutely essential for permanent success in public or private life is old-fashioned, square-toed honesty. Our young people must be made to understand the dignity of labor and the honor of toil. Human nature is so constituted that it is best developed by toil and battle and struggle. The coral insect perishes where the currents are gentle, but grows and thrives under the thunderous attacks of waves that would grind granite to powder. With honesty and hard work and good cheer let there be coupled a patriotism that knows only one country and one flag. The elements of our cosmopolitan civilization are diverse, yet they become one in the democracy of the American schoolroom. This thought has been well expressed by an Ohio school-teacher in the following lines:

Briton or Teuton, it matters not,
Once we've been thru the Melting Pot;
Changed forever each heart and mind,
Old World fealty left behind;
Henceforth, Yankee, in blood and bone,
We have one country and one alone:

AMERICA.

Land of the larger, nobler view,
Land of the immigrant's dreams come true;
Country where tyranny, caste, and clan
Yield to the sacred rights of man;
Nation whose glorious history
Brightens the hope of humanity;
Storehouse of treasure, rich and vast,
Gift of a providential past,
Spared by fortune of time and place
To nurture a new and favored race;
Land of our opportunity,
Land of our children's destiny:

AMERICA.

If you do well your work of teaching honor, industry, optimism, patriotism, and faith in a Power not ourselves that makes for righteousness, the future of the Republic is safe.

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON—AN APPRECIATION

O. T. CORSON, EDITOR, "OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY," COLUMBUS, OHIO

Born a slave, without a record of either the place or date of his birth; permitted to grow up in the midst of the direst poverty, without any of the refining influences or tender associations so essential to the happiness and welfare of a little child; compelled at a very early age to work in the salt and coal mines of West Virginia, under conditions which the most heartless exploiter of child labor, in these days, even if the law permitted, would hesitate to impose upon any human being; with no opportunity to go to school and satisfy his insatiable thirst for knowledge; without even a chance to play for which the soul of every child hungers; without a word of encouragement or a whisper of hope from anyone, with the possible exception of his kind but poor and ignorant mother; without even a family name; with everything in both heredity and environment against him and with nothing in his favor: these are a few of the countless and apparently insurmountable difficulties which surround the birth, childhood, and youth of the man in whose honor the members of this Association, representative educators of a nation, now reverently pause for a few moments, in their consideration of educational problems, in order that an opportunity may be given to pay a brief but very imperfect tribute to his memory.

Can it be that out of the depths of such hopeless conditions, there could come, not only a great leader of his race, but also one of the greatest educators and philanthropists which any age or race has ever produced—a man of sterling character and brilliant achievements, who would be honored by degrees from some of America's greatest universities, whose fame would extend across the seas, and whose untimely death would be sincerely mourned by all who knew his worth and work? Certainly, a half-century ago, no

one would have prophesied such a future for such a child, and even today, with an intimate knowledge of the achievements of the all too brief life of Booker T. Washington, it is exceedingly difficult for us to believe what we so certainly know.

It is pleasing and profitable to turn from a consideration of the discouraging conditions which surround the beginnings of the life of this poor boy, with no promise of success, to an enumeration of a few of the marked stages in the steady growth and development of that life in the years that were to follow.

His first taste of knowledge, as represented by symbols, in learning to recognize and make "18," the number allotted to his stepfather in marking the barrels at the salt mine; his advancement in mastering the alphabet and thus teaching himself to read; his success from the start, in the midst of the most disheartening circumstances, in carrying out the "one resolve," which he tells us remained with him constantly in a "determination to secure an education at any cost"; his training in the home of Mrs. Ruffner, where he laid the foundation of all his future success by learning to do everything exactly as it ought to be done and precisely when it should be done; the passing of his entrance examination to Hampton, which consisted in sweeping and dusting a room so perfectly that Miss Mackie, the head teacher, who was not at all prepossessed in his favor, at once recognized in him the qualities certain to win; his hard work as a student, which won for him a place upon the honor roll of commencement speakers; his unselfish devotion to his work as a teacher in the school at his former home, where he stood ready at any time, day or night, to teach anything he knew to anyone who wanted to learn; his later study in Washington, where his observations and experiences served to deepen his conviction of the necessity of industrial training for his race; his call to Hampton as a teacher, which furnished him additional opportunity to prepare for his future career; his life-work at Tuskegee, extending over a little more than a third of a century, beginning in 1881 with practically no equipment of any kind, with himself as the only teacher, and with only a score and a half of students, and ending with his untimely death a short time since, in the Southland to which he was always so devotedly loyal, at the home he so dearly loved, located in the midst of one of the most noted educational communities in all the world, with its property valued in millions, its teachers numbered by hundreds, and its students enrolled by thousands: these are only a few of the many achievements recorded in the life of the man whose memory we cherish, who had the power to turn emergencies into opportunities, and win victories in the midst of conditions which ordinarily insure defeat.

How he made himself the master of his fate and won for himself such a prominent and permanent place in the educational world is an interesting study. Fortunately, the secret of his phenomenal success is not enshrouded in any mystery to be solved by some biographer with a theory of his own

invention. Booker T. Washington is his own biographer. In *Up from Slavery*, with its wealth of interesting and instructive contents and its charm of simple and direct style, he tells the wonderful story of his struggles and achievements. In it all there is not a single note of complaint or bitterness because of his hardships and not a word of boastfulness regarding his attainments. Every difficulty which beset his pathway, he seems to have expected and to have utilized as a means of growth and development, while every special recognition which resulted from his efforts came to him as a surprise for which he was always profoundly grateful.

The fundamental principle upon which he constructed his philosophy of life and built his hope of success is found in his own statement, frequently repeated in modified form, that "every persecuted individual and race should get much consolation out of the great human law, which is universal and eternal, that merit, no matter under what skin found, is, in the long run, recognized and rewarded."

He believed with all of the intensity of his being that merit, and merit only, would win success and that any man would be recognized and rewarded just in proportion as he learns to do something well; learns to do it better than someone else; learns to do a common thing in an uncommon manner; learns to make his services of indispensable value.

As a natural outgrowth of his abiding faith in the success which merit is certain to win, he was able to say in the face of some of the most trying circumstances which ever confronted a human soul:

I will not say that I became discouraged, for, as I now look back over my life, I do not recall that I ever became discouraged over anything that I set out to accomplish. I have begun everything with the idea that I could succeed.

The success which he believed he could win by meriting it was not, however, in any sense, a selfish success. He earnestly strived to succeed in order that he might thereby be able the better to serve. In his autobiography we read:

From my early childhood, I have had a desire to do something to make the world better, and then to be able to speak to the world about that thing.

It was this desire, aroused in his early childhood and deepened by the experiences of each passing year, that impelled him to perform deeds of heroic self-sacrifice—literally to give his own life in unselfish service for others—and that enabled him to tell the inspiring story of what he had done with rare eloquence and power. How well he succeeded in realizing the first part of his desire "to do something to make the world better," thousands of his own race who came under his influence at Tuskegee, and thousands of the white race who realize what he accomplished for humanity, unite in bearing willing and convincing testimony. That he also succeeded in realizing the second part of his desire, "to be able to speak to the world" about what he had done, his numerous educational addresses, and published articles and books abundantly prove. And now that his voice is

silent and he can no longer speak directly to the world, the noble institution at Tuskegee, to which he gave his life, still remains to speak, out of its splendid history and with its future promise, most eloquently and forcefully of his great work.

On this occasion it is interesting to recall that Mr. Washington dated the beginning of his public-speaking career with his first address before the National Education Association at Madison in 1884. This was also his first address that dealt in any large measure with the general problem of the races. It is not surprising that many white people, some of them from his home community, went to the meeting expecting to hear the South abused. They were all pleasantly surprised by not hearing a word of abuse, but, on the other hand, a full and generous recognition of all the praiseworthy things which the white people of Tuskegee and the South had done to help in starting the school. In this address, as in all others which he made, he was guided by a few fixed principles, which were imbedded in deep-seated convictions, and from which he never deviated. These principles, stated briefly, were a determination to say nothing at any time that he did not feel from the bottom of his heart to be true and right, never to say anything in an address in the North that he would not be willing to say in the South, and an earnest desire to say something that would cement the friendship of the races and bring about hearty co-operation between them.

In many respects, his greatest address before the National Education Association was delivered in 1900 at the Charleston meeting. On that occasion an unusual audience assembled under unusual conditions. The great hall in which the meeting was held had been built a short time before to accommodate the reunion of Confederate veterans. Of the eight thousand persons in attendance, at least one-third were colored people. Seated on the same platform were the speaker of the evening and other representatives of the colored race, who, a few decades before, had been slaves, and some of the most prominent white citizens of the South, who had formerly owned slaves. To the credit of the founder of the great educational institution at Tuskegee, he felt that night, in an unusual manner and to an unusual degree, the weight of the heavy responsibility resting upon him. Only those who were near him in that trying hour can comprehend the anxiety which burdened his soul and which manifested itself all too plainly in his trembling body and embarrassed manner. How well he met that responsibility and measured up to the opportunity which came with it, all who heard him will always remember. In an address of remarkable power, replete with humor and pathos and abounding in statements of fundamental significance to both races, driven home by unanswerable logic, and withal tactfully and eloquently phrased, this apostle of good sense made his plea for the education of his race and their right to receive such recognition as their honest efforts to attain respectability and win success might merit.

To the credit and honor of the citizens of Charleston and of the South will always be remembered the cordial reception and hearing accorded to the speaker, and the uniform courtesy shown to him and the members of his race at that memorable meeting.

Any just appreciation of the life and work of Booker T. Washington must emphasize the high regard in which he is held by the white people of all sections of our united country. When asked what he regarded as the most important result of his work, he replied:

I do not know which to put first, the effect of Tuskegee's work on the Negro, or the effect on the attitude of the white man to the Negro.

In his large and constructive task of winning the approval of all thoughtful southern white men and the cordial support of southern public opinion, he succeeded, not by hard work alone, but by hard work directed by the rarest common-sense and the highest practical wisdom. In his many public addresses and published articles, there cannot be found a single unwise statement or untimely remark.

In no one of his addresses, however, did he rise to a higher plane of thought and expression than in his first great address before the people of the South at the Atlanta Exposition in 1895—an address which Clark Howell, the successor to the lamented and loved Henry Grady, declared to be “the beginning of a moral revolution in America.” It was in this address that he used the historic sentence which revealed to his refined and cultured audience of southern citizens his rare sense and sound judgment, and which at once won for him the hearty sympathy and cordial support of the white people who heard him then for the first time. It is impossible to imagine or describe the scene which followed, when this, up to that hour, comparatively unknown leader, held his dusky hand high above his head, with the fingers stretched wide apart, and said:

In all things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.

This address was a revelation to all who heard it or read it, and marks the beginning of a newly awakened and more sympathetic interest in the education and uplift of the colored race, and also of a better understanding of that relation between the races which is so essential to their mutual progress.

Of the many estimates of the character and work of Booker T. Washington which have been given, two have been selected for record in this appreciation. The first is by a leading representative of the white race, Walter H. Page, our ambassador to England. In his fine introduction to the latest edition of *Up from Slavery* published in 1914, he says:

It is well for our common country that the day is come when he and his work are regarded as highly in the South as in any section of the Union. I think that no man of this generation has a more noteworthy achievement to his credit than this, and it is the achievement of the moral earnestness of the strong character of a man who has done a great national service.

The second is from a member of his own race, Emmet J. Scott, who so loyally served his principal for so many years as his private secretary:

The glory of his life was its dedication to the service of both races, North and South. He will be remembered as an educational enthusiast whose sympathies and activities were broad enough to include all races and movements looking to the betterment of mankind.

In years, as measured by the calendar, Booker T. Washington's life was brief indeed. He did not live out man's allotted time on earth. In that brief life, however, he traveled the long journey which marks the distance between the birth of a slave boy and the death of an acknowledged leader of his race, of an educator of international fame, and of a benefactor of mankind. Measured by deeds of heroic self-sacrificing service for others, his life is limitless in its length and breadth and depth.

Mark Hopkins, the great college president, the teacher and inspirer of Samuel C. Armstrong; Samuel C. Armstrong, the great principal of the school at Hampton, the teacher and inspirer of Booker T. Washington; Booker T. Washington, the great founder and principal of Tuskegee, the teacher and inspirer of thousands of men and women who today mourn his death and revere his memory: these are three of the immortals in the world of education, the influence of whose living and teaching will forever remain to bless humanity and to encourage and to inspire all who teach.

HIGH POINTS IN THE LOS ANGELES PLAN

J. H. FRANCIS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CAL.

The first high point of the Los Angeles public schools I shall mention is the high cost of living, the high cost of educational living. Those of us who have read the reports of the survey of the Cleveland schools have discovered that we occupy the unique position of being among the cities which rank first, if we are not the first of them all, in respect of average cost per pupil; and as regards this element of cost the report also declares that we rank first in the cost of teachers' salaries. We pay, as I recall it now, on a basis of average daily attendance something like \$54 per pupil per year for the elementary schools, \$87 for the intermediate, and \$130 for the high schools.

We are trying to build well in the material phases of education, not because the public can see the brick and mortar that goes into a building and we can take our visitors around and show them what we have done in the way of building, but because it adds somewhat to the efficiency of the school. But I think that we are approaching the time when we will be able to get along with less of the luxuries in buildings and equipment and expend a larger proportion of our funds upon the intellect and the spirit of education.

This cost has increased for two reasons: (1) We have reduced the number of pupils per teacher; (2) we furnish more special teachers.

It is quite simple for a superintendent to lessen the cost of his system by adding to the enrolment per teacher, but it is a tremendously expensive thing in the development of the individual child. We do not believe that it is possible for a teacher to face forty different little personalities and individualities, and assume the responsibility for their mental, spiritual, and physical development, and do it successfully. It is beyond human power. Education does not consist in passing a child thru a course of study of the minimum essentials, and stamping him as having completed that course to the satisfaction of his teacher or teachers. It consists rather in creating an atmosphere that is free, that is intelligent, and that can understand and talk to each child.

As has been said, we furnish more teachers for special teaching, supplying special teachers for the larger buildings and for groups of smaller ones, for music, drawing, cookery, gardening, and sometimes for sewing, sloyd, social work, home work, Batavia work, and so forth.

I have been asked what our regular teachers do while these special teachers have charge of the pupils. I do not know. Really I do not care much more about it than that, for I know the real teacher will use this time profitably, and the time-serving teacher is worthless anyhow with her time. There are a hundred ways in which the teacher may fit into a large elementary or high school, where she can use her time to the greatest profit in handling individual problems while these special teachers are handling the problems of their departments.

The rock toward which the educational ship is drifting is the financial one. You and I must educate the people to believe that it is better to save a child to himself before he runs into the reefs of his life than it is to expend money on police courts, jails, and juvenile courts trying to patch him up and protect society from him after he has been wrecked. The public must recognize that the greatest asset of a nation is her boys and her girls, and that instead of spending too much money today on offering these boys and girls a chance at their better and bigger selves we are spending all too little.

The second point in our work is an attempt upon the part of our schools to lengthen the school day by offering shopwork, home economics work, and work in music, drawing, art, and playground activities before and after school. To be sure, that attempt has been very seriously crippled this year on account of lack of funds and for other reasons, but we have made a fairly good start along a very significant line.

Someone has said: "Give me control of the leisure time of our boys and girls, and you may have them all the rest of the time," and it is coming to be tremendously true. The greatest danger this nation faces today comes from the unoccupied time of her boys and her girls, and the reason

that countless thousands of them "go bad," as we call it, is not because they wish to but because there is no place to "go good."

The solution of the problem lies in having the public schools offer them something to do that is worth their doing and that will occupy them more than three or four hours a day out of twenty-four, and more than 180 days out of the 365.

In the large cities of the nation the moving picture, one of the greatest instrumentalities for education in modern times, has been allowed by us to be commercialized; and yet for the last ten years it has been the most powerful single instrumentality in the education of the American youth. The result for the coming generation cannot be measured. The fault lies not with the moving picture, but it lies with you and with me who are professed educators, because we did not gather it up fifteen or twenty years ago, and take it into our schoolhouses and into our churches, controlling the character of the pictures put on the film, and turning it toward an educational development and the solution of educational problems. I have yet to see the boy who wouldn't rather do something worth doing than something that is dissipating and degenerating, and when he does not do such things it is because there is no chance for him. Take a great city like Detroit, and other cities of the nation: what can your boy and mine do before school and after school, on Saturdays and during the long summer months? Opportunities must be offered him in school shops, on school farms, in drawing centers, music centers, dramatic centers, in school printing presses, and in other things that might be offered by the schools to take up the slack of his leisure time.

We are measuring the boy's experience with our experience as a boy, forgetting, however, that great social and economic changes have made his life wholly different from the one we lived. When we were boys, there was something to do and we had to do it. In the great cities today there is nothing to do, and the public schools must put into the lives of boys and girls something that modern civilization has taken out of their lives. We cannot expect the kind of men and women that will keep our nation continuously growing in greatness unless we prepare our boys and girls for their responsibilities in life.

The third point is diversity. You have been hearing a great deal these days about uniformity. This is about diversity. I have a theory that children do differ. As I look at the little fellows, and know that they have different heredities, different environments, and different sets of experiences, I am quite convinced that they themselves have certain points of difference, and that the most striking feature of humanity is its differences rather than its likenesses, and that the attempt to make all alike is working against nature and will not succeed. So we have diversified both in courses of study and in organization of schools, and this has cost money. In school activities, we have diversified in the way of nature-studies, taking children

out into the country and down to the beaches, having picnics, intellectual picnics, and taking them into places of amusement, and getting them to look at things as they are. You say you cannot do that without scientific background; but really some of the science of these boys who learn to handle snakes and to become familiar with plants is almost equal to that of the laboratory expert who has given his life to studying the thing theoretically. At all events it is refreshing, and it has in it the elements of life. And we take our pupils three or four times a year out on the hills. Of course, you couldn't do that here. And we take them to the mountains, and down to the beaches, where they wander with their teachers, talking with their teachers, and learning with their teachers.

We achieve diversity in the way of home gardening; diversity in the way of additional shop work; diversity in the way of additional music, with an elementary-school orchestra organized four years ago, with twelve hundred little folks playing in it. The parents declare that these little people are anxious to learn their private music lessons in order to get into the orchestra. It is a center of life, a stimulation of activity and hopefulness for the future. If this nation is ever to be a musical nation, it will not be because we have the great stars of the world play for us and sing for us. It will be because we get the largest number of our boys and our girls interested in music.

They say that we are crowding the courses of study. Surely we are. Yet we are giving 85 per cent of our money, and 85 per cent of our time, to the so-called academic studies, the "essentials" of education. We might extend the school day, for that is too much time and too much money to give to what we term the essentials of education. After all, what are the essentials of education? A certain group of studies, a certain amount of each of the studies of this group, given at a certain time. We take a little fellow at six years of age in the first grade. We expect him to read with a certain degree of efficiency and cover a certain amount of territory. If he does not, we say he is a failure. We send word home to his parents that he is a failure. It is a crime against childhood. A little child cannot fail. What if he doesn't read as well as this boy by the side of him? Give him time. His mother doesn't worry if she has three boys and they do not all talk at the same age or walk at the same age; and yet we great psychologists and philosophers get the little fellow, set him down in front of us, and ask him to sit down and fold his hands and look up to us as if he really loved us, and read with the same degree of efficiency as the child at the side of him who may have a different development and a different set of experiences.

The time is coming when we will desist from this barbarity of school reports, and just follow that child in his tendencies and his developments. We have now no definite information by which to tell the parent of the child what his tendencies are. Under the new system, we will follow that

child carefully, watch his tendencies, and then, by the time he gets into the seventh grade, we will be able to say: "His school history indicates that possibly this line of activity would be best for him, but not surely." After he gets into that grade we will give him a chance to confirm it himself, and, when he gets to the high school, we may be able to give definite information that will help the parent and the boy, and say: "We think your ability lies along the line of literature, or art, or science, or mechanics or agriculture, or something else."

We have diversified the school also. I am going to give you a brief illustration of what we call the "Neighborhood School," where the school is organized to meet the needs of the neighborhood. It has a penny lunch-room where we feed the children; and lunch for the child if he does not have his penny. If he does not, the teacher is in touch with the home and knows whether or not he ought to have the penny. In the last six or seven years, the penny lunch alone has revolutionized the school.

The next high point is the intermediate school. I have learned a lot of things about the intermediate schools that I did not know before, and that I do not now believe. I have heard that the high school has no right to take the children from the elementary school, as if the children belonged to the grade, instead of the grade belonging to the children. I have heard that the intermediate school is directing the child toward a definite vocation in life. My conception of it is that the intermediate school is only widening just a little the opportunities of the child to find himself somewhere. I have heard that the same thing can be done in the elementary schools. It is a question of numbers. There are no elementary schools in the country that I know of that have a large enough number of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade children to offer them any very wide course of study or wide area of activities.

I have heard that our democracy is in imminent danger because we are taking the child and throwing him into castes. What about this universal democracy of which we boast? Do we have it now? Those of us who would concede it would have to confess that there are few civilized nations in the world today fundamentally less democratic than we are. This is due to the fact of a lack of mingling among boys and girls who have different aptitudes and following different lines of work. It is because the rich man doesn't understand the poor man and the poor man doesn't understand the rich man; because the scholar doesn't understand the workman and the workman doesn't understand the scholar. If we are going to have democracy, it will be by the efforts of those who understand each other and because all of us have a chance to develop ourselves into efficiency along lines in which we are working.

We have six intermediate high schools with seven thousand pupils, and so far we have accomplished this: one option in the seventh grade, two options in the eighth grade, and more in the ninth grade. There is no

attempt at shaping of the boys and girls into any definite thing at all. We have succeeded so far in bridging the gap between the eighth and ninth grades, and, where we have had thousands of boys and girls dropping out of the ninth grade, we now have from 85 per cent to 87 per cent of them going thru the ninth grade of the intermediate school into the tenth grade. Where we had a large number of boys and girls falling out of the eighth grade at the end of the eighth grade in the regular elementary schools, we now carry 85 per cent to 86 per cent from the eighth grade in the intermediate schools into the ninth grade, carrying a larger number of boys and girls one year longer at least. We have not only done that, but we have saved a half-year.

We have brought together a thousand boys and girls of the same age, of the same aptitudes, of the same hopes, and put them together where they can work out the same problems.

There should be diversity in the elementary schools, but the kind of diversity that comes in the eighth and ninth grades, and the seventh grade too, must be conceded to be a little different from the diversity of those elementary schools. You cannot get together, in the seventh and eighth grades of the average school system, enough pupils of the same age and grade to give a chance for this diversity that is needed. There has been a lot of talk about the change of the child. It is really a problem of mathematics. It is a problem of offering at the right time the thing that could not possibly be offered under the old administration.

These intermediate schools have practically eliminated failures from the ninth grade. They have carried the children into the second year of the tenth grade. They have saved the city a half-year of expenditure, and they are working out the same problems, in the same way, that the high schools are working out.

Our city established the intermediate school for the sake of the seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls, and not for the sake of the high schools. We have told the high schools time and again that it is not the business of the elementary schools to prepare children for the high schools, any more than it is the business of the high schools to prepare boys and girls for the colleges. Neither is it the business of the first grade to prepare boys and girls for the second grade. It is the business of the first grade to have the fullest, freest, and deepest development of the first grade possible. If that does not meet the needs of the second grade, let the second grade change to meet the situation; and, if the elementary schools are developing the boys and girls as they ought to, and if the high schools are not satisfied, let the high schools change their demands.

What we need is the right kind of life for boys and girls.

SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL SURVEYING

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Two important conditions are shaping the school-survey movement. The first is that school surveys are rapidly increasing in number. At the present time, there are under way or definitely projected more school surveys than all those combined that have so far been completed. That the movement is rapidly spreading is certain. It is here because the public want to know the facts about their schools, and the school survey is the most efficient means yet discovered for finding them out and making them known.

The second significant fact about school surveys is that they are steadily improving in quality. It is almost literally true that every survey report that has been published has in one or more conspicuous respects been superior to all its predecessors. This is because we began to make surveys without knowing how and have been learning as we went along.

The school survey differs from other reports on school systems in its fundamental philosophy and basic methods. The purpose of the survey is to educate the public. Its object is to tell the people in simple terms all the salient facts about their public schools and then to rely on the common sense, the common insight, and the common purpose of the people as the first great resource in working out their problem. If we regard the survey in this broader way as an implement for social progress rather than a mere method of educational investigation, we shall realize that complete survey work involves three steps.

The first step is a competently conducted study of the situation. The second is the education of the public in the findings of the study. The third is doing something about it. This means utilizing the newly found fact basis for the purpose of constructive action designed to improve the situation. It is in the second of these three steps that the most important developments are now being made in survey methods. The survey has begun to find out how to educate the public. It has begun to bridge the gap between knowing and doing.

Almost a year ago the city of Cleveland undertook a thoro study of its educational problems. The work began last April as an educational survey which includes the problems of industrial education as well as those of the regular school work, and which looks into the future as well as studies the present. This survey is being carried on under the auspices of the Cleveland Foundation and with the co-operation of the Board of Education. Some twenty-five specialists have been engaged in the work for varying lengths of time and the entire expense will be about \$35,000.

The reports of the Cleveland work are being published in twenty-five volumes. This does not mean, however, that the report is to be so formid-

able as might appear from the mere statement of the number of volumes. It means that the Cleveland Survey has developed a form of publication quite comparable to the sectional-unit idea in office furniture or modern bookcases. In Cleveland the entire survey work has been divided into relatively small sections and a complete and independent treatise is being prepared on each section.

There are many advantages resulting from this form of publication and most of them relate to securing superior results in educating the public; in bridging the gap between knowing and doing. The typical procedure is as follows: The specialist employed to study one feature of the work submits his report. It may have to do with health work, or provisions for exceptional children, or school buildings, or the teaching force, or any other phase of the educational work of the city.

After the report is submitted, the director of the survey and other members of the staff work over it with the author to make sure that its findings are accurate and that its recommendations are in harmony with those of the other sections. The report is then put into what the office force has come to term "tentative final form" and some twenty copies of it are made by the mimeograph process. These copies are then submitted to the members of the survey committee, the members of the board of education, the superintendent of schools, and such interested school officials as the board or the superintendent may designate.

For example, a manuscript dealing with health work is submitted to the chief medical inspector, while one having to do with buildings is submitted to the architect and the business director, and a meeting is held of all those persons to whom the manuscript has been submitted. At this meeting, criticisms, corrections, and suggestions are discussed at great length and in great detail. In addition to the verbal discussions, all of the members are invited to submit written memoranda.

These conferences result in clearing up before publication questions of fact and questions of form. They do not clear away all the differences of opinion with respect to interpretation and recommendation. In these matters the final decision is left in the hands of the survey director. This process of conference has resulted in mature deliberation concerning each fact presented and each recommendation offered. Some of the reports have been rewritten as many as five times before being finally sent to the printer. The representations of the members of the board of education and the school officials have resulted in some changes in every volume and in scores of changes in some of them. In the aggregate, some hundreds of alterations have been made as a result of the representations and arguments of the school people.

After the report has gone thru this searching process of revision, it is printed in the form of a small bound monograph of anywhere from 60 to 300 pages in length and usually having many diagrams, tables, and illustrations.

Each monograph, as it comes from the printer, is given to the public and to the newspapers at a public luncheon given in one of the leading hotels. The director of the survey or the author of the monograph gives a talk of a little more than a half-hour's duration presenting the gist of the report published that week. Moreover, the reports are placed on sale at the time of the meeting. A uniform charge of twenty-five cents is made for the volumes altho it costs more than that to publish them. During the first few months of the work, the methods and problems of the survey were discussed at these luncheons, and during the last few weeks the findings have been discussed in the manner just described.

Altho this work has now been going on for more than ten months, the weekly audiences have always comfortably filled the hall, and recently they have been growing so large that the hotel accommodations have been entirely inadequate to care for them.

As the weekly luncheons have increased in popularity, the newspapers of the city have given increasing amounts of space to the consideration of educational problems and the discussion of the weekly reports. On more than one occasion, the report of the weekly educational luncheon has backed everything else off the front page except the date and the weather.

This laborious process constitutes a new development in educational practice and in the technique of the school survey. We may call it bridging the gap between knowing and doing, or we may term it a process of carrying the community. It is a method of educating the public concerning its educational problems. Its object is to make the entire school system pass in complete review before the public eye. It makes the schools and the public pay attention to each other. It presents the past, the present, and the possible. Its aim is to place before the citizens a picture of the schools—a picture so accurate that it cannot mislead, so simple that it cannot be misunderstood, and so significant that it cannot be disregarded. The Cleveland experience demonstrates that it is entirely possible to arouse the public to this sort of interest in their school problems and then to sustain that interest.

There are some developments in the character of the findings of the Cleveland Survey that have come as a result of these new methods of bringing the school people and the public into the survey work. Since each section of the report is a separate volume, it must be sufficiently complete to stand on its own legs. In order to meet this requirement, the different specialists have been compelled to delve deeply into the fundamental factors conditioning their problems. Moreover, the Cleveland work has been conducted under specially favorable circumstances. The workers have had ample time and there has been ample financial support. The work has enjoyed the co-operation of the school authorities and the reports have profited by the searching criticism to which they have been subjected. As a result of these conditions, the findings of the Cleveland Survey deal in

the main with fundamental problems rather than with details; with the essential rather than with the contingent; and with what to do rather than how to do it.

This newest sort of school survey work is illustrated by the section of the Cleveland Survey devoted to measuring the quality of classroom instruction carried on under the direction of Charles H. Judd, of Chicago. At the outset, we decided that in measuring classroom processes and products it was not so important to find out how the work in Cleveland compared with that in Detroit, Boston, New York, and a dozen other cities, as it was to find out how the work in Cleveland compared with the Cleveland standard. We decided that the important thing was to find out what kind of progress was being made thruout the system, grade after grade, and how the achievements of different grades and schools compared with those of other grades and schools. The work proceeded, moreover, on the theory that it was vastly more important to leave in the city a corps of teachers, principals, and supervisory officers understanding the use of testing methods and trained in the giving of the tests than it was merely to find out how the work compared in excellence with that done somewhere else.

As a result of these decisions, some very interesting methods have been developed for discovering the factors affecting progress and achievement in the basic school subjects. For example, the Survey has discovered and mapped out the neutral ground between speed and quality in handwriting. In general, children who write rapidly write poorly and those who write well write slowly. Nevertheless there is a point to which quality may be developed without reducing speed and a point to which speed may be increased without hurting quality. The Cleveland Survey has discovered these points for that city for each grade.

Moreover, a method has been developed by which to measure and record for each school the progress made from grade to grade on both speed and quality combined. Again, several hundred teachers have been trained in the use of the handwriting scale. In short, the methods of measuring achievement in handwriting are no longer mere scientific curiosities; they have become valuable instruments of teaching and of supervision.

The tests in spelling comprised more than 2,100,000 individual spellings. The tests were made up from tests that had previously been given to children in eighty-four other cities. In Cleveland two series of tests were given—one with the words arranged in lists and the other with the words arranged in sentences. There has long been an active controversy as to the effects of the two methods on the accuracy of the results. In Cleveland the outcome will not give comfort to either party in this controversy, for the results showed that the children spelled the words just as well in the sentences as in the lists and just as well in the lists as in the sentences. Valuable data were produced showing improvement from grade to grade and the comparisons between different schools.

It is more important, however, from the point of view of school administration, that these tests resulted in finding definite standards of progress from grade to grade, from the third thru the eighth, in every fundamental operation in arithmetic.

Children in all the grades were tested in oral and silent reading. The studies not only resulted in showing how much the children could read out loud or silently in a given period of time, but they developed a method for measuring how much the children comprehended and retained of what they had read.

Two striking results stand out as products of these reading-tests. The first is that children read very much more rapidly to themselves than they do aloud. The second and much more important showing is that in general the fastest readers are the best readers and the slowest readers are the poorest readers. That is to say, the child who reads rapidly is apt to be the one who retains and produces best what he has read, while the one who reads in a slow and stumbling manner is apt to retain but little of the meaning.

Turning now from educational to administrative problems, the findings again have for their object the analysis of the situation, rather than the weighing of it in the balance. Cleveland, like most other rapidly growing cities, has many overcrowded school buildings. The pressure for school accommodations is powerful while the shortage of funds is painful. In every city in the land where these conditions obtain, attention has been directed toward the administrative methods in use at Gary, Ind., by means of which increased numbers of children are accommodated in the school buildings.

During the past few years, Superintendent Shattuck O. Hartwell, formerly of Kalamazoo and now of Muskegon, Mich., has been carrying thru an important series of experiments to determine how far the Gary idea may be applied to the existing school buildings of a school system established and running along conventional lines. He has developed some very important answers to these questions and put them into practical and successful application in the city of Kalamazoo. One of the most interesting reports of the Cleveland Survey is the book by Superintendent Hartwell on the platoon plan, which is the name applied to the Gary idea as he has modified it for use in existing school systems.

The study of the school and the immigrant has brought to light the fact that Cleveland, like other modern industrial cities, really has three great systems of education all simultaneously active. The first of these is the public school system. The second is the parochial school system. The third is a system about which we know little but which is of great social import. It is the system of schools and classes conducted in the afternoon, in the evening, and on Sundays by the different nationality groups for the purpose of instructing their children in their native languages. Thousands of children in the city of Cleveland are enrolled in these classes

and are doing this most arduous school work in addition to that of the regular schools.

Some of the findings of the Survey are social rather than educational or administrative in nature, but they have important educational implications. For example, in the study of commercial work, an analysis of some thousands of office positions held by men and women, and boys and girls, demonstrates with great clearness that the modern commercial work of men is an entirely different thing from the commercial work of women. With perfect definiteness the records show that the requirements of the work, the lines of promotion, and the necessary preparation are of one sort for the boys and men and of another and entirely different sort for the girls and women. These are facts which no city can afford to overlook in planning its high-school courses in commercial work.

The studies of the educational provisions for exceptional children have brought to light the fundamental condition that these children consist of two great groups who may be designated as the socially competent and the socially incompetent. The socially competent consist of all those who are of normal mentality and who will spend their lives in association with normal people. They are the backward, the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the foreign, and the children of the open-air schools. Since they are socially competent and are to spend their lives in competition with the rest of us, they should be educated in special classes in regular schools and have at least part of their work in the regular classes with the normal children.

The socially incompetent children consist of the feeble-minded and the epileptics who may be cared for during their younger years by the public schools but who are so deficient that they must eventually be placed in institutions. The duty of the school system is to prepare these children for self-support in institutional life, and the most reasonable way of doing this in large cities is to segregate them in special schools.

In the field of industrial education, eight special studies covering the most important industrial activities of the city are being conducted. Each study has three objects. It attempts to describe the industry in simple terms, not only portraying the nature of the work, but giving information concerning wages, unemployment, and health conditions. Secondly, it tells how people may get into the industry and what the prospects of promotion are after they get in. In the third place, each study discusses education for the industry, both before entering it and afterward.

These industrial studies have brought to light some interesting and important discoveries. In the past few years, we have heard a great deal of criticism directed toward the public schools because they were educating large numbers of pupils for commercial and professional work and very few for industrial work. These criticisms have been accompanied by impressive figures showing that there are a great many people engaged in industrial work and very few in professional work. One thing that has

been entirely overlooked in making these comparisons is that most of our industrial work is done by people of foreign birth, while our professional positions are held by people of native birth. Our school children are almost entirely of native birth altho many of them are of foreign parentage. When we talk about their vocational destinations, we should remember that we are in the main discussing American-born people and that we must base our considerations on figures showing what American-born people are doing. For Cleveland such a comparison indicates that for American-born boys the chance of becoming a lawyer is greater than the chance of becoming a mason, and the chance of becoming a doctor is greater than that of becoming a tinsmith. Similar facts affect each consideration of vocational education for men and for women and for every sort of vocational career.

There is another most important consideration conditioning every plan for the organization of industrial education. This is the consideration of the community's capacity to absorb workmen trained for any given occupation. In Cleveland about four thousand boys leave the public schools each year. Most of them range in age from fourteen to eighteen and in school advancement from the sixth grade to the last high-school class. They represent a cross-section of the city's adult manhood of a few years hence.

Now the census figures tell us that if present conditions maintain in the future only about 25 in each 1,000 of these boys will be carpenters. Since about 4,000 boys leave school each year, it is probably true that there are about 100 future carpenters among them. Now Cleveland has more than 100 elementary schools and 11 high schools and these 100 future carpenters are widely scattered among them. Most of them are in the elementary schools, for few high-school boys become carpenters. Even if we knew which boys were destined to become carpenters and even if we knew when they would leave school and even if we should decide to give them all trade preparatory education for the last two years of their school life, we should still have an average trade class in carpentry of only two boys in each elementary school. This is administratively and educationally impossible. It indicates something of the difficulties involved in the organization of preparatory industrial education and illustrates the importance of analyzing the social factors controlling the situation.

To summarize: Among the recent developments in the methods of school surveying there may be distinguished two trends which are specially significant. One of these is the attempt of contemporaneous surveys to analyze the fundamental factors which constitute the real educational problems. The second is the development of a new survey technic which spends time, uses energy, consumes money, and directs attention toward educating the community in the problems and tasks of their educational system, as well as in discovering and formulating the conditions themselves.

This is the process of making the schools and the public pay attention to each other. It is the process of bridging the gap between knowing and doing. It is the method of carrying the community.

These newer developments in educational surveying are strange and novel now, but next year or the year after that they will be familiar and even commonplace. They will soon be a part of the modern scientific method in education which was only emerging from theory and experiment a scant ten years ago but which is profoundly reshaping our educational systems today. Thus progress plods along from paradox to platitude.

THE THIRTIETH MAN

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[After contrasting the unorganized public life of the frontier democracy of forty years ago on the prairies of Illinois, as he remembered it, with the present public life of our great commonwealths, President Finley gave a description of a little one-room schoolhouse where he had gone to school. He said in part:]

The schoolmaster was the only paid representative of the community, of society, of the state, within my horizon, for there was no postmaster, no policeman, no constable, no rural free delivery, and, so far as I know, no assessor, supervisor, or overseer of the poor.

The pupils were of little public concern, quite in contrast to the immigrant child coming to this democracy. They are guarded by many anxious ordinances and laws, in which public provision is made that his eyes shall be properly opened; that he shall have a certain cubic footage of air space; that contagious diseases shall be kept out of his path. They sterilize his milk; filter his water; forbid his taking old-fashioned cough medicines or soothing syrups prepared by secret formulae; remove his adenoids and tonsils; vaccinate him; tell him how to avoid tuberculosis and to correct his astigmatism or strabismus. They follow him with antitoxin and disinfectants; label poisons and put them out of his easy reach; label education and compel him to literacy; police his ways; take him in an ambulance to a public hospital, if he is injured, and try to preserve the spark of life in him as long as possible before his name is added to the mortality column.

Forty years after this early experience with the crudities of pioneer administration, I made an estimate of the number of persons giving service to the state, either directly or thru some municipality. As nearly as I could determine then, one person in every thirty adults, at any rate in the most thickly settled communities, was a public servant.

I then said that since the activity of the state was increasing (in that very year 104 new boards and commissions had been voted in the various

states), it would not be long before society found 1 in 30 too few. I have just had a new estimate made, and I find that for the state of New York the ratio even now is perhaps 1 in 28; it may be even 1 in 27 or 25.

Think who this thirtieth man is. He sweeps the streets of the city and starts the fires in the schoolhouse. He is pontifex of the country roads. He lights the lamps when the great lamp of heaven goes out, and extinguishes the fires of the earth. With one hand he gathers our letters, and with the other he distributes them in the remotest cabins on the mountains. He weighs the wind, reads the portents of the clouds, gives augury of the heat and cold. He makes wells in the valleys among the hills, he fills the pools with water, and carries it from those distant hills to the city. He tastes the milk before a city child may drink it; he tests and labels the food in the stores and shops; he corrects false balances and short measures. He keeps watch over forest and stream; gives warning of rocks and shoals to men at sea, and of plague and poison to those on land. He is warden of fish and bird and wild beast; he is host to the homeless and shelterless; he is guardian and nurse to the child who comes friendless into the world and chaplain at the burial of the man who goes friendless out of it. He is assessor and collector of taxes—treasurer and comptroller; he is the teacher of seventeen million children, youths, men, and women; he is public librarian and maker of books, for the blind even; overseer of the poor, and supervisor; superintendent, doctor, nurse, and guard in hospital, prison, and almshouse; coroner, and keeper of the potter's field. He is mayor, judge, public prosecutor, and sheriff. He is a soldier in the army and a sailor in the navy, general and admiral, legislator, justice, member of the cabinet, governor, and president.

In addition to this he is a member of numberless public commissions and boards, paid and unpaid, industrial and educational, scientific, philanthropic, administrative, with functions ranging all the way from the inspection of terrapin in one state and scythe stones in another state, to the regency of a state university.

I have thought that if one who saw the real significance of the list of these thirtieth men could express it, he would find in this list more vital stuff than that out of which the classics of literature have been written—a poem of men fighting fires in the forests and in the tenements; of men and women fighting pathogenic bacteria in the air, earth, and water; of men fighting flood and drought; of men and women fighting ignorance and sloth and passion in thousands of schoolrooms; of millions of public servants fighting uncleanness, and corruption, and disease, and waste, with broom and statistics, with lens and meter and test tube and scalpel, and honest and expert eyes and clean and skilful hands.

Who should not be proud to be a public servant!

The *New York Sun* a few months ago credited me with a contribution to folk-lore in the creation of a mythical character, "the happy taxpayer."

The intimation of the editor was that three conditions were necessary to give this imagined person an almost real existence: that the taxes should be equal; that they should be economically spent for the public good; and, above all, that they should be low.

I agree as to the first two incarnating qualities, but I think that the third is not essential to the transmutation; for the three words potent to transform the demi-sprite into a happy human citizen are *equality*, *economy*, and *exaltation* or *glorification*.

If we could but see our taxes touching with a healing hand the sick, or the eyes of the blind, or the ears of the deaf, or touching with illuminating hope those who sit in despair, if we could but see taxes transforming, protecting, teaching, carrying the community to a service greater than all who pay them could give if they labored individually, we should pay taxes as gladly as we give and labor and suffer for those who are dearest to us.

There are soldiers who are happy in exposing their lives for a country; there are men who are happy in offering their hard-earned fortune for a cause; there are fathers who are happy in their self-denial for the sake of a son's education; there are mothers who are happy in the very suffering that makes other life possible. And there are citizens even now living in New York (not alone in my imagination) who are happy in paying taxes for a common good higher than their own.

The first book which I had a part in writing was a treatise on taxation. I should like to prepare another book on the same subject now. I should have, of course, to devote chapters to the incidence, to the equalization, to the economic expenditure of taxes. But I should make the culminating chapter one on the "hallowing" of taxes, on "How to Make People Happy in Paying Taxes."

I would show, for example, how the public tax had been converted into the training of a New York East Side boy, named Goethals, who would some day dig the Panama Canal. I would show how taxes had been transmuted into the skill of a certain doctor who had saved thousands of lives, and of a brother who had organized the weather bureau. I would show how taxes had taken an Italian boy, trained him, and then sent him to Cuba to expose his life in discovering how the yellow-fever germ is carried.

So I propose, wherever I go, the organization of local societies of "The Happy Taxpayers," with the motto "Equality, Economy, and Exaltation," and for working capital this purpose: millions for making the people of the state happier, better, but not one dollar for avoidable incompetence or sloth or dishonesty in public service.

And what we are spending for education is a pittance by the side of what we are spending for war. The people of Europe are spending each week for war more than we spend in a year for education. And shall we say that any sacrifice less than that which they are yonder making for their

country is too much for us to make for our children—since the children of today are tomorrow's state? What we do for their right training we do for their defense.

DEFINITENESS AND COMPULSION IN EDUCATION

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Somewhere or other in his career, every radical, from some point of view or other, becomes a conservative. Sometimes it is because his propaganda has been well established and in turn is being attacked; more rarely it is because he comes to realize that even his most cherished aims are in danger of being carried too far. Anyone who happens to be familiar with my own viewpoint knows that I believe in an education for efficiency in which practical preparation for everyday life plays a conspicuous part. But as I have listened to recent discussions, I am beginning to believe that we still need, tho in a new sense, the old watchword of W. T. Harris: "Does it train the mind?" The recent tributes to his memory in the *Journal of Education* have recalled for many of us his persistent attempt to exclude manual training and physical culture from the public school, because he was so long unconvinced that they developed the intellect, and his eager welcome of the kindergarten when he became convinced that it did. My only reason for taking part in this program is an equally firm belief that even tho there are no mental faculties in the old sense of a memory or an intellect that can be trained into general usefulness, *general mental training still survives in forms not only as truly practical as vocational guidance and as natural as Montessorianism, but essential to the efficiency of each.*

In the complete educational readjustment now under way, practical education and adaptation to child nature are temporarily the chief factors, because they are substituting definite and immediate forms of usefulness, which the common citizen can see for himself, for the hocuspocus of an academic training which pretended to transform a knowledge of participial adjectives, pons asinorum, and the pancreatic fluid, into good citizenship, business efficiency, and healthful living. Every stage of public education is being socialized. It is not so surprising to see teachers of history, who have been trained in sociology and economics, neglectful of material that is unrelated to modern affairs, but teachers of Latin are busying themselves in listing the uses to which Latin can be put in everyday life, while even the International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics justifies the teaching of geometry to the ordinary student on the ground that it is essential to the making of tessellated pavements and stained-glass windows. No wonder that one of the most distinguished among my own critics, fearful for his literary ideals, protested that professors of pedagogy seemed to think that "The Ancient Mariner" was written for no other purpose than the

teaching of kindness to animals. The recent advance of the kindergarten upon the first grade, and its consequent rescue from arrested development, tho partly due to the Montessorian popularizing of adaptation to child nature, is being made easier by the fact that the training of the primary school is becoming practical and social.

Even the genetic movement as a whole, seizing upon immediate practical usefulness as the only natural incentive to study, is for the time being little more than a phase of the panic toward the specific. Children are learning to spell, not because they have been taught to love spelling, have pride in their skill, or have formed the habit of noting the spelling of new words, but in order to write a letter to the mayor or to make a list of manual-training materials. Enough practical or specifically useful material must be included in the course of study to teach adequately every essential phase of morality, health, industrial efficiency, citizenship, social service, social intercourse, and individual leisure. But this is a very different thing from including every fact that is practical without regard to whether it is necessary to these essential ends, or excluding all other incentives and kinds of material, regardless of other forms of usefulness, and of relative educational values.

It is unnecessary that the just emphasis of the practical should blind the eyes of teachers, parents, and pupils alike to the usefulness of the general. If the new gospel of definiteness is rightly taught, the common citizen and the ordinary teacher will perceive the usefulness of the general as readily as that of the specific. Its fundamental principle is not that every fact or idea must have a specific or practical usefulness, but that it must have a definite usefulness. Every fact that is taught need not immediately result in knowing a good cut of beef, or ability to qualify for a primary election, but it must as definitely suggest some equally apparent form of usefulness. As compared with the general, the specifically useful has the advantage of being self-apparent. It has to be definite and obvious. It is useful or harmful in itself. If it is not definite, it is not specific. The recent picture-play, *The Birth of a Nation*, for example, is certain to teach the Ku Klux Klan so that it definitely suggests mob law and race prejudice, while under right instruction it can be made to teach even more certainly the necessity for an impartial judiciary and just laws. It is some such definite association with life that makes it specific. If it is just listed in the school textbook as a secret conspiracy against northern rule, it becomes an academic fact with no specific value whatever. Mere possibility of practical usefulness without the definite association which suggests it is not practical or specific. The discovery of coal in Pennsylvania is merely a bit of isolated information until it is definitely associated in the understanding and memory of the learner with the possibility of manufactures wherever coal can be cheaply enough transported.

Without equal definiteness of suggestion for generally useful facts, their possible usefulness is highly improbable. But if they are definitely

associated with the two or three ideas that make them useful, the usefulness of generally useful facts can be made as probable and obvious as that of the specific and immediately practical. My favorite illustration is the introduction of the steamboat on the Ohio and Mississippi. It is put into the textbook on account of its high degree of possible usefulness. But if it is merely listed in Madison's administration or under 1811, its usefulness is wholly a matter of chance. Associated with the opening of the Mississippi to trade and settlement, it is useful only to the extent of arousing the mental satisfaction which always comes from associating an effect with its cause. But if it is used definitely and certainly to associate lessened time in transportation with increased trade and population, it not only explains the opening of the West and the building of transcontinental railroad lines, but the effect of every shortened commercial route from the discovery of new ways to the Indies to the opening of the Panama Canal.

This definiteness of suggested usefulness for what is generally useful is not self-apparent, as in the case of teaching the effect of poor ventilation or other specifically useful facts, but it can be made as apparent. And if general usefulness is not made apparent enough for the common citizen and ordinary teacher to see it, it is unlikely that possibly useful facts will ever be generally useful to the pupils to whom they are taught. It is just as easy to teach the definite association which multiplies usefulness by making it general, as the specifically useful associations that must be added one by one. Every teacher drills upon the meaning of circumference because it is practical. It is just as easy to drill upon the fact that *circum* means around in a great group of words—a suggestive association that does not result in good citizenship but that multiplies vocabulary.

Surely no ordinary teacher would persist in having pupils waste time memorizing lists of products for each country they study when she has pointed out to her the fact that in infinitely less time they can permanently associate with product in general such ideas as necessary natural conditions, localities, processes, uses, and markets, which with each new product will suggest a multitude of new information. In the one case the pupils vainly try to remember a multitude of specifically useful details. In the other they surely remember a few generally useful ideas that will suggest and help in retaining a thousand more.

Even more apparent is the high relative value of generally useful habits. The common citizen and the ordinary teacher see their superiority of usefulness without its being pointed out by illustrations. But if mathematics and the languages, long the sole means to general discipline, are to be thrown on the scrap-heap; if industry, concentration, perseverance, observation, inference, and cumulative reasoning are to be realized thru practical portions of all subjects, and if teachers of every branch are to be held responsible for all generally useful discipline, what is everybody's business is in grave danger of becoming nobody's business.

The material within each branch best adapted to the teaching of each habit must be specified and the formation of the general habit and the associated conditions favorable to its transfer must become a conscious aim for the teacher and a definite demand of supervisory authority. The definite associations favorable to the general application of every highly useful idea and habit are as essential to efficiency as the fundamental operations to number.

If definiteness is thus essential to efficiency, it inexorably follows that the compulsion possible only thru repetition in the sense of drill is equally essential. The Herbartian injunction continually to teach old facts in new relationships defeats its own end if old facts are not also repeated in the definite association that makes them most useful. Even the general many-sidedness sought by the fifth of the "formal steps" is retarded, if associations that just happen to come to teachers or pupils are added one by one, in place of multiplying associations a thousandfold by certainly memorizing the few which will make the most general ideas definitely suggestive in the greatest possible variety of ways. The type study is ineffective if the few general associations that make it a type are not certainly memorized, together with the associations thru which their application and transfer are made probable.

More than this, no matter how general the multiplication of associations may make the application of some practical fact, it will not remain practical if it is not memorized and remembered in the associations that make it practical. Lincoln's birthday exercises may emotionalize the name of Lincoln and multiply its associations and yet contribute only incidentally to religion or good citizenship, unless it has associated with it such practical ideas as faith in divine providence and equality of human rights.

I have come to believe that if we are about to enter upon a period of national preparedness for defensive war, every heroic achievement of our patriotic past and every war in which our forefathers nobly fought must be so taught as definitely and surely to suggest not only the need for self-sacrifice and mighty deeds, but every resulting form of horror and misery, thru an emotional appeal that, in spite of military pageants and schoolboy drills, will be strong enough to keep us, thruout all our future history as we are today, haters of conquest and lovers of peace.

It is not mere names and facts, but names and facts in the definite associations on which their usefulness depends that should be emotionalized and made many-sided. And when they are found with high emotional usefulness for the learner in a particular period of development, thru their recurrence in his experience or what they will transform for him into experience, they must be memorized and taught, no matter how unnatural they seem to be or how much more naturally they may be developed at some later time. The analogy of education and growth has been carried too far. It is only the brain that grows in the sense of developing what is already

there. The mind grows thru the definitely suggestive associations that are planted in it. The mind of childhood is a kindergarten constituting in itself a favorable or unfavorable environment for the growth of ideas. Education is as dependent upon the definite associations in which ideas are planted in the human mind as upon the racial inheritance, heredity, and individuality which they will find there to condition their growth. And after all is said and done, no racial tendency or individual idiosyncrasy is more natural than the human memory.

The most formidable obstacle to a movement having definiteness and compulsion for its end is the fact that they are not as dramatic as they are obvious. If they could be given the popular appeal of industrial training or Montessorianism, they would contribute more than any other single factor to hastening the day when education will be not only practical and natural but efficient and controlling.

After all, there is something dramatic in the definiteness that means multiplying usefulness and raising it to the *n*th power in place of adding useful facts one by one; that compels each frequently recurring idea to suggest its most useful associations; and that summons up for the generally useful habit the geni of favorable conditions that can make it a wish come true for any field of experience and any realm of thought. If instruction can put Aladdin's lamp within the learner's grasp, why should we scorn the slavish drill that teaches him how to rub!

MANNERS AND MORALS—OUR PROBLEM

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In a recent address given by G. Stanley Hall at the University of Pittsburgh on "The Great Philosophies of the World," he made use of the profoundly significant thought that neither philosophy nor civilization nor even religion itself has been able to avert this terrible calamity that is devastating Europe today. Then he made an appeal to all educators that we in America see to it that war does not appear in the eyes of our boys as a glorious and thrilling adventure, but that they should see it as it really is, in all its cost and horror.

In what way have our boys been trained to meet serious and ethical questions that may and do arise every day, individually and nationally? This is a timely and significant thought for us all at this time, when a crisis seems approaching. George Eliot has said: "To every man comes a crisis when in a moment, without chance for reflection, he must decide and act instantly. What determines his decision? His whole past, the daily choices between good and evil that he has made thruout his previous years—these determine his decision." What training have we given our

boys and girls that they may be prepared for these momentous decisions?

About fifteen years ago, I was deeply impressed by a statement of a prominent lecturer that we are not training our boys and girls in manners and morals; that, as a consequence, our young men and women, as a general rule, are neither well behaved nor moral in their reactions. I then determined that I would begin a careful study of the subject. I would select boys and girls of middle teens, as at that period altruism blossoms. I would observe them in public places, when they were not under supervision and not on the playground, where some license is allowed. For fifteen years I have kept records and am being forced to certain conclusions. I am able to say that some of our youth are being trained to be considerate for others and to base their decisions on the fundamental ethics of community life. By far the greater number, however, have shown a lack of both manners and morals, ranging all the way from thoughtlessness to positive rudeness and heartlessness. Some actions were so significant as to be startling.

Three lads of about eighteen, apparently from good homes, entered the street cars and sat near me. They began to discuss in audible tones their recent experiences in wage-earning, chuckling gleefully over the opportunities they had found and improved to pad their expense list, publicly proclaiming themselves swindlers, and they did not know it. The alarming thing about it to me was that boys of their apparent opportunities should not have been trained in the fundamental ethics of business relations.

There is, also, a lack of chivalry toward the weak, the old, and the helpless. The three great influences in our children's lives—the home, the church, and the school—have failed to make that lasting impression to which they have a right. In almost every instance that I have tabulated, the offenders did not realize that they were violating any rules of conduct. They had not been trained in the fundamental principles of right living nor the daily application of the Golden Rule.

I also observed and made records concerning the behavior and apparent standards of our young men and women, for the boys and girls of yesterday are the young men and women of tomorrow. The conclusion is forced in upon me that among reputable young people today there are two classes: those who act upon principles carefully thought out beforehand, and those who act upon impulse, deciding questions that may arise largely upon the basis of preference for one course rather than another.

An experience, some years ago, illustrates the former class. A fellow-teacher and I were taking a short trip together and, busily engaged in conversation, we did not notice that the conductor had not taken up our tickets. I asked my friend what she should do about it, and she said, glancing around: "I suppose they have receptacles for rubbish." She tore up her ticket and later dropped the pieces into a wastebasket. Curious to learn her reactions, I asked her what a ticket meant to her. She thought a moment

and then said slowly and thoughtfully: "I suppose it is a sort of receipt; I enter into an agreement with a railroad company that for a sum of money it shall carry me a certain distance, and it gives me the ticket so I can show it to the conductor in case he challenges my right to ride. I have ridden unchallenged so the ticket has no further value." I have asked many persons since then what they would have done under such circumstances and they have replied: "Do? I would have ridden it out the next chance I had. What do you suppose I care for the railroad company!" She didn't care anything for the railroad company, but she did care for herself and her own standards and she could not violate them for even an extra ticket.

This incident and many others have impressed me with the truth that there are two ends to any moral act—the one, affecting the external world, is the objective end; the other, affecting the person himself, is fastened to his own moral nature and is subjective. It is vitally necessary that each one of us shall every day live up to our own standards, recognizing what they are, and thereby growing to higher and nobler possibilities.

The problem of training our boys and girls aright is a complex one altogether too big for any single or simple treatment. The necessity for character as the supreme product of our schools has been recognized by every speaker that I have heard from this platform this week. The world of business and the professional world alike need standards and the encouraging side of the present situation is that the standards are already in the process of formation. The profession of medicine has so sharply defined what a physician may and may not do that it is easy to separate the reputable physicians from the quacks. The legal-aid societies are for the safeguarding of the legal profession. Even the standards of university men are deservedly high, worked out by the upperclassmen themselves.

But how about the teaching profession? Is it easy to separate our real teachers from our false? Do we make our standards so clear that those in training for the most responsible of the professions know definitely just what they may and may not do?

The first and immediate step to be taken is clear. We must become conscious of our standards. How can we make that deep impression on our boys and girls for which we hope and pray, if we have not definitely in mind the end for which we are working? The country is full of noble actions, unselfish deeds, and characters that would be a model for our youth if only they understood them and could consciously make use of them.

In the light of this thought, it is significant to note the nation-wide movement to be explained to us later—a movement already undertaken to find out what are the standards of our best people. But need we wait a year to find out their conclusions? We can begin at once. The supervisors here in this hall should begin immediately to arouse the teachers

under their supervision to debate and discussion and to try to work definitely toward a solution.

The world, old and young, thrills to noble deeds and at the statement of fundamentals of virtue and unselfish service for others. On the sixth of last September, in the Court of the Universe, at the San Francisco Exposition, a vast crowd had gathered to do honor to Goethals, the builder of the Panama Canal. The chairman of the day, in introducing the guest of honor, made a statement that aroused great enthusiasm in the audience. He said that while all admitted the greatness of the achievement in building the Canal, there is an even greater service that Goethals has done for the country in his action in refusing an honorarium from the United States as a reward for his services on the Canal. Goethals gave as his reason for refusing that he had been called upon by his country to serve her; he had responded and had done his best; he had but done his duty as thousands of others are doing every day; he had been generously rewarded as to salary, and the incident was closed. A prolonged and enthusiastic response from all that immense crowd showed how ready we are to recognize the fundamental right thought when once it is voiced before us.

Today, the words duty and honor are more rarely heard than when the gentleman and gentlewoman of the old school were among us. They should be household words. We should not ask that life be made easy for our children but that the children be made strong to meet it.

Dr. Storrs, late of Brooklyn, who was settled for sixty years over one parish, preached wonderful sermons, and one that I had the great good fortune to hear made a deep impression on me. He was speaking of the church militant and he closed with these thoughts: Every nation has had its own mission to fulfil: the Hebrew nation, thru all the dark ages, kept alive the idea of the one God—the Hebrews had a genius for religion; the Roman nation worked out a system of laws and government, and under its protection the wonderful Spirit was born of the old Jewish race that was to give to Mosaic law a spiritual interpretation; the Grecian nation developed a language of such beauty that it could be used to record the history of that wonderful life; the teachings of that great Spirit finally inspired a small band of religionists to leave home and friends to seek a far-off land, where the greatest extent of fertile soil and temperate climate on the whole earth were awaiting them, where they were to help build the mightiest nation of all, because here was to be a nation that was to have for its fundamental purpose to make *men*.

It is in this nation that our work is to be done. Our work then is to make men and women, and character-building is the fundamental, the all-important part of this work.

SCOUTING AS AN EDUCATIONAL ASSET

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I am here today on behalf of the Boy Scouts of America—182,622 men and boys—143,782 boys under instruction as tenderfoot, second-class, and first-class scouts, and 38,840 carefully selected clean men of strong character giving leadership without compensation, as members of local councils, troop committees, and scout commissioners, scoutmasters, or assistant scoutmasters—to ask you as representative educators of our country to accept the program of scouting as an educational asset.

Not only do we desire your attention to what can be said in support of the claims that scouting is an educational asset, so that it may fully justify a place in your program, but we earnestly hope that the possibilities of this movement as an asset in the work to which you have committed your lives will be made so clear that each of you here will become personally interested in the proper development of the movement, so that, thru the resources which you command, it may become more largely available to the boys of our country.

I hope that I shall not give offense by claiming that the inadequacy of our public-school system to meet the full needs of the growing boy makes necessary the boy-scout scheme or something similar to cope with present-day conditions. The school is handicapped by its traditions and by its limited opportunity for control and influence in the life of the average boy. Even under favorable conditions, the school provides leadership for only about one thousand of the five thousand hours a year a boy has for activity. It is seldom that the school exerts such a hold on the boy as to furnish him with a motive or anything like a program for his activities after he is released from the schoolroom for the day, or for his vacation period.

The complex conditions of present-day civilization add to the problem. Unfortunately the home and the church also fail to provide adequate leadership or a definite program for the time of the boy outside of the schoolroom. Modern invention and improved living facilities decrease the demand upon the time of the boy for chores about the home. Generally speaking, the boy has no opportunity to choose how he will spend his leisure time. This is largely a matter of chance, governed by environment. With the coming and going of the various seasons, his interest passes without definite program or any direction in the games and activities of the boys in his neighborhood.

Too often the value of the schoolroom instruction and discipline is seriously affected by reason of the undirected activity of the boy outside of the school. The results of these conditions are shown in the continuance of the necessity for the state and municipality to provide increasing sums

each year for police supervision and for institutions to deal with inefficient citizenship.

Because of a lack of education in character, too many of our boys and young men show an absence of self-discipline by indifference to a higher conscience.

Another element which contributes to the unsatisfactory results of our public-school system is the fact that the program and method within the school itself fails to give the boy early enough in life a chance to discover the things he is by temperament and native ability best fitted to do—in other words, a chance to discover himself.

In the city of New York, of the forty thousand boys and girls who have not passed beyond the grammar school, and yet receive their working papers each year, but a very small percentage even attempt to seek their first employment because of any particular desire to follow a given line of work, or because of any special training or ability to do any one thing efficiently. The great proportion are willing to accept any opportunity for earning a fair wage. A small proportion of these are ambitious enough to accept the opportunity of the night high schools to fit themselves along special lines, but the great proportion engage in blind-alley occupations and too many become mere drifters and thus add to the burden of the community.

Indeed, it was the definite evidence of the inadequacy of public-school instruction in England that led Robert S. S. Baden-Powell to develop plans for the training of the young men who were sent to him from the large cities of England, and finally led to the development of the boy-scout scheme. As he has expressed it, the great proportion of these young men who were sent to him for service in South Africa as recruits were so dependent upon the conveniences of modern civilization that they virtually expected to be tucked in at night. They lacked discipline, resourcefulness, initiative, as well as practical knowledge of how to care for themselves.

Unfortunately, as all who are familiar with the facts know, a somewhat similar condition was found among the young men who were enlisted for service in the Spanish-American War. The lack of practical knowledge on the part of the enlisted men, as well as the lack of leadership, has cost this country very dearly.

In order to meet the condition as he found it, Baden-Powell, instead of giving the ordinary military training to the group of recruits, worked out plans for giving them what he called "stunts in scouting." Men were sent off in small groups and compelled to shift for themselves in the woods and forests. Every effort was made to give these young men experiences similar to those which were common to the young man living in the rural communities.

Upon returning to England, Baden-Powell was surprised to find that the principles involved in his plans for dealing with men had been applied in boys' schools. Eventually he responded to the many invitations pressed

upon him and set himself to the task of working out a program for boys. As a result we have the wonderful movement known thruout the civilized world as the scouting program.

Baden-Powell insists that he should not be given credit for what it involves, because, as he says, he helped himself freely to all that was available, in this and other countries, in the way of programs of work with boys. Notwithstanding what he has to say, however, it is a fact that the plan of organization and psychology involved in the scouting program was distinctly new. Particularly is this so with reference to the idea of service which is a cardinal principle in the scouting program.

The appeal to the boy's imagination thru the word "scout," the recognition of the principle of self-government, and the placing of a boy on his honor, have all been very effective. Likewise the total absence of the use of the word "don't" or anything of a negative character has been effectively cared for by placing emphasis upon "do."

As a scout, the boy willingly adopts as real and vital the universally accepted principles of life as set forth in the scout oath and law. This effectively influences the boy's nature and character so as better to prepare him for that work which the church can best do.

A scout promises upon his honor to do his duty to God and to his country, to obey the scout law, to help other people at all times, and to keep himself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight.

The scout law, covering twelve fundamental principles of life, requires a scout first of all to be trustworthy. That means he must not tell a lie, cheat, or deceive, but must keep every trust sacred. A scout is loyal to all to whom loyalty is due, including his scout leader, his home, his parents, and his country. A scout is helpful, that is, he is prepared, thru the special program of scouting activities, to save life, help injured persons, and to do at least one worthwhile good turn daily. A scout is friendly to all, a brother to every other scout. A scout is courteous, especially to women, children, and old people, and he must not take any pay for his acts of courtesy or kindness. A scout is kind to animals and will not kill nor hurt any living creature needlessly. A scout is obedient; a scout is cheerful even when facing hardship and drudgery. A scout is thrifty; he not only recognizes his obligation to pay his own way, but realizes his duty to help carry the burden of worthy causes, and the needs of his country. A scout is brave and does what he knows is right in spite of jeers and threats. A scout is clean in body and thought, stands for clean speech, clean sport, clean habits, and travels with a clean crowd. Finally, a scout is reverent toward God; not only is he faithful in his own religious duties, but he respects the convictions of others in matters of custom and religion.

Every step in the scouting program is for character development and good citizenship. The variety and interest, as well as the practical knowledge insured by the tenderfoot, second-class, first-class, and various merit

badge tests, are, after all, but a means for holding the interest of the boy, pledged to the scout oath and law, under such leadership as will bring about character development. The form of troop organization, the scoutmaster and his assistants, the local council, and, indeed, the National Council and all its officers, are but a means to this end. This character development manifests itself in health, efficiency, chivalry, loyalty, patriotism, good citizenship, and joyous living. Time will not permit a detailed description of the plan of organization and methods of procedure, but in order that all interested may be accurately informed we are placing in your hands with our compliments a copy of the official *Handbook* giving all of this information.

We want you to look upon the boy-scout idea as a movement rather than an organization, and to realize that we are merely seeking to supplement existing agencies for the education of the boy. The scout movement makes available a carefully selected leadership for the boy's leisure time and endeavors to supply the required environment and ambitions thru games and out-door activities which lead a boy to become a better man and worthwhile citizen.

We want to help boys on leaving school to escape the evils of blind-alley occupations—that is, such work as gives the boy a mere wage for the moment, but leaves him stranded without any trade or handicraft to pursue when he is a man and so sends him as a recruit to the great army of unemployed, and what is often worse, the unemployable. Doing is learning, and when a scout in the formative stage of his life has this lesson thoroly impressed upon his mind, he has learned to be resourceful. The simple self-help experience which a scout receives in his impressionable years prepares him to meet emergencies covering the entire range of experience which may develop later in his life.

Please keep it clear in mind that the scout movement is not seeking to displace established educational agencies, nor does it undervalue the absolute necessity of schoolroom instruction for all boys just as long as practicable.

Scoutcraft includes instruction in first aid, life-saving, tracking, signaling, cycling, nature-study, seamanship, campcraft, woodcraft, chivalry, and all of the handicrafts.

In scouting the boy does not stand still. The opportunity and incentive for progress are always at hand. He first becomes a tenderfoot, then a second-class scout, and then a first-class scout. After this the whole sphere of the scout program is made available by the boy's own application to qualify himself to pass tests for the various merit badges which cover a wide range of practical and interesting subjects.

We find that a boy takes up a hobby with the same zest with which he plays tennis or football, and that this hobby under proper leadership may lead him to the realization of the thing he is best fitted to do as a life-work.

In other words, we transfer the efforts of the boy from idle plays or harmful mischief to vital achievements.

As an organization, the boy-scout movement is not military in thought, form, or spirit, altho it does instil in boys the military virtues, such as honor, loyalty, obedience, and patriotism. It also gives boys a practical knowledge of the principles of hygiene, sanitation, and actual camping experience and physical training. The uniform, the patrol, the troop, and the limited drills are not for military purposes, they are for unity, harmony, and rhythm of spirit that help in dealing and doing things together as scouts, that boys may absorb the force and truth of the scout law which states that a scout is a friend of all and a brother of every other scout.

Scouting presents greater opportunities for the development of the boy religiously than do other movements instituted solely for boys. Its aim to develop the boy physically, mentally, and morally is being realized very widely.

The movement has been developed on such broad lines as to embrace all classes, all creeds, and at the same time to allow the greatest independence to individual organizations, officers, and boys.

The Boy Scouts of America maintain that no boy can grow into the best kind of a citizen without recognizing his obligation to God. The recognition of God as the ruling and leading power of the universe and the grateful acknowledgment of his favors and blessings are necessary to the best type of citizenship, and are a wholesome thing in the education of a growing boy. No matter what the boy may be—Catholic or Protestant or Jew—this fundamental need of good citizenship should be kept before him.

The Boy Scouts of America, as an organized body, therefore, recognizes the religious element in the training of the boy, but is absolutely non-sectarian in its attitude toward that religious training. Its policy is that the religious organization or institution with which the scout troop or the individual scout is associated should give definite attention to the boy's religious life.

In thus making available to boys of all classes a common meeting-ground where they may play and compete and learn to know that the other fellow is not much different from themselves, the boy-scout movement is performing a distinctive and important patriotic service, and again the observance of the scout law, and the tremendous cumulative value of the required daily good turn, and the creation of better feeling among millions of scouts in our own and other lands, constitute a latent but powerful and rapidly growing factor for universal good will and the brotherhood of man.

The Boy Scouts of America has just celebrated its sixth anniversary. It has troops organized in all parts of the country and in all of our possessions. During the past year there was an increase of 46 per cent in the enrolment. In every community the best type of citizenship is represented in the leadership provided. Especially is this true where there is a chartered local coun-

cil. In such cases the responsibility for the selection of the leaders of groups of boys is delegated to the local authorities. Two-thirds of our troops, however, are working in communities where local councils have not yet been organized. In these cases the responsibility for certifying to the leadership of a group of boys is a difficult problem. It gives me great pleasure on this occasion to testify to the practical service which has been given by school superintendents in our efforts to handle this problem. It is our invariable rule, wherever an application for a commission is presented without the recommendation of men who, because of the positions they hold in the community, command recognition, for us to call immediately upon the school superintendent for co-operation. We usually ask if the superintendent would be willing to intrust his own boy to the leadership of the man who seeks the commission. Ordinarily this brings about the proper investigation and a report which gives us a basis for action.

A recent study of the qualifications of 7,067 men who hold commissions as scout-masters shows that about 65 per cent of them are college men and that over 80 per cent have either a high-school or a college education; 1,655 give their occupation as clergymen, and 790 as public-school teachers; others are professional men, journalists, students, and men engaged in mechanical or mercantile pursuits. In practically every one of the 350 chartered councils, the public schools are definitely represented thru the service of the school superintendent on the executive board and in many cases the school superintendent serves as president of the council.

The value of the scout movement as an educational asset has been recognized by a number of our large universities by the definite encouragement given in developing leadership. Scout courses have been organized in the summer schools in the University of Wisconsin, University of California, University of Virginia, University of Texas, Teachers College of Columbia University, and at numerous other places.

It is with great pleasure that I can, by special permission, quote from James E. Russell, Dean of Teachers College of Columbia University, as to scouting as an educational asset. He says:

I regard the scout movement as one of the most valuable educational agencies of this generation. One lesson of the present European war is that American boys must be trained in patriotism and in those homely virtues which would make for civic order and social stability. For this purpose I know of no means so effective as those employed by the boy scouts. I hope to see the time when every American schoolboy will look forward to becoming a good scout and will be trained to incorporate the ideas of the boy scout into his life as an American citizen.

It is practically impossible to do much in the way of military training with boys under eighteen years of age. It must be taken seriously and its inclusion in the courses of our public schools should not be considered. Even Germany does not pretend to give military training to boys, but sets aside several years after school life to this man's work. Then it is taken seriously, and results in making trained soldiers. The most that can be hoped for in this country is a preparatory training for boys which should include characteristics of the later life-work and give some idea of a live interest in the process

of their later vocation. There must be a substitute and in my opinion it is before us now. This substitute is the boy-scout movement.

The movement is distinctly non-military, but it should appeal as much to the most ardent militarist as to the non-militarist. It is non-military in the same sense that manual training is non-vocational or non-professional, but it is preparatory to good citizenship and everyday service. It furnishes physical training to the boy and accustoms him to outdoor life and camping. It gives him a purpose that is suited to his age and appeals to his boyish traits. It utilizes to good advantage the gang spirit. It is remarkably appealing in teaching him keen work and instils in him high ideals. This, in a sense, is more than military training ever can do, in that it develops character, initiative, and intelligence.

Give me one million boy scouts grown into manhood and I will fear neither foreign domination nor internal social disorder. But we ought to have more than one million to fall back upon. We ought to have five millions of boy scouts in this country.

This entire movement should receive the support of the schools thruout the country.

Professor Roberts, of the Kansas State Agricultural College, in an article on school science, gives another point of view. He says:

There is just one solitary place where your boy and mine can get this real kind of fundamental training which teaches him how to be a man, how to take care of himself and others in emergencies, and that, as you know, is absolutely not in the public schools at all. It is in the organization of the boy scouts:

Contrast the methods of the scouts, for example, to the methods of the school. One is dynamic and the other is static. One develops to the maximum, encourages, indeed forces initiative; the other glorifies military subservience to routine. The one not merely asks but demands originality and resourcefulness. The other requires uniformity at all costs and exalts above individual expression the ideal of discipline and order. The one forces the boy to hammer himself into something individual; the other hammers the individuality out of the boy.

T. C. Hassell, principal of the Fair Park School, says:

The school cannot utilize all the energies of the boy. This splendid movement comes to our aid. The troublesome element is smaller since the scouts were organized. It tends to raise a higher standard among boys. Their personal appearance is better. Cigarette smoking is on the wane, because of the example of the boy scouts.

In a letter just received from Robert S. S. Baden-Powell, permit me to quote the following:

It may be some encouragement to these gentlemen to know that our educationalists over here are now recognizing that our principle of encouraging active doing on the part of the individual instead of passive reception of ideas by the mass is practical education, as opposed to theoretical instruction, and they are therefore taking a close and sympathetic interest in it.

Moreover, the value of our system is now proved by results and not merely by theory. The war has put the movement and its methods to the highest possible test; it has proved the inherent vitality of the organization; it has shown that boys so prepared can respond to a sense of responsibility and duty at a time of national crisis to an extent never before realized—which is patriotism far above ecstatic flag-waving; and in the by-product of soldier-making the foundation of character given by the scout training is found to be as valuable as it is in the making of citizens in other lines of life, whether civic, commercial, intellectual, or industrial. Indeed, in this aspect it offers visions of being able to meet in some degree the difficult question which just now is agitating America, namely, that of preparing for defense without the imposition of militarism.

All of us realize that the opinions of men are changing and that this is a critical time in the history of our country. It is the responsibility distinctively of this group of people as well as all of us engaged in work with boys to keep calm and to help in securing deliberate consideration as to the advisability of any of the many changes which are daily proposed affecting our national life and the education of the youth of our country. Those of us who are supporting the boy-scout movement firmly believe, as stated by Dr. Russell, that in the boy-scout movement can be found a program adequate to meet the needs of the growing boy in preparing him for the responsibilities of citizenship. Certainly we are making a distinctive contribution to preparedness by instilling in boys a proper conception of their responsibility to their country and by the development of the ideas of service. In so far as the scheme of scouting can be utilized in part or in whole by schools or other agencies working with boys, it is available simply for the asking, independent of the definite affiliations of the group of boys with the Boy Scouts of America. We ask, however, that no attempt be made to call them boy scouts, or have them use the official uniform and badges, unless they comply absolutely with the official regulations and meet the prescribed standards. We hope that the schools of our country will definitely accept scouting as an educational asset and will co-operate in the organization of troops locally and in guiding the movement nationally, so that, to a larger extent than ever before, the future of our nation may be benefited by the development of boys, not merely in scholastic training but in character and social efficiency. This is true education!

THE NATIONAL MORALITY CODES COMPETITION

MILTON FAIRCHILD, CHAIRMAN, EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR MORAL INSTRUCTION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

A business man of large experience in general affairs has come to the conclusion, on his own initiative and as the result of thoro study, that the fundamental need of the nation is the moral or character education of children and youth. He has offered a prize of \$5,000, the largest prize ever offered in an educational competition, for the best of seventy morality codes, written by selected competitors, each of whom shall endeavor to interpret intelligent public opinion as to what moral or character ideas ought to be inculcated in American children and youth by the nation's schools and homes. The conduct of the national morality codes competition is in the hands of the Executive Committee of the National Institution for Moral Instruction, Washington, D.C. One year, Washington's birthday 1916 to Washington's birthday 1917, will be allowed for this nation-wide study of public opinion, and for the formulation of the morality codes. All seventy codes will be published by some one of the schoolbook publishers

in the form of school reference books, to be called "Morality Books," which it is hoped will be placed on the teacher's desk in every schoolroom, country and city, thruout the nation, and in many homes. The price of the "Morality Books" will be as low as possible. A small royalty will be taken for the treasury of the National Institution for Moral Instruction, which will be used in research work to determine effective methods for character education in schools and homes.

The success of such an undertaking as this depends on the co-operation of many, and co-operation depends on good will. Therefore let me explain several points which superintendents of schools will wish to have information on before they give the national morality codes competition their good will and co-operation.

The National Institution for Moral Instruction is incorporated for research in character education of children and youth for no personal profit. It contemplates the organization of a small faculty of specialists in this field of education, and the development of collaboration on the part of a selected group of educators and others from the entire nation, to the end that the wisdom of experience may be organized into a body of ideas and principles which can be used as the material of instruction in the moral or character education of children and youth. It is an institution primarily for study of the problems of character education. It is not a propagandist institution to force schools to do what superintendents do not care to have them do; but a research institution to find out how superintendents can arrange to have the schools do effectively what they wish the schools to do, namely produce character as a resultant from education.

The National Institution for Moral Instruction is an inside, not an outside, organization. Its executive committee is composed, in addition to the chairman, of P. P. Claxton, Willard S. Small, William C. Ruediger, and Margaret Bell Merrill, all actively engaged in education. The president of its board of directors is David Snedden, who will soon be professor of "social education," in Teachers College, Columbia University. Its directorate is chosen from the different centers of educational research thruout the nation, with a sufficient representation from the general public to insure breadth of experience. It is regarded as essential to progress in character education that there be arrangements made for nation-wide collaboration among educators, because generalizations in matters of morality ought to rest on experience, and the experience of the individual is too narrow for certitude in this field of knowledge.

The donor of this prize for the best code of morals for instruction of children and youth is anxious that the educators should believe that he is not seeking any personal glory or indirect gain. He wishes to assist educators and others in developing this phase of education, because he believes it is neglected and needs developing for the good of the nation. He desires his name to remain unknown, but, under the title "advising treasurer,"

he wishes to work out plans for adequate financial support for the National Institution for Moral Instruction, and to have part in formulating broad plans for universal moral education of all the nation's boys and girls. I am permitted to say that he is not a resident of Washington, D.C., but of one of the cities in the nation at large.

The national morality codes competition is a study and interpretation of intelligent public opinion rather than an interesting struggle among literary people for a prize. In all but five states, the state superintendent of public instruction has accepted appointment as the co-operating educator. The full list you will find printed in the announcement circular. Each co-operating educator has chosen and appointed the state representatives who are to write the state morality codes in the competition. In states having a large population, more than one morality code writer has been chosen. The total number of code writers will be seventy.

Each of the morality code writers is to endeavor to make a thoro study of public opinion in his state regarding the moral ideas which ought to be inculcated in the minds and hearts of children and youth, and in doing this is to consult a large circle of advisers among teachers and parents. Letters of advice will be asked from all interested. The intelligent *public opinion* of the state is to be back of each morality code, not merely the individual opinions of the code writers.

There will be two "Morality Books," one for elementary schools and one for high schools, for each code is to be written in two parts, the elementary part for boys and girls between nine and fourteen, and the high-school part for youths between fourteen and eighteen years of age. The "Morality Books" will be revised from time to time, and the schools will be supplied continuously with a reference book from which any teacher and any pupil can find out what intelligent public opinion believes should be taught American boys and girls as to right and wrong in the world of boys and girls.

But what is a "code of morals"? Washington had a code; Franklin had a code; Baron Rothschild had a code; hosts of people have written out for themselves short statements of their intentions as moral beings, and lived by them thru the storm and stress of this world life. The National Institution for Moral Instruction has formulated a code covering the ethics of work, called "The Code of Successful Workers," which will make clear what a morality code is like.

THE ETHICS OF WORK

This "Code of Successful Workers" has been formulated from personal experience by many men and women who have achieved great success as workers. It presents their personal attitude toward their work, and reveals the sort of people they have striven to make of themselves. It is true and reliable. It is offered as a means by which young people can learn the requirements which success in work imposes on them. Those who work by this code will find satisfaction, honor, and a good living in the world of work.

THE CODE OF SUCCESSFUL WORKERS

RESOLUTIONS THEY MAKE FOR THEMSELVES

1. *I will respect all useful work and be courteous to the workers.* Work of all kinds is essential to the success of the world, and benefits come to many from the service rendered by each honest worker. I will respect myself, therefore, when doing any useful work, and show respect for good work done by others. I will be courteous to all workers, regard their rights, and make life more agreeable for them when I can.

2. *I will know my work and have ambition to do it well.* I will keep determined to succeed in work, to master some one line, to develop aptitude and gain skill. I will keep my mind concentrated on my work, and make work my chief interest. I will accumulate knowledge and experience.

3. *I will take the initiative and develop executive ability.* I will use business sense, have courage to make decisions and go ahead, be quick-witted, well balanced, and of good insight. I will be adaptable, and make all I can of my powers of invention.

4. *I will be industrious and willing.* I will bring enthusiasm to my work, be energetic and quick about it, and have endurance. I will be punctual, and always an attentive worker. I will be patient and persevering, and have system. I will keep myself in good health.

5. *I will be honest and truthful.* I will regard property rights, be economical of materials, and put in full time. I will be frank and honorable in my treatment of others, and preserve my personal integrity.

6. *I will educate myself into strong personality.* I will develop force of character and have some worthy purpose in life. I will use my leisure wisely. I will be well informed, self-possessed, self-controlled, self-respecting, stable, open-minded and teachable, alert, observing. I will be quick to understand, and of good memory. I will use my imagination, and be ready to take responsibilities. I will gain knowledge of human nature, show sympathy, and take an interest in people. I will be friendly, cheerful, harmonious, and always tactful.

7. *I will be faithful to my work.* I will hold to high ideals. I will be reliable, accurate, and careful. I will do my work right, for the people who need done the things I help to do. I will be thoro. I will keep my word.

8. *I will be loyal.* I will take pride in my firm or company, factory, store, or farm. I will protect its interests, and help to make work successful. I will be unselfish and obedient in my service to my superiors, and do good team work. In professional work, I will hold to the ethics of my profession. In an institution, I will be true to its purposes. I will be devoted to my home. I will be loyal to the people with whom I work.

9. *I will be a gentleman—a lady.* I will keep clean and neat, be pure and of good repute, courteous and polite to all. I will form wise personal habits.

The world does not owe me a living, but I am proud to make a good living for myself.

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This "Code of Successful Workers" differs from an individual's morality code in that the experience of some two hundred people is the broader foundation on which it rests for its generalizations. It has the authority of public opinion in the field of work. The "Morality Books" are to interpret the wisdom of many thousands of intelligent people. If a boy should wish to study carefully "conduct becoming a gentleman," it would be impossible for him to find a printed explanation of public opinion on this topic. There is no school in the nation which provides a chance for any

thoro study of public opinion on any of the many important phases of morality. The schools have their geographies and histories, their books of nature, their arithmetics, etc., from which pupils can learn a host of facts useful to them, but the wisdom of grown-up people as to how to live has never been formulated for children as a body of knowledge. This morality codes competition is to produce one important expression of public opinion in a field of knowledge most intimately related to the vital needs of the children.

Children force on parents the problems of moral education, and many find themselves at a loss to decide what moral ideas to inculcate. This book of morality codes will be a guide to both parents and teachers, and a basis for harmony between school and home.

Normal-school students can inform themselves by studying this book of moral codes as to what moral ideas they are expected to inculcate in the minds of their pupils when they begin teaching. Their individual ideas and experiences can be supplemented by a study of the wisdom which has come to many others thru personal experiences in the large world of human affairs.

These "Morality Books," it is believed, will be of great use to the teachers in their regular classroom and personal work with pupils, in cases of discipline, and when stimulating the moral growth of pupils. They will be of use in normal schools as a means of preparing teachers for their work as educators of character, and they will influence parents to support at home the morality which is taught at schools.

We have been making out a character chart by collaboration among several hundred people which seems to me to make clear the need of the child for a thoro character education. The items in this character chart can be regarded as the index to the "Morality Books." The character of the perfect human being would be about as follows:

Intellectual character, needed for wise thinking:

1. Earnest, not trifling
2. Sincere and open-minded, not diverted by personal interests
3. Discerning, not superficial
4. Alert, not indolent
5. Accurate, not indefinite
6. Useful, not merely interesting
7. Inventive and constructive, not lacking initiative
8. Rational and judicious, not over-emotional, hysterical, or melancholy
9. Thoro, not illogical
10. Keen in sense perceptions, not unobserving

Working character, needed for doing useful work:

1. Purposeful, not led merely by likes and dislikes
2. Teachable, not stubborn
3. Obedient, not balky
4. Cautious, not heedless
5. Ambitious, not self-satisfied

6. Persisting, not vacillating
7. Industrious and energetic, not lazy and dilatory
8. Attentive, not careless
9. Decisive, not procrastinating
10. Progressive, not opposed to change
11. Thrifty, not wasteful
12. Artistic, not slovenly
13. Adaptable, not slow to fit into new surroundings
14. Executive, not haphazard

Personal character, needed for doing right by oneself:

1. Thoughtful, not merely impulsive
2. Influenced by high ideals, not content with low standards
3. Conscientious, not lawless
4. Independent, not suggestible
5. Self-controlled, not weak
6. Refined, not coarse
7. Self-respecting, not dissipated

Social character, needed for doing right by others:

1. Genuine, not affected
2. Honest, not thieving nor disposed to cheat
3. Truthful, not given to lying and deceiving
4. Honorable, not sneaking
5. Just, not unfair
6. Harmonious, not wrangling
7. Forgiving, not vindictive
8. Disposed to trust others, not suspicious
9. Sociable, not exclusive nor snobbish
10. Loyal, not treacherous
11. Pure, not lewd
12. Courteous, not rude
13. Tactful, not brusque nor priggish
14. Generous and sportsmanlike, not stingy nor jealous
15. Public-spirited and patriotic, not selfish
16. Respectful, not impudent nor flippant

Emotional character, needed for the joy of living:

1. Courageous, not timid
2. Capable of true love, not cold-hearted
3. Kindly, not cruel nor hateful
4. Sympathetic, not self-centered
5. Congenial, not repulsive
6. Responsive to the beautiful, not indifferent
7. Alive to truth, not uninterested
8. Devoted to righteousness, not inclined to evil
9. Humble, not conceited
10. Patient, not irritable
11. Tolerant and with a sense of humor, not angry over differences of opinion
12. Hopeful, not pessimistic
13. Reverent, not irreligious

Physical character, needed as a basis for human life:

1. Well-developed body, not poorly nourished
2. High resistance to disease, not susceptible
3. Vital, not sluggish

4. Ready muscular control, not bungling
5. Endurance, not quickly tired
6. Strength, without disabilities
7. Grace of figure and carriage, not frumpy
8. Expressive face, not stolid
9. Strong, musical voice, not choked nor rasping

The "Morality Books" with some such index as this are to contain the convictions of the intelligent general public as to what is right in daily conduct for the child. These moral ideas which are the fruits of general experience should be inculcated by some effective method in schools and homes. No reference to methods or principles of moral instruction and training is to be made in the morality codes. Moral truth, the wisdom of human experience, should shine thru the code expressions. The words used should appeal to the minds of children and youth, and be useful as a basis for talks by teachers and parents, and for quotation in school and home discipline.

The code writers should strive for completeness, definiteness, and practicability of moral ideas in their application to childhood and youth, and for clearness, simplicity, and appeal in literary expression. The code receiving the award must be easy to understand, sound and fundamental in its interpretation of intelligent opinion regarding morality, and well written.

Let me plead for interest in this nation-wide study and formulation of intelligent public opinion in matters of morality. I take it that there is general agreement that the major purpose of education is to guide and stimulate each child to achieve the most perfect development of its personality. Intellectual education, vocational education, physical education, represent only important divisions of a complete education. The personal, social, and emotional life of a child also needs guidance in its development. There is a character education which each child needs. In addition to the information which schools give, they should also educate the child into the character power to live.

ROUND TABLES

ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

HOW NOT TO TRAIN RURAL TEACHERS

EDWARD HYATT, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SACRAMENTO, CAL.

I feel some diffidence at expressing my notions on preparing rural teachers before people representing so widespread and vast a continent as this. I only know our own conditions, and we are only one phase of the problem, a faraway phase, hanging on the extreme western fringe of the nation. You will understand that I am only undertaking to speak according to my own lights, and that these may not serve very far from home, may be entirely unusuitable for other regions in this great commonwealth.

In our part of the country, the great agency for producing rural teachers is the state normal school. We have at present eight splendid normal schools scattered all the way up and down the state. Every one is located in a city—one at San Francisco, one at Los Angeles, one at San Diego, one at San Jose, and so on. A normal school is an asset for a city—and only a city has enough momentum to grab it from a legislature.

Now these excellent normal schools are fully open to all the young people of the state who qualify. Theoretically, the rural people have the same rights there as others, and theoretically they prepare teachers for the rural schools in the same way as for the city schools.

But practically and in fact, what happens? What is so natural, so easy, and so cheap as for the swarms of city girls who graduate from the city high schools to enter at once a normal school right at home? They are not ready to marry, they want a little more schooling, they would like a job that pays real money—so why not? It is actually easier and cheaper for them to take the normal course than to do anything else—easier and cheaper than to stay at home. Consequently, they do take it, in larger and larger numbers, not consciously choosing the teacher's profession, but drifting into it.

How different the situation of the young people in the remote and inaccessible rural regions. When they graduate from their local schools, it is well-nigh impossible for them to go to normal school. They cannot go in any such way, with any such ease, such lack of additional expenditure, as the city girls do. They must tear up their old associations, they must buy new clothes, must have money for transportation, must leave the home nest, must have cash in hand for every little act of life. They cannot do it. They have not the money. They cannot leave their homes. Only the occasional one, the one with the fixed ambition to be a teacher, can overcome the inertia necessary to break away and go to the city in order to enter the normal school.

Consequently, the great body of normal graduates are girls who are raised in the cities where the normal schools are located. The great body of normal graduates go out to teach first in the rural schools. In two years' time, if they are good, they may secure employment in the city.

The final result, the result in the large way, the naturally to-be-expected result is that the rural schools are taught by a body of young women who have never been in the country before, who scream at a cow, who take a fit at a horse, who cannot get up for breakfast, who cannot sleep for lonesomeness because everything is so still. These are good, honest, well-meaning girls, doing the best they can, remember.

But what can they do for rural children? What influences do they exert toward making them happy in their rural environment, toward teaching them to appreciate and enjoy rural pleasures, toward inducing them to stay on the farm? These teachers cannot do it. They are not built that way. It is as impossible as for the Ethiop to change his skin. Their lives have been spent in the city. Their friends and pleasures are all there. There is the heaven to which they will return as soon as they can finish their two years of purgatory.

"Out of the fulness of the heart the mouth speaketh." In what direction, think you, will be the whole trend of such a teacher's unconscious influence upon the children with whom she associates for a year or two? Where, to them, will lie the great things, the attractive things, the desirable things of life? Where will they really desire to go as soon as they can? What will they dream about? Where will they expect to seek their fortunes?

Even the ambitious country-bred teacher, who does break thru difficulty, overcome inertia, and go away to a normal school or college for a period of years, has his heart and head full of the city. Naturally so. His own adventures and successes have been there, and he looks forward there to his future successes and adventures.

Ergo—I should say, that one of the ways certainly not to train rural teachers is by the agency of a normal school located in and dominated by a city.

I often hear the consolidated school, the centralized school, urged as the great panacea for the ills of the rural children. Indeed, I have often urged it myself. It is a fascinating and inspiring idea—a strong populous school, with an enterprising, ambitious man for principal. What possibilities it would have! How it could organize, how inspire the young people! How it could have debating teams, literary societies, sports, athletics, student government, contests, clubs! How it could become the center of the civic life, and fill the community with wholesome enthusiasm! The picture is so attractive and so feasible that I have sometimes almost, but not quite, resigned my job, in order to work it out myself in some fortunate neighborhood!

But let us hold our horses long enough to inquire as to the real influence of the centralized school upon the rural children, its power to create rural ideals, to build rural inclinations, rural tendencies.

However it may be elsewhere, in our country it somehow nearly always happens that the centralized school is located in the largest town in the neighborhood. The children are transported, yes, from the country to the town! and their minds are transported no less than their bodies! Their most impressionable years are spent away from the country, in absorbing the things that will fit them for life in the city, and that will probably unfit them for happiness, content, and success in the country.

The very best teachers now alive—those that get credit and renown, and money, and advancement—are those who can most skilfully and efficiently inspire their pupils and point them toward and train them for the great things of life—in the city! Really, they cannot do anything else. That is what they are trained for, that is their tradition, that is what they know, that is what is expected of them, that is what they are paid to do.

Very many wise and earnest men and women—the greatest and most famous of our time—are now thinking and talking and writing about improving the conditions of rural life. They see it as a vital necessity for the future power and prosperity of the nation. They see that the people who possess the land and till it are really those upon whom our country must depend, and that it is placing the nation in jeopardy to let the land pass into the hands of indigestible aliens or ignorant, brutalized peasants. They see it as a necessity for our future to have our land owned and worked by solid, happy, intelligent American citizens, and not at all by absentee landlords and their serfs. They perceive danger to our institutions when the newly arrived Japanese or Italian is so efficient, so adapted to conditions, that he can drive the American off the farm and take possession of the soil.

These wise ones are pretty unanimous in loading a redirecting of rural thought and rural life upon that patient and suffering camel, the public school. They frankly confess their inability to teach new tricks to old dogs, and ask the schools to raise an altogether new breed of pups. But to do so we must evolve a new breed of schools and a new breed of teachers to put into those schools. It is not merely a matter of education; it is a matter of thinking, of feeling, of hoping, of believing.

We cannot check the exodus from the country by something superficially applied from the outside. There must be something born in the children, some change in the atmosphere they breathe, some alteration of their ambitions and aspirations. As it is, nearly everybody wants to go to the city—really hopes and desires to go, sometime. The lonesome housewife doomed to drudgery; the mother, who sees the druggist's children and the doctor's offspring better off than hers; the farmer, working long hours, without the good clothes and smug appearance of the banker and lawyer; the girl dreaming of the fairy prince; the boy tired of the everlasting chores—they all want and hope and desire to go to the city—and sooner or later they go. For that matter, you went, didn't you? So did I. But we do not want the others to go.

Giving the rural people greater profits, greater prosperity, will not do. Isn't it the prosperous farmers who are the greatest sinners? Do they not lease their fine farms to

immigrants, and buy a place in town, so that their children may have "advantages," so they will not have to work so hard?

The results of the exodus are not only bad in a large way for the farming country, but also in a large way for the people who move. On the farm, children are an asset; in the city, a liability. The poor man who leaves the farm dooms his family, present and prospective, to extinction. The expense of keeping it, the difficulty of securing plenty of wholesome food, abundance of wholesome air, exercise, and good growing conditions for it will sooner or later wipe it out.

The rich man who leaves the farm for greater "disadvantages" in town is not much better. His children have no spur toward effort. They fritter themselves away on society, dissipation, sport, and what not. They, too, scatter and disappear from the earth in a generation or two. The city is always an extinguisher of the family in every way.

Now if the sovereign people of this nation, with patriotic vision of the future, really propose to change these conditions, to turn the cityward tide, and if they really propose to lay the responsibility of effecting the change upon us school people, we undertake a very vital and serious task—the task of making over a nation, of changing the heart of a people, of making them appreciate and love and desire the things they do not, of giving them hopes and pleasures and aspirations that now they have not.

The teachers who can do this are not yet bred; and to return to my text, the way not to prepare them is any of the ways in which we have been preparing teachers. We have been preparing them in exactly the opposite direction—to encourage, and stimulate, and spur on the procession to the city, not to stem or check or turn it!

The rural-mindedness so necessary to rural life cannot be produced in our old way, by a course. We must devise some new agency to do it with—automobiles, or aeroplanes, or high powers, or submarines, or something! Isn't that the way of the rest of the world?

RURAL SUPERVISION IN THE MOUNTAINS OF THE SOUTH

JENNIE BURKES, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF CLAIBORNE COUNTY, CUMBERLAND GAP, TENN.

When the subject of rural supervision in the mountain sections of the South was chosen, it was my plan to tell true stories of actual experiences as told or written to me by various county superintendents and supervisors whose everyday work is confined to the rural schools in the mountains. But I soon found that this story-telling would take too much time and that I could not enter fully into the spirit of another's story.

"For the truth which another has won from nature or from life is not our truth until we have lived it. Only that becomes real or helpful to any man which has cost the sweat of his brow, the effort of his brain, or the anguish of his soul."

This, then, is my apology for confining my subject to the narrow horizon of my own experience as superintendent of schools in the mountains of Tennessee.

Perhaps the highest type of supervision for the rural schools in the mountains is expected to come directly from the county superintendent. But his duties are so numerous that efficient supervision along any specific line becomes a physical impossibility.

If a supervisor is a person who changes a teacher from what he is to what he ought to be, we are willing to admit that much time and money have been wasted in the South on account of the lack of such ideal supervision. However, investigation shows that wherever supervisors have been employed their supervision has generally tended toward the upbuilding of our schools. It has also been found that a successful supervisor or superintendent in the mountains should be a rural-school specialist and a professional educator. He must have an exceptional degree of enthusiasm, a passion for service, the courage of the uninitiated, and the nerve of an ex-president.

Claiborne County lies in the Cumberland Mountains of eastern Tennessee. It is a typical mountain country so far as ruggedness, bad roads, and low property assessment

are concerned. Three years ago, when I became superintendent of the Claiborne County schools, I found myself confronted with every problem known to education. Our school fund was small on account of our very low assessment; our school term was only three and one-half months; our teachers were poorly paid, and likewise poorly qualified; our buildings unspeakable, our equipment nothing.

Undoubtedly our most valuable asset was a county board of education, consisting of five people who had little schooling but an abundance of common-sense, rugged honesty, wholesome spirit, and a willingness to do something for the betterment of our schools.

We learned that every board of education should have a clearly defined, definitely planned school policy, so our slogan for the first year became "Better schools and a longer school term." After a series of educational campaigns conducted in every district of the county, the court met and raised our public-school levy from thirty-five to sixty cents, which in turn lengthened our school term from three and one-half months to five months, and permitted better salaries for our teachers.

Before our schools opened, the teachers were assembled in a county institute for three weeks, where they were given special training in the public-school subjects and a little psychology.

With the courage which only the inexperienced know, we took our schools out of politics, abandoned recklessly old customs of doing things, and established a new order of administration. The last straw was when the board employed a rural supervisor of schools. The people considered this action a piece of unheard-of extravagance and questioned its legality. The court at its next session took up the matter and voted against the employment of a supervisor, by a majority of seventeen to five. When this honorable body were told that they had absolutely nothing to do with the hiring of a supervisor, they settled back with this question: "What will she do next?"

The answer came a few weeks later when the county, state, and federal governments, under the Smith-Lever bill, employed a county agricultural agent to help the farmers in their work. We hope that these agricultural object-lessons will speedily bring about an economic revolution, because it is an economic problem, fundamentally, that our mountain people have to face.

The indifference of the country people toward the schools, and the unsightly school buildings and grounds, compelled us to adopt for our slogan the second year: "A school improvement association for every school."

Appropriations from the county and state made it possible to have a very much better institute for our teachers the second year. For four weeks some of the best educators of the state gave courses, including practical psychology, public-school music, primary methods, story-telling, games and plays, agriculture, home economics, and special lectures on history, English, and sanitation. At the close of this institute, the teachers unanimously adopted the following list of specifications for standardization (in the order of adoption):

1. School graded.
2. Library and bookcase.
3. House painted; roof, doors, windows, and locks repaired.
4. School flag.
5. Drinking-fountain or water-cooler with individual drinking-cups.
6. Timepiece (clock preferred).
7. Globe, maps, good blackboard, erasers, and waste-basket.
8. Brooms, duster, and sprinkler, or oiled floors.
9. Cloakrooms or racks for hats and caps.
10. Flowers in yard, on table, or in window.
11. Neat school grounds.
12. Sanitary outhouses.
13. First-aid remedies.
14. Inventory showing everything received and added during the year.
15. Two pictures, well-framed, and an additional picture each year.
16. Call bell for class use.

17. Proper seating.
18. Proper ventilation.
19. Proper heating (stove jacketed).
20. School improvement club.
21. Activity of teacher in church and Sunday school.
22. Attendance at teachers' meetings.
23. Daily schedule posted (including daily study and recitation periods).
24. Taking and reading at least one educational journal.
25. Minimum of at least three public gatherings in school.
26. Visiting every home, or stating reason for failure.
27. No use of tobacco nor alcoholics by teacher or pupils.
28. Personal supervision of pupils at play.
29. Neat personal appearance of teacher.
30. Orderly assembling and dismissing of pupils.
31. Reading of Bible at opening exercises.
32. Neatly kept register, with daily roll-call.
33. Domestic arts in home or school; two exhibits by at least one-half of the girls.
34. Manual training in home or school; exhibit at close of school, by at least one-half of the boys.
35. School exhibit at county fair.
36. Subscription to at least one daily newspaper.

Every school that complies with 75 per cent of the items of standardization will be classed a standard school; those that comply with 85 per cent of the items will be classed as superior schools.

This was a very progressive and courageous step on the part of the teachers, when we consider that the best-equipped school in the county at that time could not measure up to half-standard. Every school made an effort toward standardization, and, thru the earnest work of teachers, patrons, and pupils, at the close of the school year, there were 29 superior schools and 52 standard schools, out of 102 schools in the county.

We know that our schools have not fulfilled their whole mission until they reflect the everyday life and activities of the country people, so our slogan for the past year became "Better education for all." Thru the volunteer service of some of our teachers, a number of moonlight schools were organized, and nearly one hundred adult illiterates were taught to read and write, while scores of men and women extended their education in subjects of their choice.

In the mountain sections, the one-teacher school is at present a necessity. As our roads become improved and our people acquire a more comprehensive idea of the true meaning of education, we may hope for consolidation in a small way, but the one-teacher school, like the poor, I fear, will always be with us. Yet, in spite of existing conditions, the board has abandoned by elimination or consolidation twelve small schools.

We believed that in our valleys consolidation was possible, roads or no roads, if the people really wanted it. We argued that if good roads will bring consolidation of schools, why won't consolidated schools bring good roads? The state and county each appropriated \$1,000 to foster the idea of consolidation, and this \$2,000 was offered to the community that would raise the largest amount toward the construction of a model consolidated school building. Today there stands in Powell's Valley, on seven acres of land, a beautiful brick building where the children from three one-teacher schools and one two-teacher school are enjoying advantages they never knew before.

At its very next session, the county court issued pike-road bonds to the amount of \$377,000, so that good roads might go hand in hand with good schools in Claiborne County!

This year our increased assessment will give us at least a six months' school term. Our teachers' salaries have been raised, so that we shall not hold a county institute but require our teachers to attend a state normal school or the summer school of the South. Another county agent has been employed under the Smith-Lever bill to organize girls' canning clubs, and to do extension work in home economics. With all the forces I have

mentioned hammering away on the same problems, we believe we have achieved a foothold in the wall of true education by which we may climb to better and higher standards. There are many counties in Tennessee and the South that have accomplished more than we have, but I know of none whose teaching force is so loyal in service, so willing to work, and so sweet about it.

By this time I hope I have proved that the rural teacher is the school. Of course, visits from supervising teachers and the superintendent may inspire the efficient teacher and may help the inefficient teacher in her work, but if these visits are not frequent, the supervision does very little good. Any supervision, however, is better than no supervision, for even that will help to keep the superintendent in closer touch with the schools than if there were none. Much will be done for education when our teachers can be brought to realize that the greatest problem we have is how to make our schools affect the community life. And how to do it is a question that can be settled only by the individual teacher working for the greatest good of her own community. Thus the problem of rural supervision in the mountains lies largely with the teachers who must, in isolated communities, become the leaders of public opinion.

THE STATUS AND NEED OF RURAL SUPERVISION

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A discussion of this subject is practically a discussion of the status of the rural-school superintendents, county or district, as we seem to understand by the term "supervision" everything included in the work of the superintendent. Our conception of what constitutes supervision is constantly changing. At first it was the management of the business side of the school system, later it became management of the business side plus the direction of the educational work of the school and the methods of teaching, and now in many cases it is the direction of the educational work only. This is indicated by two expressions in very common use throught the country, "units of organization for administration," and "units of organization for supervision." In our city systems the two units are identical. The unit is the territory under the management of a single board and also under the supervision of a single superintendent; but in rural districts the two units are identical only in the "county unit" states. In the superintendency unions of New England, each a unit of supervision, the management rests with as many separate boards as there are towns in the union; in the New York supervisory district, with as many separate boards as there are school districts in the supervisory district. In the 40 states employing county superintendents, in which the unit of supervision is therefore the county, the unit of organization for management and support in 4 is the township and in 22 the old local school district.

Let me outline briefly the various systems of rural supervision in the United States: In New England, the city or town includes everything within the township lines, all under the management of one board and under the charge of one superintendent. A large number of the city superintendents of New England therefore have charge of rural territory as well as urban territory, and rural schools as well as urban schools. In the more sparsely settled sections, two or more townships are joined together to form a "union superintendency." In management each township is independent. The superintendent divides his time among his townships in proportion to the number of schools or teachers in each. In Vermont the superintendents are all appointed by the state board of education and paid by the state. The state board determines the boundaries of the districts, following township lines but disregarding county lines. The average district contains from 100 to 120 square miles. The Massachusetts supervisory districts contain from 2 to 4 townships, with from 20 to 40 teachers. The townships retain control of the

management, engage a superintendent certified and approved by the state department of education, and receive from the state a fund equal to one-half of the superintendent's salary. This plan has been in operation for 28 years. Supervision of schools in the small towns of Connecticut dates from 1903, in which year the legislature passed an act providing that towns with less than 10 teachers might petition the state board of education for the appointment of a superintendent. The state board appointed the supervisor; the town fixed his salary, paying one-fourth of it, the state paying three-fourths. In 1907 the law was amended so that towns with as many as 20 teachers might ask for a supervisor, provision being made for the payment of the entire salary by the state. As a result there are now 93 towns in the state, in 32 supervisory districts, under 32 supervisors appointed and paid by the state, and an average of 30 teachers to each supervisor.

The average New England superintendent of a union district has 17 schools, 34 teachers, and 52 square miles of territory. Very few assistant superintendents are employed, as they are unnecessary in such small supervisory districts. Little allowance is made for traveling expenses, as but little is needed; however, very well-trained men, a great majority (83 per cent) being college graduates with successful teaching experience, are employed.

The results of this close supervision of rural schools in New England are identical with those obtained in Connecticut, as summarized by C. D. Hine, secretary of the State Board of Education, as follows:

1. Better attendance.
2. Decreased number of one-room schools thru consolidation.
3. Increased number of trained teachers employed.
4. Increase in the proportion of pupils graduating from the elementary schools and entering the high schools.
5. Increased regularity and punctuality of children.
6. Marked improvement in buildings.
7. Unmistakable evidence of greater interest in schools on the part of school officers and parents.

A study of the records of the small towns now having school supervision shows the following interesting changes since 1903-4:

1. Proportion of registered pupils attending school every day has risen from 77 per cent to 82.7 per cent.
2. The number of one-room schools in these towns has decreased from 537 to 481, or 10 per cent.
3. The number of normal graduates employed as teachers in these towns has increased from 211 to 382—an increase of 55 per cent.
4. The number of pupils attending high schools from these towns has increased from 1,131 to 2,004, or 77 per cent.

Perhaps one of the most significant results of supervision has been the elimination of waste effort and lost time in the schoolroom. The gain in efficiency by these economies is making possible the more rapid advancement of pupils. Already a reduction of the elementary-school course from the traditional nine years to eight has been effected in schools under state supervision. The gain thru economy of time and better organization of work will eventually mean the completion in the early years of the course of the necessary training in fundamental operations with numbers and in the mechanics of reading and penmanship. One or two years in the latter part of the course may be then devoted to practical studies directly helpful to pupils soon to leave school for work.

The New York system is similar to the New England system in many ways, the supervisory district corresponding closely to the New England supervisory district in size and formation. It is a development, however, from the county rather than from the township. The old county superintendents of New York were replaced January 1, 1912, by district superintendents, each county—with four exceptions—being divided into from 2 to 8 supervisory districts. There are approximately 207 supervisory districts in the state, and there are 57 counties, making an average of 4 to a county. The district boundaries coincide with the township boundaries: so the New York districts, like the New England districts, may be said to be made up of a union of townships. The superin-

tendents are selected by boards representing the townships in each supervisory district. The average number of schools to each county superintendent is 52, the number of teachers 82, the number of square miles of territory 254.

The superintendents, like those in New England in the union supervisory districts, are approved by the state department of education and are practically all college-trained men, approximately 68 per cent having two or more years' college work. The powers and duties conferred upon them are practically the same as those conferred upon the city superintendents in the states in which they are working.

In all the other states of the Union, with two exceptions, the supervision of rural schools is in the hands of county superintendents with or without assistants. These two exceptions are Virginia and Nevada. In Virginia the superintendent is a "division superintendent," the division in most cases, as far as rural schools are concerned, being a county; in several cases it is two counties. In Nevada the supervision is under five deputy state superintendents of public instruction. Arkansas might be cited as another exception, for Arkansas as yet employs county superintendents in but one-fourth of the counties of the state. In the other counties there is no supervision.

In three States—Maryland, Florida, and Louisiana—the county superintendents have under their supervision all cities in the counties, as well as the rural territory; in the other states, cities are set apart under their own supervisory officers. In at least 30 of the 40 states having county superintendents, assistant county superintendents under one title or another are employed, the number varying from that of a certain state with nearly 100 counties, one of which only employs an assistant, to that of Ohio, with 88 county superintendents and approximately 540 district superintendents. This plan is new in Ohio, being the result of the school laws passed by the legislature in January, 1914, and it is too early to know definitely what its results will be; however, it is very similar to the West Virginia plan, which has been in operation long enough to prove that it is very satisfactory. The boards of education of the West Virginia magisterial districts, civil districts corresponding to the eastern townships, employ district superintendents, or two adjacent districts may unite in employing a single superintendent. He is legally an assistant to the county superintendent. All districts have not employed such supervisors, but there are 82 altogether, enough so that one-third of the rural teachers in the state are in supervised districts. Kentucky is trying a plan somewhat similar; it has approximately 200 rural supervisors or "supervising principals," each confining his work to one of the "educational divisions" of a county. Oregon's plan is also similar. By legislative enactment of 1911, counties with more than 60 teachers were divided into supervisory districts, each district containing approximately 60 teachers, and a supervisor appointed for the district is made responsible directly to the county superintendent for all of his work. The 1915 legislature made the plan optional instead of mandatory, to be continued, however, until voted out by the school directors of the county.

These are all instances of plans where each supervisor has a definite portion of the county to which his work is confined. Other states have passed mandatory or permissive laws for assistant county superintendents working thruout the entire county from the county superintendent's office. Pennsylvania, for instance, requires every county with 200 rural teachers to employ at least one assistant, with 400 teachers at least two, etc. Wisconsin has a supervising teacher in each county. Illinois allows the county commissioners to employ assistants when they desire to do so; in Cook County they employ five. In states with the county unit, the county boards of education, as a rule, may employ as many assistants as they wish; the county boards of Maryland, for instance, have the same privilege in employing assistants to the county superintendent that the city board of Baltimore has in employing assistants to the city superintendent. In one county with 600 teachers the board employs nine assistants. In the county-unit states, probably 500 rural-school supervisors or assistant superintendents are employed.

This all sounds as if in the 40 states with county supervision there are but few county superintendents without assisting supervisors; as a matter of fact, the number with such supervisors is very small in comparison to the total. In the approximately 2,830 counties in the 40 states, approximately 18 per cent employ assistants. In 10 states none are employed; in 5, assistants are employed in 10 per cent or less than 10 per cent of the counties. Clerical assistance, in many cases only part-time, is furnished to 29 per cent of the superintendents. It is noteworthy that the majority of assistants are employed in county-unit states and relatively few or none in the district-unit states. The 10 states in which none are employed are all in the group organized for management on the "district" plan.

The efficiency of the supervision of the county superintendents who are working without assistants (82 per cent of the total) depends upon many things: the size of the territory under their supervision, the conditions of travel, the number of schools, teachers, pupils, etc., the organization for the administration of the school affairs, the legal powers and duties conferred upon them, their education, training, and experience, the length of the term of office for which they are elected or selected, and the method of election or selection.

We are making in the bureau, at the present time, a study of county supervision, and have definite data to indicate the difficulties of the county superintendent's job, if the county superintendent makes a real attempt to supervise by visiting his schools.

The average territory of the county superintendent in the United States is 1,500 square miles. In 13 states, practically all eastern states, the average for each state is less than 600 square miles; in 13 others, it is between 600 and 1,000; in 3, it is over 5,000. (The area of the state of Rhode Island is approximately 1,248 square miles.) The rural-school term in the majority of these states is so short (five to eight months) and the roads so bad that the county superintendent cannot make many visits in a year; the average county superintendent spends 36 per cent of his time visiting. In about one-half of the states, the prevailing number of visits is one per year, in almost all of the others two per year, the visits being from one-half to two hours in length. He has 84 school buildings, 77 per cent of which are one-teacher buildings, and 132 teachers. In one state, the average is 217 buildings, 354 teachers; in four other states, the average number of teachers per county is over 200.

For traveling, the county superintendents are allowed traveling expenses in practically all states, the amount, however, varying from almost nothing to about \$800. In practically all states certain allowance is made for office expenses, including salaries of assistants and traveling expenses. The salaries paid the county superintendents vary in different states, from \$3,000 paid in New Jersey to each county superintendent to an average of \$720 paid in Wyoming. There are four states in which the average salary is less than \$1,000 per year and there are three states in which the average is more than \$2,000 per year. The average of the 40 state averages is \$1,388. This sounds much better than it ought, for minimum salaries paid in individual cases are very low. Ten county superintendents in the United States receive less than \$300 per year; 24, more than \$300 but less than \$500; and 64 receive more than \$500 but less than \$700.

The legal powers and duties conferred upon the county superintendents vary very greatly. In some states they are very limited, being little more than what the county superintendent can coax the school directors to allow him to do; in other states they are very great. For instance, the county superintendent in Washington has the supervision of the work of common schools of his county, enforces the use of the course of study, enforces the rules and regulations required in the examination of teachers, and conducts the examinations, holds teachers' institutes and county meetings of school directors, suspends teachers for neglect of duty, enforces the compulsory education law, may require reports of school directors and teachers, and the plans for new school buildings must be approved by him before the building may be erected. In practice, he controls the estimate

of expenses in each district and has much influence in the selection of teachers. He also selects the county board of education, a professional board consisting of himself and four others, which is authorized to grade the eighth-grade examinations, to adopt textbooks for the entire county, to prepare teachers' manuals, courses of study, rules and regulations for governing circulating libraries, and to adopt such rules and regulations concerning the schools of the county as are not inconsistent with the state laws or the regulations of the state board of education.

Very much, of course, depends upon this superintendent's general education, training, and experience in school affairs. From our special inquiry relative to the schooling of the county superintendents, we find that 6 per cent have attended elementary schools only, 3 per cent have had one year of secondary school, 3 per cent two years of secondary school, 4 per cent three years of secondary school, 20 per cent four years of secondary-school work; 17 per cent have had one year or less than one year of higher education, 17 per cent have had two years, 6 per cent have had three years, and 22 per cent have had four years. In making this average, if we omit the county superintendents of Ohio, who are practically all college graduates, and Pennsylvania and Indiana, which have a large number of college graduates, the percentages of those with secondary education or less are much greater than just given and represent more nearly the average condition.

It is interesting to make a comparison of the general education of the county superintendents for the states where these officers are appointed as against the states in which they are elected. We divided the 40 states with county superintendents into three groups; the first, of which there are 13, being the states in which the superintendents are appointed; the second, of which there are 10, being the states in which the superintendents are elected by popular vote for four-year terms; the third, of which there are 17, the states in which the superintendents are elected by popular vote for two-year terms.

In the first group, 2.5 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the second group, 8.4 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the third group, 6.6 per cent have attended elementary schools only

In the first group, 5.5 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the second group, 18 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the third group, 10 per cent have had more than an elementary and less than a complete high-school course

In the first group, 12 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the second group, 19 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the third group, 25 per cent have had the equivalent of a full high-school course

In the first group, 37 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three full years, and 43 per cent are graduates; in the second group, 39 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three full years, and 12 per cent are graduates; in the third group 41 per cent have had college work of from less than one year up to three years, and 17 per cent are graduates. If we compare the two groups, one including the 13 states in which the superintendents are appointed, the other the 27 states in which the superintendents are elected, we find the following:

Amount of Schooling	First Group	Second Group
Elementary education only	2.5 per cent	7.2 per cent
From one to three years secondary	5.5 per cent	14.0 per cent
Full four years secondary	12.0 per cent	33.0 per cent
From one to three years higher	37.0 per cent	40.0 per cent
Full four years higher	43.0 per cent	15.0 per cent
	80 per cent	55 + per cent

This seems to prove that for county superintendents a greater number of men and women who have received more general education and training are appointed by county

boards than by popular election. It appears also that those appointed have had more teaching experience previous to selection than elected officers: the average for those appointed being 9.3 years, for those elected 8.9 years. This is an argument in favor of the appointed county superintendent. Another argument might be found in the figures showing the total number of the superintendents of the two groups who have been re-appointed or re-elected. Among the appointed superintendents, 36 per cent are serving their first terms; 29 per cent their second terms; 35 per cent their third or more than third terms. Among the elected superintendents, 63 per cent are serving their first terms; 26 per cent their second terms; and 11 per cent their third terms. The records of some of the states are interesting. One state has as high as 70 per cent of county superintendents who are serving their first terms; this, of course, is a state where the county superintendents are elected by popular vote. A study of the number of superintendents who have been in office more than eight years brings out the fact that most of these are in the group of appointed superintendents and very few in states where they are elected by popular vote. This may or may not be an argument for appointed superintendents.

It is a little off my subject to discuss the relative merits of the appointed versus the elected county superintendent. The status of this question is that in 21 states the rural superintendents are appointed, and in 27 they are elected. Of the former 21 states, 17 are east of the Mississippi River. Alabama has passed the necessary legislation, and by the addition of this state the number of states appointing their superintendents will become 22 at the expiration of the terms of her present officers.

We have found other interesting facts in our study of county supervision. There are 547 women county superintendents, or 19.4 per cent of the total number. Our figures seem to show that the women superintendents as a class have had better general education and more professional training than the men; that they devote a larger percentage of their time to visiting schools; that the prevailing number of visits to each school is greater and the length of time spent with each teacher is longer. The women county superintendents, it would seem, have fewer things outside of the regular work to engage their time.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF OVER 250,000

A FIRST STEP IN ESTABLISHING THE SIX-THREE-THREE ORGANIZATION

HERBERT S. WEET, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

Last September the city of Rochester opened its first school under the six-three-three plan. This plan was chosen primarily because school authorities believed that it presented possibilities of meeting the needs of the seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls to a far greater extent than we have been able to meet them heretofore. No one today denies the value of manual training for boys and household arts work for girls, at least in the seventh and eighth grades. There are many, however, who argue, and we believe argue soundly, that there is doubtful value in much of this work as it is usually given in the regular grammar school. In the first place, the time is insufficient. This objection is raised even more by parents than by school men. But by far the more serious objection is to the nature of the work itself. For boys it is usually general and disciplinary, is limited to simple forms of woodwork only, and lacks the purpose and motivation necessary to awaken either cultural or vocational interest. If the time element were the only one involved, it would be possible to lengthen the grammar-school days, but the expense incurred in any attempt to offer, in connection with each grammar school, the range and kind of manual-training facilities needed for these boys is absolutely prohibitive. This expense is not only for original equipment, but it is for the necessarily high per capita

cost of instruction, considering the comparatively small number of boys found in even our largest grammar schools.

Furthermore, few people doubt today that the boys and girls who are to study a foreign language ought to begin this study before the usual high-school period. Is it a fair proposition to say that at the eighth year the boy who has an interest in and an ability for language should have the opportunity of spending more of his time on this subject, while the boy who has an interest in and an ability for the industrial arts should have the opportunity of spending in this department the additional time that the former pupil spends on a foreign language? We believed that such an arrangement should be possible. But the limited numbers involved in even the largest grammar school in Rochester made this limited difference impracticable. Any attempt at it would at the best be but a makeshift. The fact is that in the last analysis the junior-high-school problem is essentially one of numbers.

Of course the value of what has been said thus far rests upon the assumption that there are needs among these seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls that we have not been meeting under the usual grammar-grade organization. To deny this it is necessary to show that those pupils who withdrew from school, at least upon the completion of the eighth-grade work, withdrew largely because of economic pressure in the home. Our evidence is quite to the contrary. Of those who completed the eighth-year work last January under the junior-high-school organization, 94½ per cent have remained for the ninth-year work. A year ago, in exactly the same community, but under the grammar-school organization, only 51 per cent remained for ninth-year work. This unmistakably suggests that there were needs among these upper-grade pupils that were not being met, and that the present junior-high-school type of work is meeting these needs.

In this attempt, however, to meet more adequately the needs of these upper-grade pupils, there is danger of forcing or encouraging vocational selection at such an early age that it may result in the lifelong injury of the pupil. The average age of the eighth-grade graduates in the city of Rochester is fourteen and one-half years. Certainly any influence that encourages choice of a specific vocation earlier than this cannot be defended by the public school. This is an educational principle upon which there has been much discussion from time to time. This objection to what was regarded as early specialization was the one most urgently used against the extension of regular high-school courses beyond the lines of literary, pure science, and mathematics work.

On the other hand, any form of school organization that affords no opportunity for awakening vocational interests and encouraging vocational abilities before the time when vocational selection actually is made would seem to err in the other direction. We believed this to be a pronounced weakness in our former organization. Both parent and pupil were forced to make some sort of selection of decided vocational importance to the pupil at the completion of this eighth-grade work. In this particular community, nearly half of the pupils who remained for the completion of these eight years of work were withdrawing from school. With these the selection was of vital vocational importance, and yet chance rather than intelligence was to determine the outcome. The major part of these eighth-grade graduates who did continue in school, furthermore, were selecting the general or college preparatory courses of the upper high school; a smaller percentage, the trade courses for boys and girls of secondary grade. The distribution of our high-school pupils is suggestive on this point. Of the total number, 66 per cent are in the general or college preparatory courses, 27 per cent in the commercial courses, and 7 per cent in the trade courses. To the extent that the distribution of high-school pupils might be expected to reflect the vocational activities of the community, one would infer that two-thirds of all the working people of Rochester are engaged in professional vocations, while only one-third are carrying on the business and industrial enterprises of the city. Of course no one would expect or desire to find only those taking the college-preparatory courses of the upper high school who anticipate going to college and later entering upon professional

careers. There are many in this course who are there for purposes of general education and no one will deny that this is a highly defensible purpose for every pupil who has an interest in and the ability to profit by these literary, pure science, and mathematics courses. But how many of those who are actually familiar with our upper high schools would care to defend the proposition that for two-thirds of all our grammar-school graduates the general or college preparatory courses are the most helpful courses which they could possibly take during these four years of the high-school period? There is ample evidence to any person familiar with the facts that this general education only too often means aimless and ineffective education. And yet this is the traditional high-school course and consequently, in the judgment of so many parents, quite the course to take. By no means infrequently does the parent of a boy who is making a signal failure of his work in this course in high school plead that the boy be allowed to go on, because the general cultural benefits of the high-school atmosphere will be of so much help to him in later life—and this at the time in a boy's life when neither true culture nor real training can come thru any medium that does not bring forth sustained effort on the part of the individual. To the extent then that these two-thirds who are taking general or college preparatory courses represent those who will not gain results commensurate with the time and energy spent, a continuance of the system is resulting in lifelong injury to pupils quite as effectively as is the learning of any particular trade at too early an age, provided the learning of such a trade has been accomplished by hard and conscientious application.

But how are these interests and abilities to be determined? It is true that every eighth-grade teacher has watched certain of her graduates go on into the literary, pure science, and mathematics courses of the high school, knowing that they were doomed to failure in these lines. Her counsels availed little, however, when opposed by the traditional emphasis upon those high-school courses which may lead ultimately into professional life. But even in these cases the teacher has based her judgment more upon what the pupil has failed to do in courses given than upon what he has accomplished in other directions. This is obviously true because the grammar school has no facilities with which to make any adequate test along lines other than those which do lead to the general courses of the upper high school.

School authorities in Rochester believed that so long as these broader facilities for evoking the pupils' interest and abilities in the great field of manual arts were not made a reasonably adequate part of their lives before the compulsory education law had been satisfied, the steady withdrawal of such a large percentage of the eighth-grade graduates from this community and the traditional selection of the literary high-school courses on the part of so many others who would gain but meager profit from such courses would inevitably continue. The only way to guarantee these facilities was to make them a part of the pupils' school work before the compulsory attendance requirement had released its hold upon the child. The problem then lay in preserving a sensible balance between the one extreme represented by the single-teacher plan of grammar-school organization, and the other extreme of premature specialization. This could be done only by insistence that the courses for seventh- and eighth-grade pupils under the junior-high-school organization should provide so far as possible a range of activities sufficiently broad to bring out individual interests and capacities, and that they should be emphatically preparatory and prevocational. The following statement of the work given to these seventh- and eighth-grade pupils under this organization will best show how this attempt has been made.

Manual training and household arts.—A minimum of three hours per week is required of every pupil during the first two years. A maximum of twelve hours per week is allowed during the latter half of the first year and during the second year. For the boys there are the following shops, each in charge of a master mechanic: printing, sheet-metal, plumbing, gas-engine, joinery, cabinet-assembly, pattern-making, mill-work, painting, and decorating. For the girls the work includes plain sewing, millinery, dressmaking,

laundry work, and cookery. Those boys who take the minimum time for this work during these two years are given the choice of shops, so far as conditions will permit. The same principle holds with those who take the maximum amount, except that no pupil is allowed to spend more than ten weeks in any one of these shops during this period. The aim here is to test special interest and ability, to give some insight into the trade field, and to give such hand training as is consistent with the maturity of the pupil. In so far as this aim is realized, such a pupil, if obliged to leave school at the end of his eighth year, will have received some training for his work that will be comparable in value to the preparation given the boy who is to have the advantages of a full high-school course. If on the other hand he is to continue in school along trade lines, he will be much more able to select intelligently his special trade.

English, including spelling, writing, grammar, composition, and literature.—This work is required of all pupils during the first two years. Those pupils, however, who give the maximum time to the manual training and the household arts after the first half-year, spend less school time on technical grammar and literature than do the other pupils. Such pupils are required, however, to read outside of school hours a certain amount of good literature. The texts for this are assigned by the teacher, who guides and directs the reading, and who at certain intervals discusses with these pupils the significant points in the literature read. It is interesting to note how already these pupils are associating the reading of a good book with the leisure time in the home.

Arithmetic.—This subject is required of all pupils during the first two years. After the first half-year, those who are taking the maximum time in the manual training and household arts find their application of the principles in connection with this manual work. In like manner those who are interested rather in business or commercial lines find their special application in the different phases of business arithmetic.

Drawing.—This is required of all pupils during the first two years. The emphasis is put upon the mechanical or freehand drawing, according to the nature of the other work of the pupil.

Geography.—This is required of all pupils during the first year. Commercial geography is also taken during the entire second year by those who are putting special emphasis upon the business or commercial work.

United States history, civics, and current topics.—These are required of all pupils during the first two years.

Elementary science and physical education.—These are required of all pupils during the first two years.

Music.—This is required of all pupils during the first half-year; of all except those who are taking the maximum time in the manual training and household arts during the second half-year; and of those pupils only who plan to go on to the upper high school during the second year.

Foreign language, Latin, or German.—This is allowed at the beginning of the second year for those pupils who plan to enter the language courses of the upper high school.

General mathematics.—This course includes arithmetic, concrete geometry, and elementary principles in algebra. It is taken during the second year and is designed to prepare more helpfully for the specialized courses of mathematics of the upper high school.

The school day begins at 8:30 and closes at 4:15, with one and one-quarter hours for noon intermission. This gives a school day of six and one-half hours, which is an increase of more than 20 per cent over the usual length of the school day in the elementary school. This day is divided into four periods of one hour and thirty minutes each. This length of period has two advantages. In the first place it allows time for definite training in the preparation of lessons. In the second place, it makes possible a less abrupt transition from the single-teacher plan of the elementary grades to the fully departmentalized work of the upper high school, by having subject groups rather than single subjects taught by certain teachers. For example, Latin, English grammar, and composition are taught

by the same teacher, while English literature, United States history, civics, and current topics are taught by another teacher.

A review of the above requirements for the first two years of this junior high school, corresponding to the seventh and eighth grades of the regular grammar school, makes clear the following:

1. That during the first half-year all pupils are required to take the same course. This gives a half-year in which to consult the home and study the entire elementary-school record of each pupil before making any attempt to meet individual needs thru differentiated courses.

2. That during the remainder of the first year a very conservative differentiation is made. This affords a half-year in which to verify the assignment before the sharper differentiation of the second year takes place.

3. That the final choice as to course does not come until the completion of the second year. This is the time when precisely this kind of a choice must be made by the pupil who completes the grammar-grade work. At this time the pupils who have emphasized the manual-training or the household-arts work under the differentiations previously allowed are free to enter the college-preparatory courses of the upper high school if they so desire. They will not have had the foreign-language nor the general mathematics courses of the eighth year, but even so they will be quite as well prepared for this work as are the graduates of the regular grammar schools. This is not an opinion, but a statement of fact based upon five years of experience in the Rochester Shop School for Boys.

4. That aside from the foreign language of the second year all subjects are substantially those now commonly offered to seventh- and eighth-grade pupils.

5. That no specialized commercial subjects, such as shorthand and bookkeeping, are offered during the first two years. Those pupils who show special interest in the commercial work offered are simply given a preparation for later specialized commercial subjects thru a partial application of arithmetic and English, for example, to business practice. This is regarded as most helpful for the pupil whether he goes into the commercial courses of the upper high school or into the business office upon the completion of the junior high-school work.

6. That no pupil is allowed to center his interest upon any specialized trade during the first two years. The maximum time spent in this line necessitates work in at least six different shops. Such a provision is designed to bring out vocational interest, to give some insight into the trade field, and to give such elementary hand training as is consistent with the maturity of the pupil.

7. That all boys during the first two years are receiving their manual training thru the working out of practical problems in various shops. This gives a purpose or a motive to the work which is of value in awakening both vocational and cultural interests. The boys who later are to go on to the language courses of the upper high school are working in the same shops as are the boys who are to go later into the trades. They are simply spending less time in these shops, because they have less need for this work. The same principle holds with the girls in the household-arts work.

8. That in short the whole work of these two years is preparatory and prevocational. The simple attempt is made to provide a range of facilities and a sufficient amount of time to bring out special aptitudes and then to give such development of these aptitudes as is consistent. Thus when the time comes for the pupil to decide upon his high-school course or upon his course in the world he will have received some insight into the vocational sphere, whether professional, business, or industrial, in which he will later find himself.

The attempt to avoid premature specialization and yet bring out and develop individual aptitudes has not been confined to courses of study. It has been applied to the task of selecting and training teachers as well as to the methods of organizing the school.

The selection of teachers for such a school is at the same time the most important and the most difficult problem which presents itself. Assuming that teaching experience

is indispensable, the choice lies between the experienced high-school teachers with college training and the experienced grade teachers, usually without such training. The former will be strong in subject knowledge but not so strong in their knowledge of seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls. They will furthermore be inclined to regard work in the junior high school as offering less advanced positions, even tho salary conditions are the same. The latter will be less strong in subject knowledge but stronger in their practical knowledge of upper-grade children. They will furthermore regard work in the junior high school as an advancement, and will be conscious of the need of supplementary training. This attitude of mind speaks volumes in favor of the experienced grade teachers.

Once it was decided to select experienced grade teachers, the problem of intelligent selection presented itself. Accordingly, one year before the junior high school was to open, a series of Saturday morning institutes was begun. Classes were organized in Latin, German, English, elementary science, and mathematics. These were for applicants for teaching positions in the academic course. Specially trained teachers were available for the commercial and household- and industrial-arts courses, tho Saturday morning institutes were organized and carried on thru the year in these courses also. The major emphasis in these latter was on courses of study.

To these courses every experienced grade teacher in the system who met the minimum requirements and who cared to apply was admitted. Every applicant for a position as teacher of mathematics in the junior high school was required to have had, for example, the full mathematics courses of the upper high school. To continue with this subject of mathematics as illustrative of the principle which prevailed in these institutes, three definite things were accomplished. In the first place, an opportunity was given for drawing up in outline a course of study in general mathematics for the eighth grade or second-year junior-high-school pupils of the academic course. It was exceedingly important that this should be done and that it should be done with great care, since this course was to prepare the pupil for the specialized mathematics courses of the upper high school. Furthermore, no textbook had been written to meet this particular condition. Had we confined ourselves to the arithmetic, or taken the straight high-school course in algebra, the task would have been simple. The institute was in charge of the head of the department of mathematics in the high school to which the pupils of this particular junior high school would later go. He knew the high-school needs and was naturally in a position to indicate the best line of preparation. In the institute class, on the other hand, were the experienced grade teachers with their knowledge of the capacity and limitations of upper-grade pupils. These seemed to be favorable conditions for working out courses of study. The working-out of such courses, therefore, was one important thing to be done in these institutes. In the second place, these institutes gave to the grade teachers an opportunity for subject-matter review in algebra and geometry. And, last^v, the work of the teachers in these institutes constituted one important factor in the ultimate selection of teachers. What has been said of this course in general mathematics was equally true in principle of each of the other courses.

The general organization of the school can be presented with comparative brevity. There are no departmental heads as we know them in the usual high-school organization. At the head of the school stands the principal, a strong, experienced grammar-school man. Associated with him and giving his whole time to the instructional side is a director of junior-high-school academic work. He also is an experienced grammar-school principal of exceptional ability in this particular field. His task is to relate and co-ordinate the academic work of the entire school, regardless of the department in which it is given. This makes for unity and it greatly facilitates the transfer of pupils from one course to another when there is a demonstrated need. One man is in general charge of the shops, one woman has the corresponding place in the household-arts work, and the director of commercial education for the entire system is taking immediate charge of the commercial department. The high-school departmental heads who carried thru the institute work

of last year are consulting engineers. Their interest has been pronounced and their contributions important. In fact, in the main they are coming to the school for a regular period each day, there to teach a class of eighth-grade pupils, while the regular teacher and often the director of academic work are present also to offer their contributions and assistance: such is the desire of these high-school men to know at first hand the powers and limitations of the grade pupil. This ought to contribute much to the solution of another commonly recognized problem, that of securing a closer working relation between the upper grades and the high schools.

This is an exceedingly simple type of organization and it will doubtless impress some as being too simple. On the other hand, those who are familiar with the usual departmental work of the upper high school, which only too often becomes compartmental, will find at least a partial defense for the plan outlined above. As later junior high schools are organized in Rochester, this director of academic work will extend his field as the unifying force for all, and such additional sub-directors will be assigned as experience proves desirable.

In conclusion, Rochester submits the following defense for this junior high school:

1. It has thus far increased by 15 per cent the number of pupils who have remained for eight years of work. This argues well for the reduction of eliminations from the seventh and eighth grades.

2. It has increased from 51 per cent to 94½ per cent the number of pupils who have completed the eight years of work and who are still remaining in school.

3. It has, thus far, produced a much saner distribution of high-school pupils. Whereas the distribution of all our high-school pupils is 66 per cent in the general or college-preparatory courses, 27 per cent in commercial courses, and only 7 per cent in the industrial and household-arts courses, the distribution of ninth-year pupils in the junior high school is 33 per cent in the general or college-preparatory courses, 33 per cent in the commercial courses, and 34 per cent in the industrial- and household-arts courses. We believe this to be a significant change, whether viewed from the standpoint of the distribution of vocational activities in the community or from the standpoint of a distribution that will give maximum training benefits to the pupils themselves. No one can say that this one-third in the general or college-preparatory course includes all pupils who might gain the maximum benefit from this course. On the other hand, no one familiar with the great mortality among first-year pupils in this course under the traditional distribution, and also familiar with the number of those who do remain and who seemingly fail to derive benefits commensurate with the time and energy spent in these courses, can be very apprehensive lest general culture will suffer under this changed distribution.

It would obviously be unreasonable to draw any conclusions concerning the merits of this school with less than a year of actual experience upon which to base such conclusions. Furthermore, one could not defend tracing the greatly increased number of pupils who are remaining for ninth-year work to any single cause, such, for example, as the differentiated courses. Changed economic conditions in the community may be an important factor here. The least that can be said, however, is that the experience thus far indicates that this junior high school will prove to be an educational investment that will pay abundant returns.

THE DETERMINATION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

HENRY SNYDER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, JERSEY CITY, N. J.

The prevalence of public discussion of the aims and work of the public schools, discussion, by the way, which is often needlessly virulent, is due not only to the demands of changing social and industrial conditions, as has often been observed, but to what has not always been kept in mind by school men, that is, to the wider diffusion of education

among the people and to the consequently larger body of individuals who are capable of presenting and advocating progressive educational policies.

These discussions necessarily take the form of criticism of the school policies which have been followed and of those who have approved of or presented them. It is true that in the past those who have been connected with the professional staffs, the superintendents and teachers, have been largely responsible for the policies which have governed educational departments, simply and solely because their professional knowledge and experience have led their communities to expect and require this leadership of them. A consideration of the provisions of state school codes and of the laws governing the management of school districts discloses the fact, remarkable in view of the practice which has been followed and which has been mentioned, that state school laws do not, except in a very few cases, give superintendents power to fix policies. When such power is given, it is generally bestowed by means of local rules, which can be revoked at any time. I need cite only such familiar but important illustrations as the determination and modification of courses of study, the fixing of the standard of the qualifications of teachers, and of the methods of selecting teachers. The responsibility of the superintendent may therefore be said to be one that is not imposed by law, but one that is personal and informal. In spite of this limitation of their statutory powers, and in spite of their well-known and justifiable conservatism, it is undoubtedly true that superintendents and teachers have generally responded quickly and effectively to progressive public demands, and that, where such demands have not met with favorable response, they have met irremovable financial or other obstructions, or have been opposed by the traditional views of those who remembered the details of their own training and who were influential in educational counsels. Then, too, it must be remembered that communities are not tolerant of educational mistakes, particularly if they involve financial expense. The great industrial concerns of the country and the great business houses do not hesitate to spend thousands of dollars in experimentation, involving oftentimes the relentless consignment to the scrap-heap of machinery, of devices, and plans, and schemes, all of which have been costly, which have been demonstrated by experiment to be failures, but which have also been the steps which have led to progress. No such freedom is permitted to the superintendent; nor should there be complaint that this is so, for he is dealing, not with lifeless material, but with the future lives of human beings; yet the contrast is cited here to indicate the limitation upon his opportunities for educational usefulness. His progress must necessarily be safe and slow. In view of all the circumstances, is it not a tribute to the capabilities of the superintendents and teachers of the country, and, at the same time, evidence of the confidence of the people in them, that they have been permitted to lead in fixing and maintaining educational policies?

Circumstances of their employment have forced school men to study changing conditions which surround the young, and to watch for signs which indicated the necessity of changes in policy. Consequently most of the important changes whose aim has been the linking up of school work with the practical affairs of life have been the result of their initiative. On the other hand, many of the so-called fads have found their way into the schools because of external pressure.

In the study of the formulation or determination of educational policies, there is one truth which we cannot escape. School men are not only employed and paid to instruct the young or to direct such instruction, but are required by the very terms of their employment to keep themselves accurately informed regarding the external conditions which necessitate changes in the character, extent, duration of instruction, and operation of the schools. It is as inevitable, therefore, as it is appropriate, that they should always participate in fixing school policies. On the other hand, the layman, who, tho he may be interested in the work of the schools, is deeply and vitally interested in his own personal and professional interests, has not generally the time to study educational problems, and is not and cannot be required to co-operate.

And yet, it is very desirable that the co-operation of the intelligent, observant citizen be secured. This adaptation of school work to the subsequent living and industrial conditions of the pupil, of which so much is said and which is so important, calls for a careful study of occupations, of the qualifications which parents and employers and the future careers of children demand. So diverse are occupations, and so intricate are the interrelations of industrial and professional pursuits, that it is not safe for the school man to rely wholly upon his own reasoning or observation for his conclusions. He is fortunate if he has the aid of an educational investigation or survey which has been made in a thoro and systematic way. Even in this event he cannot always feel secure, because the surveyors, whether they are experienced in teaching or supervision or not, must base their conclusions on their own standards, which are not the same in all cases, and which frequently provoke as many protests from different sources as the subjects of the investigations themselves. In such cases one is tempted to ask: "Who will survey the surveyors?" If he has not such aid, and this is usually the case, he must invoke the suggestions of interested citizens, but must be sure that those who co-operate have as broad a view of the educational field, are as enthusiastic in purpose, and as eager to secure full and accurate information, as he.

In this part of the discussion, I have had in mind largely the policies which concern matters of instruction; but there are others which concern the general operation or management of schools, in the determination of which the layman must assist. They may be national in scope, such as policies regarding compulsory school attendance, and the closely allied question of child labor—policies which are so involved in the industries and in the interests of employers, and which so affect not only the lives of children but the prices of commodities, that it is desirable that the laws regarding them should be uniform. There are others which are of state-wide application, such as the financial support of the state school system. Others still are only of local application. It is obvious that the school man cannot alone satisfactorily decide the many questions involved. It is obvious, also, that the citizens consulted in the discussion of these questions must possess widely different, but thoro qualifications.

It is not necessary for me to say that we must seek the aid of the educational theorist, whom it is as popular for the layman to decry as it is common for us to applaud him. He has always been, and still is, of incalculable value to schools and school systems. I need not cite historical illustrations. They are familiar to all. All must remember that there must be a theory before there can be a policy.

State school codes are only bundles of school policies. Most of them are accumulations, made gradually in the development and expansion of school systems, and dictated by experience. A few are the products of prolonged and deliberate study conducted by persons specially selected for the purpose, who consulted many kinds of interested individuals. In these cases the methods followed were quite similar. When I read these and at the same time remember that the method of their formulation was practically the same, I wonder why they differ in so many important respects. It may be said that the conditions in the several states concerned demanded different policies, or that there were customs or traditions which could not be obliterated. While these explanations may apply in some cases, they cannot apply in all. I fear that in many cases the policies adopted represent the preponderating views of the framers of the codes, and it may be said that this is, to some extent at least, inevitable. This consideration would lead one to the conclusion that it is hopeless to expect a uniformity in statement or application in respect even to policies in which there should be no variation. It may be said that it does not matter if there is wide difference, but there is actually much error and consequent injury to the schools. When we consider the present rapid progress in the work of the schools, the intense attention which the people are devoting to them, the spirit of inquiry which permeates them, the many thoro and profitable educational investigations which are in progress, is it too much to hope that it will be possible for a body of well-

qualified persons representing the schools and all other important interests, school men and laymen, to create a school code for the states which in general may be considered best for all, and which may make provision for exceptions demanded by local conditions and unalterable customs or traditions?

We are all familiar with the ideal schools and school systems which the imaginations of educational theorists have created, and know how impossible it has been to achieve them practically; but they have served a valuable purpose in furnishing ideals. So also a school code constructed as suggested and embodying the views and reflecting the experience, not of a single individual, but of many, would have the merit of expressing sound educational and public policy, would combine in one performance the labor and expense which otherwise would be duplicated many times, and would furnish an ideal which many might not reach, but which all would strive to approach.

At present there is an unnecessary clashing of interests and opinions. There must be some effective way of reaching correct conclusions in educational matters, of adopting sound policies, of checking up the school man's opinions and conclusions with those of the layman, the man who is directly interested, as parent or employer, in the product of the schools. Just now, where there is collision and controversy, the question is usually, "Who shall determine educational policy?" An unnecessary question! The question ought to be, "How can the efforts of all thoughtful people be so combined as to lead to reliable conclusions?"

THE EDUCATION OF FOREIGNERS FOR AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP

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You superintendents represent 19 cities, each of over 250,000 population. Your cities contained, at the time of the last census, 4,832,150 foreigners, while in the states including the cities there was a population of 15,561,680. Since that time, 3,000,000 foreigners have taken up permanent residence in this country. The bulk of these foreigners will be found in your cities. From this you can see that the burden of the work, judged by numbers, is upon you. The burden of the work in its complexity, in addition to its numbers, is also upon you. For example, when I learned that in one of the large cities of this country one school district covers 90 square miles; that the people live in vans; that in one school with an annual registration of 4,000 there were more than 4,000 transferees to and out of the school; that it takes hours to go from one part of the school district to another; that even in the largest cities the school authorities are hampered for lack of funds—when I learned these and many other startling facts regarding the conditions under which you are all laboring, and against which you are struggling, I commenced to realize that upon you, in the largest cities, rests the greatest burden. The largest cities, with their inherent power, are really more unprepared to deal with the school problems than many of the smaller cities and towns. For example, the superintendent of schools of a small town was visited by one of our chief examiners, and they discussed this plan of national preparedness. Without any hesitation the superintendent of schools got out into the community and in forty-eight hours had secured an enrolment of over sixty adult foreigners—almost the entire adult foreign population—had obtained the volunteer service of the teachers in sufficient numbers to carry on this work, and funds from private sources to finance the work; and now Gulfport, Miss., is in line with the other 600 cities and towns thruout the country that are teaching citizenship preparedness, while the Bureau of Naturalization is each month sending to them the names of all foreigners who apply for citizenship.

In Clarksburg, W.Va., without any funds, without any teachers, without any specific authority for the opening of night schools, the superintendent, after a conference with one of our chief examiners, started a local campaign, and in an incredibly short time secured

the volunteer teachers, secured the funds, and opened the night schools; and now the night schools for adult foreigners in that city are working full blast teaching citizenship preparedness. They also, under the plan of the Bureau of Naturalization, have secured the attendance of the immigrants who are not candidates for citizenship.

These things may be done in the smaller cities, but for you—you in the larger cities—your position is thoroly understood by us in the federal government. The national government can do all things incumbent upon it; but, when the time comes to do an individual thing, it is never accomplished except by the hardest struggles and fights, and most complete mastery of every detail of it. Congress opposes us until we show absolute gilt-edge cause for an appropriation to be made, and so it is with you. You are part of a tremendous municipal organization. You may have to show two hundred cents of returns for every dollar that you get. You are not contractors for, or builders of, public buildings; you are not those who can display, as the result of their efforts, public monuments. You belong to that underpaid, overworked, most intelligent, loyal, and faithful body of men and women who are striving to build ideals, intangible, indefinite, but nevertheless personal, ideals. Your results, tho not as visible as the city skyscrapers, are, nevertheless, far more forceful in maintaining the integrity of our social, political, moral, and industrial fabric.

A call has been made from various parts of the country for contributions from the government to maintain this work. While I have not given much thought to this, it occurs to me that if there should be any financial relief afforded it should be to the large cities. First, in your cities the foreign element is a menace. Vice grows up in its midst. There the influences of foreign sovereignties, institutions, ideas, and ideals are strongest. Hence, I say, any governmental aid should first be directed to the large centers which are teeming with foreign population.

You have 4,832,150 of the total foreign population. Generally speaking, 80 per cent of the students in the foreign classes owe no allegiance to this country. We have been advised that, of the 4,000 enrolled in this city of Detroit, 95 per cent are non-citizens. The greatest work that you can do in citizenship preparedness is to enlarge the intellectual capacity of these foreigners, and give them a better understanding of our institutions; in this way you will arouse in them a desire for American citizenship to such an extent that they will come forward and make their applications.

The course in citizenship which the Bureau of Naturalization has placed in the hands of each school teacher in the United States, where it has been possible to do so, has been prepared largely by you indirectly, but directly in the Bureau of Naturalization on the basis of your written reports of the work and of the courses of instruction which you have been giving to the foreigners for years past. It is intended to give to each individual foreigner a most intimate understanding of our government.

Your teachers will tell you that each foreigner is intensely eager to learn everything and anything about America. You should have your teachers discuss citizenship. Bring it into the limelight of the public-school curriculum. Keep it ever before the student body. Let them understand that the teacher is ready at any moment to assist the foreigner who desires aid in filling out his preliminary naturalization papers.

The bureau has furnished a syllabus of the naturalization law to each school teacher wherever it knows that a foreign class exists. It has also furnished them with the preliminary naturalization forms. Now we want you to see to it that all teachers who have failed to receive these forms are supplied with them. We want you to get into this work and arouse their interest to the utmost.

From one of the cities represented here today, word came to the Bureau of Naturalization that co-operation would be deferred until next year. After a conference with one of the representatives of the Bureau of Naturalization, however, the superintendent of schools agreed to co-operate immediately, and the newspaper reports received from that city show that over 5,000 foreigners are enrolled in its citizenship classes. What has been

done in one city can be done in all cities, if the same interest, the same determination, the same farsighted vision actuates you.

Superintendent Roberts, of Chicago, who is here today, recently stated that the greatest difficulty in dealing with the education of adult foreigners was to get them into the schools. Let me strongly emphasize the advantage to be gained from the free use of the student body in bringing into the night classes their compatriots and friends. Here the common bond of one tongue will be found most effective and efficient. Thru them the candidates for citizenship who do not respond because of timidity, diffidence, ignorance, and other reasons leading them to ignore the call of the United States government upon them for their betterment, may be reached. Not only may they be reached by the method outlined, but also the immigrant who never has heretofore been reached by any concerted action upon the part of the public-school authorities.

The Bureau of Naturalization sends the names of candidates for citizenship, upon individual cards, to the superintendents of schools in every city and town co-operating with it. At the same time, it sends a personally addressed letter to each candidate and another to his wife, whose name has also been sent to the school authorities on a separate card. The face of the card affords an opportunity for an educational rating for the use of the Bureau of Naturalization as well as for the public schools, and spaces are provided for information with regard to the candidate and his wife. The card [shown below] will be seen upon examination to afford a complete means for a full record regarding each candidate.

NATURALIZATION EDUCATIONAL RECORD			
Form Nat. Ed. 1			
United States Department of Labor		(City)	
Bureau of Naturalization		(Name of School)	
Name.....		Age.....	
Residence.....		Arrived in U.S.....	
Occupation.....		Nationalty..... Decln. of Int.....	
SCHOOL RECORD			
Date of school entrance { 1st year.....		Length of attendance { 1st year.....nights	
{ 2d year.....		{ 2d year.....nights	
Name of wife.....			
EDUCATIONAL RATING OF DECLARANT			
At Entrance—		At Entrance	End of 1st Year
Illiterate..... Yes	Speaks English (See note)		
No			
Reads in native language..... Yes	Reads English (See note)		
No			
Writes in native language..... Yes	Writes English (See note)		
No			
Previous education.....			
NOTE.—Show Well=W., Fair=F., Poor=P., None=N.			

When the cards are received from the Bureau of Naturalization, they should be distributed according to the addresses which they show to the local buildings in the most appropriate way, according to the local conditions. When received in the school buildings, they should be circulated thru the classrooms until each teacher has taken all of the cards which relate to the students in his class. The names on the remaining cards will

be those of the candidates for citizenship who have failed to respond to the call made to them by the United States government to go to school. They should be read to the student body, the names of acquaintances assigned to the various members, and assignments made by nationalities of the remaining names. The teachers should inspire the students in their classes with enthusiasm in securing the attendance of their friends and compatriots whose names are upon the cards. They should also be inspired to bring in their friends of the immigrant body who do not come forward either for citizenship or for education. By following out this system persistently to the last analysis, the contact and the influence for good of the public schools will be broadened in a way never heretofore felt, and extended into a field never before entered.

The public schools in the large cities generally run not more than nine months in the year. The Bureau of Naturalization believes that the highest co-operation with the public schools only can be obtained when the schools remain open the year round. Superintendent Condon, of Cincinnati, told me recently that the public schools under his supervision would maintain citizenship classes thruout the year.

The citizenship classes are the ones in which the Bureau of Naturalization is, of course, primarily interested. The Bureau contains experts on all citizenship matters. It is the duly constituted authority upon these matters, by act of Congress. It has been called upon by the superintendents of schools, including those of the largest cities, to prepare a course, and take the lead in this citizenship educational work. I have personally had this appeal made to me in various parts of the country by superintendents of schools in the largest cities.

We do not intend to become educators ourselves, for that is a task which is well placed with the public schools of the entire country. But we are offering the support of the national government, and its expert knowledge and acquaintance with the foreign elements of the country, as it relates to citizenship. The Department of Labor and the Bureau of Immigration, with its thoro familiarity with and authority in all matters relating to the immigrant, offers this aid likewise.

This is a gigantic task, but it can be accomplished, and accomplished in accordance with the highest expectations, if we secure your co-operation. It can be extended and should be extended into the day work in the upper-grade schools and the high schools, so that the native-born Americans may be given an opportunity, for the first time in the history of the country, to receive training in that highest of all professions, the profession of self-government. As you well know, all other professions open to men and women have been given the best consideration in training that it is possible for the best minds to produce; but it remains for you of the public schools of the entire country to co-operate with the United States government in perfecting a training for this great profession and calling of self-government.

The course which the Bureau of Naturalization has submitted to you is admitted to have imperfections. It is open to criticism. We desire and want your criticism. We want the best results to be obtained. We want you to apply it thoroly in the public schools under your supervision, and then we wish to have the benefit of your experience in constructive criticism of it. It is new in its application to the adult. It comes from the United States government to you. You have been asking for governmental help. It is offered to you, and the subject of which it treats is indeed well worth while.

We are planning to hold a convention of you superintendents, officers, and teachers of the public schools, not only from the largest cities but from all of the cities and towns where the public schools are co-operating with the national government. We expect to have this convention in Washington during the week immediately following the National Education Association convention in New York. The great purpose of this convention is to afford you an opportunity to perfect a textbook for the use of the student body and, if the plans of the Bureau of Naturalization carry, it will present a copy of this book to each alien student who is a candidate for citizenship and attends the public schools.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION BETWEEN 25,000 AND 250,000

COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES AS A MEANS OF MOTIVATION

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Dr. Ayres says that the mortality from the ninth grade to the twelfth grade in 386 cities of the country averages over 70 per cent, that for every 1,000 pupils entering, 56 complete the prescribed course of the school system. The survey of the Massachusetts Industrial Commission concluded that over 70 per cent of those who leave school at an early age in the industrial cities of Massachusetts do so because of indifference toward school and not because of poverty or economic necessity. Alice P. Burrows finds, in a survey made in the Borough of Manhattan, below Fourteenth Street, of the families of children leaving school at an early age, that 67 per cent leave because of dislike of school, not because of poverty. It is evident that some unit of the school organization must adapt itself to bring the new generation of each needy group to the fullest and best ideals of American life and citizenship. This is the meaning of the revolution taking place before our very eyes. Why the establishment of an elaborate and expensive system of industrial education? Why the growth of those testing laboratories of taste and inclination—the prevocational groups and schools? Why a system of vocational guidance? Why special treatment for the subnormals and retarded? Why systems of double promotion and varying rates of progress from class to class, breaking up the old lockstep system? Why differentiated courses and special schools? All because the doctrine of social service is becoming the underlying principle of our educational philosophy.

The question is clearly before the classroom teacher. There is a creed of service—let me give it in the words of the great Dewey:

I believe that all education proceeds by participation of the individual in the social consciousness of the race.

I believe that the only true education comes thru the stimulation of the child's powers by the demands of the social situations in which he finds himself.

I believe that the school must represent present life—life as real and vital to the child as that which he carries on in his home, in the neighborhood, or on the playground.

I believe that, education being a social process, the school is simply that form of community life in which all those agencies are concentrated that will be most effective in bringing the child to share in the inherited resources of the race and to use his own powers for social ends.

The apostle of this creed measures success by asking: "How much do I know about this group of children? What are their physical characteristics, home environment, and social inheritance? What are their previous records and natural tendencies? How can I make the school of most service to them? What can I do that I have not done that will bring out the best there is in them and lead them to be efficient men and women?"

The adoption by the classroom teacher of this socialized creed means the socialization of the classroom processes. The over-activity and over-talkativeness of the teacher is no longer the chief stimulus to individual growth. The skill of the teacher shows itself rather in the resourceful guidance of a group of minds actively engaged in solving a real life-problem; in directing these minds in research and the collection of data; in leading their criticism of one another to correct estimation of values, and to formation of sound judgments and conclusions. The major activity of the classroom becomes an interplay of the minds of the pupils, instead of a stereotyped test of memory of subject-matter, with the predominant initiative and activity on the part of the teacher. A belief in the creed of service and its adoption by the teacher is synonymous with the socialization of the classroom process.

The life of any community is teeming with activities about which children think, talk, and form conclusions in their life outside of the schoolroom. They use their own initiative in handling such problems as apply to their own welfare or happiness; their estimate of values and their judgments are truly their own. Thus practice which later life demands as a preparation for its weightier questions is furnished.

Dr. Dewey tells of a swimming-school in which the pupils learned the process by going thru the motions of swimming in a perfect manner. A graduate of this school was asked what he did when he got into the water. His laconic reply was "Sunk." If we are to do more than the swimming instructor, our classrooms must come to represent something more than they ever have in the past. They must use as the chief material of instruction the problems of real community life which surround the school on every side. The real basis of instruction must be participation in these activities. Thinking as it is done in later life must be begun in the schoolroom in the consideration of these problems and activities; in collection and organization of data upon phases of them; in the choice of the real values to be used in their solution; and in the formation of right conclusions concerning them. The formal subject-matter must have only an incidental relationship to this main end; it must be used as a factor and an active aid in the process, but it can never take a real place as a fundamental factor if it is regarded as merely a store of information laid up for future use.

Two types of motivation problems should enter prominently into our classroom activities: first, those which have to do directly with the life and career of the individual child; second, those which have to do with the co-operation of a large number of children thinking, acting, and working out their ideals in a group.

The proper use of the first type of problem derived from outside life constitutes vocational or educational guidance; the second, training for citizenship. No schoolroom, no school system, can realize the modern ideal of service, can apply the Christian doctrine of the Good Samaritan, without the universal use of both.

Let me suggest a few examples of the way in which motivation has affected the individual child. The following paragraph is a sample written in connection with the daily practice paragraph writing in English composition by a sixth-grade boy, the son of a Russo-German barkeeper. The study of the businesses of the town surrounding his school community inspired the ideal expressed by this boy.

MY AIM

My aim for the future is to have a business some day and to be useful to my city. Therefore, I am trying to prepare for that now. That is what everybody should aim for. One should know how to handle his business. This comes only in one's school days—youth's precious days—and everybody can get a good education, become well trained, and become a reliable man some day.

As an example of English expression, this does not rate exactly as a classic, but it does represent a type of vital stimulation of thought which in this particular case resulted in this boy's remaining in school for a high-school career. He is now working his way thru the high school, and bids fair, as he says in his paragraph, to become useful to his city some day.

Listen to this paragraph from a thirteen-year-old girl in the seventh grade, who has been thinking along right lines without the slightest suggestion of squeamish sentimentalism:

WHAT I WANT TO BE WHEN I AM A WOMAN

When I become a woman, I want to be a housewife. I have two main reasons. First, I love a home and enjoy caring for one; second, I enjoy children and also like to care for them.

This sort of motivation from one of the great and vital activities of life is surely worthy of a place in our schoolrooms.

Here is one from an eighth-grade boy, to whom a profession has become an object of serious thought.:

MY VOCATION

I think I would like to be a doctor so I could help other people. I would work so people thought my work was worth what I asked for it. In this way I think a person could be a good citizen and serve his country. There is much suffering because people have not the money to spend. In this case, I would follow my grandfather's idea and treat them for nothing. He never became rich, but everybody loved him. Love is better than riches.

What a world of possibilities presents itself to the social-minded teacher in the transcription of this little oral composition given by a twelve-year-old boy in an English class of a prevocational school in a city with a well-developed system of motivation.

THE FIRST MONEY I EVER EARNED

About seven years ago my father was an engineer on the railroad. One night in a fierce snowstorm, he ran his train into another train and killed a man. They said that he was not guilty because it was not his fault. He felt so bad and it worried him so that he gave up his job. He bought a ten-acre tract of land and we raised vegetables. In about two years, my father died. Mother says he died of a broken heart. After this my mother, my little sister, and I worked very hard to raise the vegetables and my biggest brother peddled them. One evening mother called us all to her and told us we would have to give up the place and do something else as we could not go to school and keep up the place. She said we had best sell and go downtown. We bought a home and mother takes in washing and we children help her all we can.

Last fall at fair time, as I was passing the fair grounds, I thought maybe if I asked the manager for a job he would give me one. So I did. He told me to come the next morning. I worked all week and made ten dollars. That was the first money I ever earned. I bought these clothes and my books and gave the little I had left to mother.

I want to grow up to be an honest man. I want to earn enough to make me comfortable but not enough to make me unhappy. I would like to be an engineer, but every time I mention it mother cries so I do not know for sure what I will do.

Would it be safe to guess that a boy with an ideal of this kind would become a worthy citizen? Do you think it would be safe to risk this boy, grown to manhood, as a neighbor and fellow-townsmen?

In our town group-motivation has taken place largely thru two general methods of attack: first, thru some project undertaken in the classrooms of the junior-high-school organization; second, thru external organizations having to do with all of the schools of the city. The classroom-project type of motivation is well represented by this paragraph upon arithmetic work and its relation to other subjects by an eighth-grade girl of one of our schools. This school is located near a large addition to the city of Lincoln recently platted and sold by real-estate promoters. The project was inspired by a visit of the class to this rapidly growing portion of the town.

A new and practical plan has been developed in the arithmetic class of the Eighth A under the direction of Miss Cooley and continued with Miss Snyder. The work is that of planning and building our own homes.

The first step of the work was that of choosing the lot and finding out the cost of it. The size suggested by the teacher was 100 feet by 150 feet. In the English class, compositions were written on the subjects: "Why I Chose This Lot," and "Facts to Consider When Choosing a Lot."

The second step was making or copying plans for the house and "lot arrangement." At the same time a composition was written about "The Value of Landscape Gardening," which showed the advantage of planning the arrangement of the lot compared with that of arranging the lot with little thought.

In the art class, the floor and side elevations will be made in the blueprint and the interior elevations will be in water colors.

When the Eighth A's were figuring on excavation in the arithmetic class, the principal and the pupils visited a new building near the school where the excavation had just been completed. It was there the less important facts were acquired about the construction of homes.

The next step was the finding of pictures to illustrate the yard and interior views.

When the plans are finished, all compositions completed, and the cost of all estimated, these articles will be put in book form, thus giving a complete semester's work in the arithmetic class.

This class is the first to start such a practical plan which is believed will help the men and women of tomorrow in their home-building problems.

The other type of motivation is represented by our school- and home-garden activities. Spring and summer gardening offer an endless resource, not only for the classroom but for a multitude of educational activities outside of the classroom. The system which has developed with us has included community gardens in eight of our schools and some 1,000 to 1,200 home gardens constructed by the pupils. The stimulus of this sort of motivation is shown by the group earnings at various occupations during the past summer in eight of these schools:

Schools	Grades	Earnings
1.....	4 - 8	\$2,284.49
2.....	5 - 8	105.63
3.....	4 - 8	3,454.42
4.....	3 - 8	2,700.83
5.....	4 - 8	1,927.45
6.....	6 - 8	3,582.82
7.....	4 - 8	5,184.32
8.....	4 - 8	2,046.58
Total.....		\$21,385.54

The more pronounced contribution, however, to our motivation has been our Junior Civic and Industrial League, which was organized February 5, 1914, in accordance with a report submitted by a special committee appointed by the Board of Directors of the Lincoln Commercial Club.

Each school having grades above the fifth has a club. All of these clubs constitute the league.

The purposes of the organization are : (1) to study the civic and industrial life of the city by first-hand observation; (2) to learn what opportunities the industrial life of the city offers to young men; (3) to teach its members to think seriously and wisely concerning the various vocations studied; (4) to assist in preparing its members to take an active and efficient place in these vocations; (5) to connect more closely the work of the public schools with the life of the community; (6) to teach its members to aid effectively in meeting the civic needs of the community and to assist every civic institution in promoting the general welfare of our city.

Any boy in the fifth grade or above may become a member of the club in his school upon committing to memory and reciting to his teacher the "ephebic oath," which is as follows:

We will never bring disgrace to this our city by any act of dishonesty or cowardice. We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city both alone and with many. We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul or set them at naught. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty. Thus in all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less but greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

Each Thursday morning at 9:30, some one of the clubs holds a half-hour meeting at the Commercial Club rooms. Such topics as "The Clean-up Campaign," "Playgrounds," and other movements of public interest were taken up and supported by the various clubs during the past year. Fifteen of the prominent business and professional men have addressed the boys at these meetings. The character of the talks is indicated by the following list of topics:

1. What constitutes a good citizen?
2. How boys may become good citizens.
3. How boys may help to make the city better, more beautiful, and more prosperous,

4. Necessity for some useful work.
5. Respect for hard and useful work.
6. Opportunity for boys in his (this particular business man's) line of business.
7. What this line of business requires in the way of preparation.
8. How to go about preparing specifically for this line of work.

During the school year, the various clubs of the league made 122 visits to 36 of Lincoln's business houses and civic institutions. These visits were distributed as follows:

State Capitol (sessions of state legislature).....	12 visits
Post-office	5
Court House.....	4
City Hall.....	3
Fire Department.....	2
University Farm.....	5
University Museum.....	2
United States Weather Bureau.....	1
<i>Nebraska Daily State Journal</i> Office.....	8
<i>Lincoln Daily Star</i> Office.....	1
Lincoln Telephone Company.....	9
First National Bank.....	7
Lincoln Safe Deposit Company (Lincoln Clearing House).....	1
Bankers Life Insurance Company.....	2
Cushman Motor Works.....	9
Havelock Railroad Shops.....	7
Lee Broom and Duster Company.....	3
Harpham Brothers Company.....	3
International Harvester Company.....	6
Enterprise Planing Mill Company.....	1
Lincoln Flour Mills.....	2
Gooch Milling Company.....	4
Lincoln Packing Company.....	3
H. P. Lau, wholesale grocery.....	3
Curtis, Towle & Paine factory.....	1
Beatrice Creamery Company.....	4
Roberts Dairy Company.....	4
Woodruff Bank Note Company.....	2
Western Glass and Paint Company.....	1
Jacob North & Company.....	1
Nebraska Buick Auto Company.....	1
Van Sickle Glass and Paint Company.....	1
Lincoln Paint and Color Company.....	1
Lincoln Box Factory.....	1
Capitol Grocery.....	1
Lincoln Hotel.....	1
Total.....	122

Membership in the various clubs of the league was as follows for 1914-15:

Bancroft.....	84
Belmont.....	20
Bryant.....	97
Capitol.....	120
Clinton.....	118
Elliott.....	159
Everett.....	78
Hawthorne.....	20
Hayward.....	76
High School.....	324
McKinley.....	67
Park.....	106
Prescott.....	126
Saratoga.....	72
Whittier.....	116
Total.....	1,583

An organization among the girls similar to that of the boys held its meetings at the city Y.W.C.A. The membership of the girls' league was 1,474. Their visits to civic and industrial institutions numbered 105, distributed like the visits of the boys.

The projects undertaken by the clubs of these two leagues afforded genuine practice of the philosophy of good citizenship. During clean-up week the work of the Woman's Club, Commercial Club, and City Health Department committees was based upon a survey of the city made by the members of these leagues. Many of the unsightly and ill-kept places of the city were cleaned up as a result of the work and the recommendations of these boys and girls.

THE EFFICIENCY LIST

The Lincoln Commercial Club, under the leadership of Secretary W. S. Whitten, and President C. C. Quiggle, (1913-14), H. K. Burket (1914-15), and Frank Richards (1915-16), has not only fathered and promoted the Junior Civic and Industrial League, but has instituted within that organization a system of recognizing and rewarding merit in boyish education and accomplishment. Early in the year the following letter was sent to the business men of the city:

LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

December 26, 1914

Mr. John Smith,

Lincoln, Nebraska

DEAR MR. SMITH: As an employer of young men, you are interested in securing those who can make themselves of most value to you and your business or profession. It is likewise of vital interest not only to such young men themselves but to the city as a whole that they be able to give the best possible service to their employers and prepare themselves for continued efficiency and promotion.

There are in our schools many young men who must begin work at an early age. It is the purpose of the public schools in connection with the Lincoln Commercial Club to keep a permanent "Efficiency List" of such of these young men as may be able to reach a definite standard of reliability and efficiency. The list will be always available and will be sent from time to time to any business or professional man who desires it. Only such boys as have on their merits shown the following qualifications are placed on the list:

1. An age of fourteen years
2. Good Character

As shown by:

- a) Truthfulness
- b) Obedience
- c) Industry
- d) Good Habits

Note:—No boy shall be eligible who smokes or drinks. If a boy has been a smoker, he shall show by a year's abstinence from this habit that he has permanently given it up.

3. Knowledge of Lincoln and Nebraska.
As shown by his ability to pass with a standing of 90 per cent a test given upon Lincoln and Nebraska.
4. Ability to write a good business letter of one ordinary page in legible hand without error in spelling.
5. Ability to express himself in courteous yet concise and businesslike terms to his employer and business associates.
6. Ability to perform the four fundamental operations and simple fractions in arithmetic with speed and accuracy.

We trust such a recommendation as this efficiency list contemplates will be of service to you, for it is the desire of both the Commercial Club and the schools to be of the broadest possible usefulness to the community which supports them.

If you have suggestions as to the qualifications to be desired in young men whom you employ, they will be very highly appreciated if sent to either the secretary of the Commercial Club or to the superintendent of schools.

Most respectfully yours,

[Signed by the Secretary of the Commercial
Club and the Superintendent of Schools.]

Members of the League who qualified by the end of the school year and were recommended as indicated in the above letter were placed on the "Efficiency List" of the Lincoln Commercial Club and this list was sent to all large employers at the opening of the summer vacation. These boys were likewise given an "Efficiency Certificate" by Secretary Whitten of the Commercial Club as evidence of their qualifications.

TEACHING TENURE

JOHN F. KEATING, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PUEBLO, COLO.

The problem of the tenure of teachers, principals, and superintendents is not new in the educational world, but it is an increasingly vital problem awaiting solution.

The ways and means, or methods, of securing permanency of tenure are matters of detail to be worked out thru committees or groups of educational and business experts. What is first needed is a nation-wide appreciation of the wastefulness of the present method of "hiring and firing" teachers, principals, and superintendents, and a realization that there must be found a way of eliminating this waste.

It may be urged that these wasteful methods are necessary in a democracy. They may have been unavoidable in the beginnings of our democracy, but the perpetuity of all that is best in the institutions of our democracy will depend upon the substituting of refined and efficient methods for the crude and wasteful ones. This should be and I believe now is in a large measure the tendency in our whole national life.

Already in a few of the large cities permanency of tenure for teachers and principals is an established fact, and for superintendents has become almost established. Also in a few states of the Union the state department of public instruction has been taken out of politics. The former crude and thriftless method is no longer followed, but men of experience, training, and known fitness are appointed to the headship of the state's educational interests, and greater permanency, conditioned only on good behavior and efficient service, is assured these men. The success of this plan must ultimately commend it to all states.

It is not in the province of this paper to discuss tenure of state superintendents, but is not the question pertinent by way of illustration? Of what possible advantage can it be to the schools of any state to elect every two or even four years a new and untried man in the place of the one who has mastered the situation and has reached the place of high efficiency in his work? Why retire this efficient public servant in so vital a field as education, just when he has really become useful? Undoubtedly in our democracy there must be some place left for the battledore and shuttlecock of politics, but God forbid that it continue in our schools, where it can be most harmful and least helpful.

In the election of city superintendents, there seems to be a relation between the manner of selecting them and permanency of tenure. There is the hit-or-miss manner of choosing a superintendent. Neither educational nor professional standards are employed by the board in making its selection. Board members are not in the nature of things experts in things educational, but they are intensely practical, and they choose by the standards they know—personal impressions made by the candidate, the weight of some influential citizen who may or may not have a personal ax to grind. All this because we, as educators, have not yet worked out a series of standards or norms that would serve

to assist boards in determining the fitness of the candidate for the place. In these days of measurements and surveys these are being worked out, and the future is bright with hope.

Probably the most used method is known as the "trial and failure method." This is in the absence of guiding standards. The board decides to elect for a year on trial. As a rule this probation is too short and failure to satisfy the board or the community is invited. The selecting for short periods is a prominent cause of uncertainty of tenure for superintendents. Hence in the smaller cities we see a veritable procession of superintendents. They scarcely dare unpack their trunks. Indeed, the wise ones keep their trunks packed and checked, ready to move on at a moment's notice.

As an illustration of the prevalence of short tenure among superintendents, the state of Michigan is as nearly typical as any. As reported to the Bureau of Education, Michigan had, in 1913, 51 cities with between 4,000 and 25,000 inhabitants. In these 51 superintendencies, 25 superintendents served less than 5 years; 39, or 76 per cent, out of 51 were elected for one-year terms.

With the exercise of greater care in selecting these officials, there would be little reason for removal. The fact that teachers, principals, and superintendents can be so easily removed creates a feeling of unrest in a community and a wish at the first criticism to remedy the situation by a change. Permanent tenure for an average teacher, principal, or superintendent is better for the schools than the hazards of frequent changes. Difficulty of removal would throw on the board and community the necessity of co-operating with the school management.

In any discussion of teacher tenure, the story of the progress of civil service in the administering of many of the most vital departments of our national government is most interesting and enlightening. So successfully has the civil-service plan worked that no political party hoping to gain control of the government dares advocate in its platform a return to the spoils system. Yet there was a time when a national election meant an almost complete change of federal officials. The practical sense of the American people rescued the government from much of this folly and consequent inefficiency. Why in the name of the interests of the school children of America should their teacher, principal, or superintendent be more affected by a spring school election than is a letter-carrier by a national election?

It should not be possible for a board of education to dismiss for other than well-defined reasons, and not then until the superintendent has had due notice, and has had an opportunity to appeal his case to an impartial board or committee on the matter. This, I am aware, deprives the employing board of the power to discharge a superintendent, but as we are now organized it should be deprived of this power.

When there have been worked out standards of efficiency for superintendents, whereby boards may be guided, and possibly a legalized system of demerits, as in the civil service of the government, the power to discharge may be restored to the board with these legal safeguards.

But you say this is not Germany, this is not France, this is democratic America, and such methods are impracticable. Are they? Did not a great state university recently decide that it would not again discharge a member of its faculty thru its board of regents acting alone? That board in its own defense has seen fit to have the university faculty assist in determining whether a professor shall be discharged or not. Even our great corporations are taking advanced ground. In some of our great industrial plants the "straw boss" or foreman cannot summarily discharge a workman. The workman has the right to appeal. Of course many of the changes annually occurring in superintendencies in smaller cities are due to small salaries and the desire of the superintendents to better their condition.

These small salaries in turn are often due to the feeling on the part of the board members that by letting the present incumbent go out, no matter how efficient he is, they

can secure a new man at a lower salary for the first year and so establish for themselves, among the taxpayers, a reputation for money-saving.

Again, many superintendents leave because of the feeling of unrest, due to the lack of appreciation for their services and the possibility of being dismissed thru a mere whim of the board or thru the political connivance of a disgruntled minority. The superintendent's first term should be for three years, probation years. During this time he should be rigidly tested, his work surveyed by experts, and, if he makes good, he should then be given an indeterminate contract, with reasonable hope of increased remuneration for efficient service, to the full ability of the district to pay. Then will superintendents cease to be birds of passage, restless not so much because of larger pay and wider fields ahead, but because of the uncertainty of their present positions.

As a concrete illustration of how school politics works, I know and you know a city of between 25,000 and 250,000 inhabitants—and the city I know may or may not be the city you know—where within the last year or two, owing to school politics, the city and the school system have been turned topsy-turvy by a spring school election. The newly elected board members felt that they had a commission straight from the people to reform at one fell swoop the imperfections and shortcomings of the city's schools. The board proceeded almost immediately to dismiss teachers, principals, and even the superintendent, without warning, without any plan of co-operation for the making of efficient public servants out of these teachers. The teachers were not warned, and were not given an opportunity to offer a defense or a chance to make good. We are better organized in behalf of our criminals than we are in behalf of our teachers. We will give the average criminal another chance. I submit that what occurred in this city was unethical, unbusinesslike, even brutal. Please understand that I do not condemn the board members as individuals. They are gentlemen by nature and training, courteous, honest, and kind, and among their neighbors have a reputation for sincerity and fairness. That is, they did have before they were elected to the board of education. The fault lies largely in the system. Boards, like the teachers, are at the mercy of the system. Politics and personal favoritism had undoubtedly been at work in the schools before their election, and no machinery had been provided for the standardizing of the schools and the measuring of teaching and inspectional efficiency. Teachers had been appointed by pull. Why not discharge them in due and ancient form?

Such things will not happen when we have thoroly systematized our school administration and have made legal the custom of selecting one head for the school system and holding him responsible for the work of the schools; when he is directed by order of the board of education to appoint all principals, teachers, janitors, and engineers, with authority to see that each employee lives up to the established standards of service. And they will live up to them when they know that politics has been eliminated, that pull counts for nothing, and that a trained and competent superintendent is the real executive head of the schools.

Keeping up the efficiency of teachers in service is a real problem. Many efforts have been made to solve it, with many consequent partial failures. But a long step will be taken towards its solution when boards of education generally take the position of the San Antonio board in stating clearly the board's relation to the superintendent:

Teachers, once you have been elected by us, our direct relation with you as teachers ceases to exist. Whatever we have to say in regard to your work will be said thru the superintendent; and whatever you have to say to us in this same regard should go thru the same channel.

Thus far in this discussion reference has been chiefly to tenure of superintendents and principals, while little has been said except by implication in regard to the tenure of teachers. Little will need to be said when superintendents and principals against whom the political winds beat hardest are assured permanency of tenure. Permanency of tenure at the top will make for permanency of tenure thruout the system.

When boards of education can by law insure permanency of tenure to the superintendent and clearly define his powers and duties, the efficient, growing teacher, nominated and practically appointed by the superintendent (in an organized city system of schools the board should never nominate teachers) will be secure in her position. She will have increased pride in her work as she realizes that she holds her position thru efficient service and not thru personal, social, religious, racial, fraternal, or political pull.

I am aware that in that most excellent report, the *Portland Survey*, criticism is made of the law making it difficult to dismiss teachers even for inefficiency and failure to grow. It is indicated in that report that some of the poor teaching in that city is due to the feeling of security of tenure on the part of some teachers. No doubt the law, arising in the manner that it did, established while the schools were in the condition shown in the report, should be repealed, or, better, amended. Apparently either no standards or very low standards had been established in these schools for the measuring of the teachers' work.

That permanency of tenure and feeling of security are the sole or impelling causes of inefficiency among teachers is difficult to believe. Permanency of tenure in our great and truly beneficial postal system has made for efficiency. Has the fact that the federal Supreme Court appointments are for life in any wise impaired the efficiency of that tribunal? The contrary is true. Fearlessly does this court render its decisions and the nation uncomplainingly abides by its verdicts. Will all this not be true of the teacher when she is as carefully selected and as favorably envired as these?

A STUDY OF DEVIATE CHILDREN—THE PROBLEM OF DELINQUENCY AND SUBNORMALITY

C. EDWARD JONES, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ALBANY, N.Y.

To what extent has the feeble-minded pupil been recognized as a part of the school system? No one doubts his existence, not as a rare specimen, but as a part of the community; whether he be 2, 4, or 6 per cent of that community matters little. Investigators read of him, psychiatrists classify him, and legislatures pass laws in regard to his segregation into classes for instruction. So beneficial has it been to the school and to the community to be free of him that comparatively little attention has been given to him as an individual member of society, or to his possible specific function in society. The superintendent of schools must recognize him, however, not as an evil of which he is freed by placement in special classes, but as an individual for whom he must provide in school, whom he must recognize and prepare for life with the same sincerity as that with which he meets his grade, his high-school, or vocational classes.

This must be done from two standpoints—conduct and scholarship. For several years in the city of Albany we have maintained a truant school. The regulation was that a delinquent or incorrigible should be committed to such an institution for fifty days. If his conduct there was good he was returned to his grade, and if he again transgressed he was committed for another fifty days. At the end of this period, he was again sent back to the grades. If for the third time he was in trouble, he was committed to an institution. That is, the truant school was regarded as a place of punishment for incipient criminals—practically the same plan as that followed in police courts in the case of minor offenses. What saved the school was the humane and intelligent instruction given therein, for, without theory, the instructor realized the needs of this class.

Some two years ago we submitted to the Binet tests all of the pupils of this school, with the following result: 9 per cent were found to be imbecile cases; 46 moron; 30 borderline; 1 epileptic delinquent; 1 backward boy with no delinquent tendencies evident; and 13 backward delinquents.

So much for the mental condition. In addition to that we found in regard to the family relationships that while 40 per cent had not had relatives in this school, 44 had had at least one relative and sixteen more than one. Therefore, 60 per cent had had one or more relatives in this school. Had the school been running longer this ratio would probably have been materially increased.

Then, to extend the investigation beyond our own administration, the test was applied to some fifty girls in a house of detention, with the result that nearly all of them were found to be either borderline cases or actually feeble-minded. This is in accord with the results of tests in the Hudson Training School, an institution for delinquent girls, also with those of the investigation of Bluemel in regard to the girls of the State Industrial School of Colorado, whom he finds to average four and a half years retarded.

This gave us the basis for our conclusion that delinquency, truancy, and feeble-mindedness were closely related. In the meantime, we had organized special classes for our sub-normals in several schools, but entirely separate from the truant school. After this investigation, we began to organize our work with this as a basis—that all of these are but different phases of the same problem of deviate cases. Delinquents and sub-normals were sent to the class where they could be helped the most, and in no case were they sent for a definite period. In a large proportion, possibly 90 per cent, of the cases of serious discipline in school, mental retardation is present. It may be the girl of sixteen with the mentality of ten years, struggling with the desires of the adolescent; it may be the boy of twelve who stopped growing at eight years of age; or the more serious case of the boy of sixteen or over who knows no mental experience beyond that of eleven years. Dr. Goddard, in his recent book, *The Criminal Imbecile*, has shown this to be one of the most serious types; from it may develop the insane lover, the docile dupe of the intelligent leader, the brutal criminal, or, in the case of girls, almost inevitably the immoral woman. None of this is new to the institution worker, and, while it has been theoretically recognized, it has as yet in few cases been seriously acted upon by school authorities.

This brings us to the conviction that the purposes and character of discipline must be radically changed. Its primary purpose in school is no longer to punish the individual, nor even to set an example for society; but the problem is one of finding the activity fitted to train this individual who is mentally dwarfed and retarded. This brings us then to the actual consideration of school work. It is not enough that these feeble-minded and delinquents be segregated and placed in the special class, where special class means the ungraded dump for the schools of a particular section: but these unfortunates, these children of the one talent, require expert grading. This does not mean that the class teacher is, or in any probability every will be, fitted to do this work. It requires the skill and experience of a highly trained specialist. One serious reason for the failure or indifferent success of these classes has been the fact that the so-called grading has been done by those who know practically nothing of the underlying principles that govern it. Then we must realize that not only are these pupils below age, but also that their bodies and minds are not of the same maturity, that in almost every case the mental age is permanent, and that at that age they must be prepared for life. In this connection the recent article by C. S. Bluemel on the Binet tests applied to juvenile court delinquents in Denver is particularly interesting. He finds that the older the child, the greater is the retardation.

In regard to the book work, the teachers must be taught to recognize definitely that it is useless to force a child mentally five years old to read, and that if he is only ten years old technical grammar and advanced arithmetic are impossibilities. But the book work is not the most difficult problem, provided we actually recognize the age limit. It is on the side of manual training that the resources of an educational system will be most severely taxed. This work must be selected and graded with all the skill that experience can command. There is a place for book work, but it must be determined by the age of the pupil. What can we teach the boy who will always be five or even ten years of age? It must be simply rough shopwork under direction, or for the girl the most

elementary work about the house. And even the eleven-year-old, while he may do some skilful work, it must always be under supervision.

When as superintendents we recognize and do our duty as such, we realize that the larger part of the work is still left undone. In most of our cities, even with compulsory education, these boys and girls leave us as soon as the law permits. It is sad that the law permits this class of people to commit crime and then punishes them for it. In morality as in material things, the ounce of prevention is of value. Here our duty to society beyond that of our profession begins. The state has provided for its insane and for its criminal classes, yet it waits till these classes are produced. It is a higher duty, and one that demands the intelligence and help of every man knowing the problem, as far as possible to provide for the restraint and to prevent the reproduction of these classes. At the present time, it is an established fact that 85 per cent of the feeble-minded are at large in society. Only the lowest-grade cases are confined, and these because of their very nature are the least harmful. The greater number are still free in the community, debased and debasing society. Of far more danger is the adult of only eleven years who may be led into crime, the deluded youth seeking revenge upon some innocent woman, or the girl coming inevitably into a life of vice. These are the ones who for society's sake need care and supervision, a home where they may be made happy and at the same time so restricted that they cannot reproduce their kind. In our own work as superintendents we are making the start. It is our duty to find these pupils, to classify them, to carry their training out to the very borderline of their possibilities and powers, to bend every effort which as trained men and women we can command to make it possible for them to earn a living and live within their cramped restrictions a life as happy and healthful as possible. But as men we need to be at the fore in urging our state, city, or district to provide wisely for these after they have gone beyond our final control. They are in society and they are a part of it. If prison problems are to be solved with intelligence, if punishment is to be remodeled and vice and immorality are actually to be checked, we must face this problem from its foundation, look to its causes, just as we have done in regard to the great white plague—tuberculosis. It is a long, long road, but when we start at the beginning there is a possibility of real progress.

VACATION-CLUB WORK

J. H. BEVERIDGE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COUNCIL BLUFFS, IOWA

For the most part vacation-club work for boys and girls has been a county rather than a city activity. The purpose of this address will be to deal with the movement as a city activity. It should be understood in the beginning that a middle-western city-school district, usually called an independent school district, often embraces a large amount of territory that may be used for agricultural purposes and other activities of a similar nature.

Our specialist in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, D.C., in charge of such club work, has defined it as "the performance of a definite farm, garden, or farmhouse interest enterprise." It aims to teach better methods of agriculture and home economics. The work may be extended so as to include almost every home activity which is of interest to boys and girls. It finds its best support thru the extension departments of the agricultural colleges working in conjunction with the public schools.

In the state of Iowa, during the past year, eighteen different activities were more or less encouraged by the extension departments of the Iowa agricultural colleges. These activities are as follows:

Acre of Corn Club	Grain and Seed Club
Garden and Canning (Tomato) Club	Baby Beef Club
Poultry Club	Baby Pork Club
Potato Club	Bee Club
Gardening Club (1 sq. rd.)	Home Work and Play Club
Cooking Club	Farmer-Boy Club
Sewing Club	Home-Girl Club
Manual-Training Club	Father and Son Corn Club
Canning and Marketing Club	Home Work—School Credit Club

The purposes of such work are:

1. To provide wholesome activities for boys and girls during the long vacation period that will supplement the regular school work so as to reinforce principles already learned in the school and to teach other things seldom thought of or considered in schoolroom activities.

2. To socialize education. At the present time most progressive educators believe in the socialized curriculum. They believe that the school work should be closely associated "with the actual life and interest of the pupil and also with his future life as a working member of society." Vacation-club work furnishes ample opportunity for socializing education. In summer gardening, for example, the child comes to understand the value of soil, the principles of plant growth, and the beauty of flowers. He learns to appreciate something of the relationship existing between himself and his environment. The girl sees something real in sewing, in cooking, and in canning. When the boy cultivates his own garden, feeds and cares for his own animals, makes and spends his own money, he reacts to a real situation in life.

3. To teach the boys and girls industry, thrift, economy, persistence, and application to things that are worth while.

4. To motivate effort. The boy is given an opportunity to enrol himself for that particular activity in which he has, for some reason, become interested. He has the privilege of engaging in the activity that is in line with his particular bent. He is encouraged to compete with others on an equal footing and is encouraged to produce the best result possible. He sees, in the concrete, some material reward which he may attain thru his efforts. Some have objected to the giving of prizes, especially money prizes, for such work. But so long as these prizes are comparatively small, it seems to the writer that such a criticism is not valid, at least until society is constructed on a more spiritual basis than it is at present.

5. To encourage children to look forward to that which ought to be in education. The thing that ought to be is that which draws us on beyond the thing that is, to the higher ideal. It is this which causes one to put forth his best effort. It encourages the children to look forward toward better training in higher institutions of learning. It undoubtedly stimulates a better citizenship by encouraging the child to render service not only to himself but to his family and to the community of which he is a part. Especially in the garden work, children are encouraged to make waste places not only useful but at the same time beautiful. It furnishes children with profitable recreation and acquaints them with some of nature's secrets.

Having given some of the objects to be attained thru vacation-club work, we will give our attention to the way in which this work was carried forward in a middle-western city in the summer of 1915.

At the invitation of the city superintendent, co-operating with active leaders in the mothers' clubs of the city, E. C. Bishop, of the Extension Department of the Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, was asked to visit the Council Bluffs schools and give short talks in the various school districts of the city relative to boys' and girls' club work as carried on in the state and as to how this work might be carried on in the city.

The principals of the several schools and members of the parent-teacher organization followed up this work by presenting the matter to the pupils from various standpoints,

encouraging the children to enrol in such clubs as they might be interested in, always with this precaution, that pupils should enrol when they were sure they had the continuity of purpose to stick to the undertaking to the end.

It was thought best for our city to undertake the work in only eight of the eighteen different clubs suggested by the agricultural colleges, as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Vegetable and Flower Gardening | 5. Poultry |
| 2. Canning | 6. Baby Pork |
| 3. Cooking | 7. Acre of Corn |
| 4. Sewing | 8. Manual Training |

This is a sample of the enrolment card:

COUNCIL BLUFFS IOWA STATE EXTENSION CLUB FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

I desire to become a member of the Boys' and Girls' Club Work in the following department:

(Indicate by X and underscore.)

1. Acre of Corn Club
2. Gardening and Canning (Tomato) Club
3. Gardening Club (1 sq. rd.)
4. Cooking Club
5. Sewing Club
6. Baby Pork Club
7. Manual Training
8. Poultry

My purpose is to do my work well.

School.....Grade.....Name.....
Date.....Address.....

A specific date was set for the completion of the enrolment and cards of enrolment were filed in the office of the superintendent of city schools.

The extension department of the state college met the members of the mothers' clubs of the several school districts of the city and gave instruction in the cold-pack method of canning fruits and vegetables. Further instruction was given to those girls who enrolled in this department of the work.

Thru an expert, our high-school teacher of agriculture employed for that purpose, and thru the assistance of the teachers and parents interested in the work, it was possible to have instruction given in every activity undertaken. The instructor in domestic art in the grade school was employed by the mothers' clubs of the city to give instruction in sewing to such girls enrolled in sewing as had had no particular instruction in school in this work.

We were fortunate in securing the services of a capable and experienced man to supervise the club work—one who had had previous experience in county club work. But in securing him it was necessary for the city to extend the work of the Acre of Corn Club contest over the county. One advantage of this endeavor was slight financial aid secured from the government. The Board of Education gave \$250 for the support of the work. The remainder of the funds were secured thru the energy and activity of the mothers' clubs and the administrative department of the public schools, principally thru two endeavors: the May Festival, and a high-class musical. The receipts of these two entertainments were about \$1,600.

An executive board for carrying forward the club work was formed. This board consisted of the superintendent of city schools, one member from the Board of Education, and three representatives from the Parent-Teacher Association.

Parents and teachers, working together, had charge of the work in each of the twelve school districts in the city (three not being represented), but the burden of the work was with the club expert who visited all gardens, instructed the children in preparation of the

soil, the care and cultivation of plants and flowers, the care of animals, and other things too numerous to mention.

Every child was required to keep account of time spent in the activity in which he was engaged, the money spent for all purposes, the amount of his sales, and the gain or loss entailed. Two exhibits of the work of the children were held.

At the first exhibit, of garden products alone, 103 children exhibited products and \$32 was given in prizes for this work. Only about one-fifth of the children engaged in gardening made exhibits.

In the second exhibit, representing all departments, 784 different children took part. There were over three thousand exhibits. The value of products produced during the summer was slightly over \$5,000, so far as data has been collected. Cash prizes were given amounting to \$140, but this did not include the expense of thirteen short courses in the Iowa agricultural colleges, three Y.M.C.A. and three Y.W.C.A. memberships, and a trip to the exhibition at San Francisco, won by a boy in the Acre of Corn Club contest.

The September exhibit was held in the city auditorium, a building 95×112 feet. Booths were built by each school after a design made by the mothers' club of each school district. Each booth was 12×20 feet. These booths were decorated by the mothers, each differently, but all attractively. The outer space was reserved for the exhibits of live stock and complete garden displays.

Altho there was a downpour of rain for the entire day, six thousand people attended the exhibit.

It cost the Parent-Teacher Association \$326 to hold this exhibit, but it was worth much more than this to the city. In fact, the worth cannot be measured, for the co-operation secured, the interest awakened, the enthusiasm for better things made manifest, the intellectual and spiritual uplift stimulated, are not measurable quantities.

What were the results attained?

Some of the results have already been indicated. Every purpose of boys' and girls' club work stated in the beginning of the discussion was attained.

One girl, Christine Larson, won the state prize in canning. She had 101 varieties of products. A boy in the independent school district won the county prize in the Acre of Corn Club contest, indicating that city boys may become more efficient in farming than farm boys. Three children, one a girl, won state prizes in the Baby Pork Club contest.

In every activity, the record kept was made an important feature of the work, thus giving the child a motive for effort in expression and in accounting. Parents who had up to this time manifested little interest in school became enthusiastic workers. Those who had never had social contact with one another learned to confer with and make concessions to one another, and thus the most democratic institution of our country, the public school, became really democratic for parents as well as for pupils.

SHORT-UNIT INDUSTRIAL COURSES

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The purpose of this paper is to describe the short-unit course, to explain some of the results which have been secured in industrial schools by the use of the short-unit course, and how the conclusion was reached that the short-unit course was the one best adapted to meet the needs of the worker.

The conditions which confront the giving of instruction in a part-time or an evening trade-extension school are many. The majority of the pupils enrolled in the part-time or evening industrial school are wage-earners who have families to support. They must

increase their earning capacity, and they turn to the evening industrial schools for the instruction upon which they may realize in a comparatively short time. In most instances they know what they need. Their time is limited. In many industries the hours are long. "Overtime" work, sickness, holidays, and lodge and union meetings frequently interfere with the regular attendance at the evening school. Instructors who are masters of their subjects are hard to secure. All these conditions make it impossible to lay out a fixed course of study that will give the help the worker needs. These varying conditions can be met only by having a very flexible course, or a number of courses.

The short-unit course is based upon the proposition that if all the subject-matter of the courses commonly offered in evening industrial schools be broken up and reorganized into a number of units so that definite instruction in a particular subject can be given in a short length of time, the flexibility so desirable and necessary in a course of study for an industrial school is secured, and the school can better meet the varying and changing conditions in an industrial community.

As a concrete example of what can be accomplished by the use of short-unit courses, I propose to discuss the evening mining school and the manner in which the short-unit courses were applied to this particular type of school.

In 1905, mining courses were first given under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., and a year or so later mining institutes were organized for the purpose of encouraging its members to study and also to afford a sort of a clearing-house whereby the members could tell their associates of the things they had learned while working in the mines.

While a large number of mine workers enrolled for the Y.M.C.A. courses, by the end of the year the enrolment had dropped to a very small percentage of what it had been at the opening. The institutes then attempted to run schools for the workers, and, after a precarious existence, the public-school authorities were finally asked to be responsible for these schools.

The first attempt upon the part of any of the public schools in Pennsylvania to teach branches allied to the anthracite-mining industry was in the year 1911, when the Newport Township school board opened evening schools. This example was followed the next year by Nanticoke and the following year by Shamokin and other school districts.

The public schools were now confronted with the problem of caring for mature workers—men who had worked from six to twenty years in the mines, and realized that they could go no farther until they were better prepared.

Unfortunately, the first year the public-school system conducted the evening mining schools, the same-courses and methods of teaching were used as were formerly used, and the results were not encouraging. The question of how best to meet the needs of mine workers had not been answered.

Two statements frequently made by responsible persons were that the public schools could not conduct the evening schools for workers as successfully as the Y.M.C.A. or the institutes, and that there was no use in wasting public money for something which the public schools could not do. To silence this criticism of the public schools, it was necessary to show by actual results that the schools could cope with the situation. With this in mind, the organization and methods then in use, which had been in use in the schools when conducted by the mining institutes and by the Y.M.C.A., were studied and a number of causes for their lack of success were found, among which may be mentioned: (1) the lack of knowledge of the needs of the workers on the part of the teachers and of the school authorities; (2) the lack of the right kind of material for presentation to the class; (3) the fact that the courses were extended over too great a length of time before anything definite was accomplished. It was necessary for a man to enrol in October, and to wait until probably the first day of April, before he could receive instruction in some one thing which he needed.

To remedy these three conditions was the next step. It was much easier to discover why the schools had not been a success than to replace the existing teachers, courses of

study, and organization, with something altogether new and untried in Pennsylvania. It was impossible to change everything at one time, so new courses were organized and men who had a background of practical experience were employed as teachers; in fact, men were employed as teachers who worked during the day as mine foreman, assistant mine foreman, fire bosses, or inside bosses. New courses of study were organized in which the following subjects were taught: shot firing; timbering; haulage; drainage; safety lamps; mining arithmetic; mining law; mine accidents; methods of mining; ventilation and gases.

In spite of the fact that practical men had been employed as teachers and new courses had been planned, the attendance of the schools did not materially increase. Of course, the practical men knew nothing of teaching, and this was, of course, a drawback to the schools. However, the experienced teachers who had no first-hand knowledge of mines could not hold the men. Finally it was decided to place an experienced science teacher in the classroom together with the practical man. Even with this combination, the average attendance was not gratifying.

As a last resort, the entire subject-matter of the course was reorganized. In order to do this, it was necessary that the mining industry be analyzed to determine what was required of each man employed in or about the mines. In this analysis it was discovered that there were 51 classified inside and 27 classified outside jobs. At a first glance the situation confronting the school was appalling, because no school could hope to give training for 78 different jobs. The teaching force alone would have been as large as the student body and the courses would have been years in length.

The situation was made more complex by the fact that from the industrial history of 75 men, selected in a haphazard manner from 4,000 mine workers, it was discovered that no two of these 75 men who had started in as slate-pickers or door-boys had traveled the same route as they advanced step by step to the positions of petty officials and bosses.

From a closer analysis of the conditions in the mining industry, and of the requirements of each man for his particular job, it was learned that all of the men who worked inside of the mines needed a knowledge of gases, ventilation, electricity, map reading, and arithmetic. Courses were outlined and lessons prepared by a mine inspector who had had a number of years of practical experience in the mines. Yet even after the introduction of these new courses, dealing directly with the mining industry, with the employment of practical teachers, and the use of the lessons prepared by a practical miner, the schools did not advance as was expected. The best material available for teachers had been secured, there was no question as to the value of the subject-matter presented, and yet the workers were not being reached.

Inquiry of these men who were attending school and of those who had enrolled but did not stay brought forth a volley of replies such as "Want help for tomorrow, not five years from now," "Have to go too long to get anything I need," "Can't see any use in taking so much stuff." The men knew what they wanted and needed better than the school people, and finally after many blunders the schools gave them what they needed: definite instruction adapted to one or more of the many needs of the miners, and given in a short length of time.

The subject-matter was broken up into short-unit courses, such as five lessons in safety lamps; sixteen lessons in ventilation; five lessons in mine gases; ten lessons in timbering; and twenty lessons in mining arithmetic, divided into five lessons in decimals, five lessons in proportion, five in percentage, and five in powers and routes, as applied to the mining industry. These courses were then put in operation, and inside of two months a change was noticeable in the attendance of the schools. By the end of the year, we were able to maintain as high as a 65 per cent average attendance in the schools, which was a thing unheard of up until that time.

In the course of conversation with the men, you no longer heard the criticism of the schools that they could not get what they needed. Some of the schools are now organized

on such a basis that a man may attend school and receive instruction in gases; if he feels that he does not need any of the other courses given, he need not continue his work. It is now possible for a man to secure instruction in a subject on one night and put it directly to use the next day. This was not possible before, as he had to attend for as many as 50 or 60 nights before he received the information he most needed. These courses have been arranged in two ways: sequential and non-sequential. In the majority of cases, the sequential organization of the courses is used; that is, the various units are given in order of their sequence. Yet this does not destroy the positive effect of the short-unit course. On the other hand, in schools where there is a large corps of teachers, it is possible to give the short-unit courses in a non-sequential way; that is, the courses are given without any regard whatever to what precedes or what follows.

A school has been organized in a town of 1,500 population in the bituminous region of Pennsylvania in which instruction is given in the following short-unit courses: timbering, 5 lessons; haulage, 4 lessons; drainage, 4 lessons; mine gases, 10 lessons; explosives, 4 lessons; mine accidents, 4 lessons; methods of mining, 10 lessons; and ventilation, 11 lessons.

These courses have been arranged in a sequential order, because there are not a sufficient number of men attending the school to justify the holding of more than one course at a time. Some of the men have taken all of the short-unit courses. However, there will be some who will not take the course in timbering, but will take the course in mine gases and explosives; others who take the course in mine gases will not take that in mine accidents or methods of mining, and so on.

In this particular case, the short-unit course has a great advantage, inasmuch as it makes it possible to employ men who are the best informed men in the region in haulage, timbering, mine accidents, explosives, mine gases, drainage, and methods of mining; whereas, if the courses were not broken up into these smaller units, it would be necessary to employ a man who has had some experience in all of these different branches but who is not a specialist in any particular one.

This same course for a larger community could be arranged in a non-sequential manner; that is, the courses in timbering, haulage, and mine gases would probably be given on the same evening, a teacher being employed for each one of these particular subjects, while the men would take only the courses which they needed. Under the old system, John Smith, who desired a course in drainage, would have enrolled on the 24th day of September, and, after studying timbering and haulage, he would eventually have received some instruction in drainage. With the course of study organized in short-unit courses, he would not need to attend until the 2d day of November, at which time the work in drainage would be given in this school.

From the results which have been obtained in the evening school since the short-unit courses were put in operation, we are convinced that they offer a practical solution for meeting directly the needs of the worker, for the following reasons: (1) it is now possible to give definite instruction to the worker when he needs the help; (2) it eliminates all the material which does not bear definitely upon the worker's occupation; (3) it is possible to procure specialists in the industry to give the courses. This is especially valuable, as it eliminates the "jack-of-all-trades" teacher in the small community, and in the large community reduces the total number of hours to be paid for by the school authorities; (4) it is possible for the worker to use at once the instruction which he receives; (5) it is now possible for men to take any of the courses which they need at the time they are given; (6) it is possible to reach a larger number of workers than formerly. The personnel of the school has, in many instances, been quite different at the close of the term from what it was at the beginning.

During the last two years more men have attended the evening mining schools and successfully passed the state examination for mine papers than ever before in the history of the schools. The enrolment this year has increased and more schools have been

organized on the strength of the results of the schools which were in operation last year. The mine workers, the teachers, and the employers are in hearty accord as to the efficiency of this method of organization.

While the mining schools alone have been dealt with in this paper, unit courses are being introduced as rapidly as possible in the other evening and continuation industrial schools and household-arts schools of the state.

Possibly the statements which I have made concerning the operation of the short-unit courses in the mining schools would have more weight if some idea concerning the size of the mining industry were given. In the year 1912, there were 245,257,361 tons of coal produced in 220 working days. To mine and prepare this coal, valued at \$350,000,000, required the services of 368,340 men.

While a great deal of material which does not deal with the short-unit course is given in this paper, it is given with the purpose of showing that the short-unit courses were not adopted before other methods had been tried, and that their adoption was due to a gradual evolution of the methods of teaching the mature workers.

ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF CITIES WITH A POPULATION UNDER 25,000

RELIABLE MEASUREMENTS OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM

OTIS G. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, FAIRMONT, W.VA.

Of the numerous factors that should be considered in measuring a school system, I propose to discuss, all too briefly, three: the school census, medical supervision, and business accounting.

A reasonably tangible factor in measuring a school system is the annual school census. The school census as an enumeration of children of legal school age within the district is not a measurement. The census should be more than a list of the names, a record of the ages and nationalities of school youth within the district for the purpose primarily of establishing a basis for securing state revenue. Boards of education are legally bound to see that every child of compulsory school age goes to school somewhere. How may boards intelligently discharge this obligation unless they know with reasonable certainty how many children there are of legal school age, who they are, and where they are, if not in school? It should be a matter of vital concern to school officials to know the whereabouts of children not only of compulsory school age, but of those beyond the compulsory age. It should be known what becomes of children under twenty-one years of age when they stop school. Do they become workers or loafers? Is the school attractive enough to hold children regardless of their legal freedom, or is it so unattractive that reaching the compulsory-age limit is a signal for leaving school, whether employment is in sight or not? And, if employed, are they legally employed? If in school are they in the public school, private school, parochial school? The census figures should answer these questions with readiness and precision. Only in this way may a community know where the children are whom it aims to educate, and whether its aims are being realized. School officials should concern themselves with the question of the ratio of school enrolment to the school census, with the ratio of school attendance to the school census, and with the ratio of what is being done to what it is aimed to do. The answers to these questions will determine at least one factor in measuring the efficiency of a school system. The census affords the key to the answers.

The returns of the annual census should be tabulated and should be compared with school attendance. Herein lies the value of the census. It should be used after it is

made as a necessary instrument of any school administration that seeks to know in full measure the scope of its responsibility to the community.

The important uses of the census warrant boards of education in establishing a department of school census, placing in charge a competent census clerk. A competent clerk, with the co-operation of the truant officers, school nurses, city police, and other interested persons, may make the annual census continuous and at all times reliably accurate. As suggested by the Cleveland survey committee: "The school census should also record the results of each new enumeration on maps of the city in such ways as to show for all of the districts the amount of increase or decrease of child population. This information could then be utilized as an aid in shaping the building policy of the school system."

A second important factor in measuring the efficiency of a school system is the nature and scope of health or medical supervision. For the most part, we have passed thru the stage of medical supervision known as medical inspection, the primary purpose of which was to discover existing physical defects of the child and report the same to the parents, with the request that the defect be brought to the attention of the family physician. With this important the incomplete service of inspection performed, the child was free as before to continue his attendance at school, regardless of the attention paid to the school physician's notice and recommendation.

With all its imperfections, this type of medical inspection served its day very well. But with the awakening of the physical conscience thruout the United States in recent years, the demand for follow-up procedure in the inspection of children has broadened the scope of medical inspection and given us medical supervision. Medical inspection locates and reports physical defects of children; but medical supervision locates, reports, and follows up defects. It does more than that; it seeks to prevent defects by treating symptoms. The one is corrective, the other is preventive as well as corrective.

Investigations have disclosed that, without a definite plan for the following up of notifications to parents by school physicians, only about 5 to 30 per cent of the recommendations will be acted upon. An efficient follow-up plan brings the figures to 85 or 90 per cent. The most effective plan for securing the desired result is the employment of the school nurse, who goes into the home and sympathetically and tactfully presents the child's case to the parents. If one visit of the nurse is not sufficient, then another and another is made. As a general proposition, a good nurse in medical supervision of schools is as valuable as a good physician. The practice in schools having the best regulated medical supervision is to have a limited service of competent school physicians and plenty of nurse help. The physicians should be experts in child hygiene and should be tactful enough in directing the health work thru the nurses to secure the co-operation not only of teachers and parents but of local physicians, hospitals, charity organizations, and other helpful agencies whose co-operation is needed.

Medical supervision should extend in some measure to the different varieties of school-health agencies that have been organized as a result of the recent development of public-health opinion. Play and playgrounds, physical training, open-air schools, schools for delinquent children, and probably the teaching of hygiene in the school curriculum are agencies that to some extent should come under the control of an efficient health supervisor.

For each pupil enrolled in school, there should be kept an individual health card which shows clearly his health history. The card should contain specific data of the physical examinations, and note should be made of all recommendations that have been acted upon. Such a record would reveal the need of health supervision and would test the efficiency of the medical supervision as it applies to the follow-up procedure.

A third reasonably tangible factor in reliably measuring a school system is the method of business accounting employed by school officials.

The evident tendency in recent years toward better business efficiency in all lines of activity involving investment and returns has created a demand, more or less insistent, for business efficiency in matters affecting the expenditure of public money. The amount

of money spent for education during the past few years has increased out of all proportion to the number of children to be educated. School taxes have risen enormously, and still the cry is for more money. And the increase in taxes creates a demand upon boards for facts and figures concerning expenditures. Communities want to know how money derived from public taxation is spent, why it is spent, and what the returns are. To this end many boards of education have been making an earnest effort to give the public full knowledge of the manner in which the work of the board and schools is carried on.

The tendency is toward standardization in business transactions, in school costs and accounts. Merely keeping an account of the revenue received and expended is no longer adequate. Statements of the amounts spent for fuel, light, janitor service, teachers' salaries, textbooks, insurance, and other items are valuable as aids in making the annual estimate or budget, but from the standpoint of estimating units of service they are too general and too vague to be valuable. School boards and superintendents should know how much the performance of any service costs and how it compares with like costs elsewhere. It is very important, therefore, if modern business methods of efficiency are to be practiced by boards of education, that school costs and accounts be standardized to the end that units of service be intelligently and definitely established.

For all schools and for each kind of school the costs should be determined. Furthermore, the cost per pupil in all subjects of instruction should be computed and compared with similar previous costs and like costs elsewhere. So, also, should units of service be established for expenditures for fuel, light, apparatus, supplies, insurance, textbooks, medical supervision, and the like. With these specific tests in matters of cost, together with other tests to determine pupils' abilities along various lines and hence to determine the ratio between cost and returns, a wise administrator has sufficient data to enable him to measure the efficiency of his schools along certain definite lines.

Further discussion of measurements that should be employed in determining the efficiency of a school system would include, among others, these additional topics: the progress of pupils thru the school system; standards of qualifications of teachers; improvement of teachers in service; quality of instruction; the course of study; nature and scope of supervision; provision for delinquent and exceptional children; co-operative agencies; vocational guidance; the school plant and school equipment.

THE ETHICAL AS THE ESSENTIAL FACTOR IN TRAINING FOR EFFICIENT CITIZENSHIP IN A DEMOCRACY

CHARLES W. COOKSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TROY, OHIO

"The times that try men's souls are over," said Tom Paine when he heard of the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Subsequent history has proved the folly of this conclusion. The struggle of the individual and of the nation for greater efficiency, whether we call it education or evolution, is the problem of the ages. With the growth of a complex society, adequate educational processes become more abstract. To prepare for efficient citizenship in the democracy is the task of the schools, for the school is the only agent under the control of the state and the nation by which the young may be trained for the responsibilities of adult life.

Often it has been said that the home and the church must do many things in the training for citizenship, and certain specific duties are assigned to each of these institutions. However beautiful the theory may be, the principle does not hold good. In the first place, that part of the home which has survived the innovations of the club and the factory often creates conditions which the school must regulate. The adoption of compulsory-education laws and strenuous efforts in many places to enforce them warrant the above statements. The churches, with their multiplicity of organizations, are not reaching the masses. The state and the school cannot solace themselves in the presence of

this condition and assure themselves that their share of the educational process is being adequately carried out. Education is a public policy, and the American government stands for the entire separation of church and state. It will be fatal, therefore, for the state and the nation to depend upon an institution outside of their jurisdiction to give to the new generation the spiritual training without which efficient citizenship is impossible. That the homes which still exist, the churches—for such persons as they do reach—and society are aids, no one will gainsay; but the point of contention is the inadequacy of the results as determined by the number reached.

There are many great problems ahead of us as a nation, but the really greatest problem is to make better men and better women of us all. John Stewart Mill says: "The worth of the nation is the worth of the individual." It may be said, then, that no institution or organization for the advancement of public uprightness has any assurance of success that is not based on personal integrity and personal courage. No scheme of socialism, no punishment for fraud or graft, no legislative enactments or governmental edicts can be of service in making efficient citizenship unless they are based upon considerations of the influence these courses will have upon the individual.

In the discussion of any question, there is often a necessity for the establishment of limits and boundaries by definitions, in order that no misunderstanding may arise in the use of the terms employed. Ethics in this discussion is to have the broad general definition of moral duty. It is to mean "the outward sign of harmonious spiritual development." It will refer to the discipline or training in those elemental virtues of truthfulness, honesty, sobriety, and self-sacrifice; it will mean moral reactions manifested in joy, peace, longsuffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance, which are the fruits of the spirit and which are necessary traits of character for citizenship in a democracy.

My thesis, then, is that the things of the spirit must not only be taught, but that they must be tested by moral reactions in order to insure to posterity those characteristics of mind and heart which are necessary for the maintenance of the republic, that universal righteousness necessary in order that the individual may make the proper application of his opportunities to his duties and so adjust his life that he will meet the needs of citizenship and national perpetuity.

It has been said, and said repeatedly, by the most thoughtful that the education which neglects the spiritual is a farce. Notwithstanding this fact, the intellectual predominates in the school measurements. Teachers are rated very largely by marks in scholarship; pupils are promoted on the basis of their ability to pass certain mental tests; students are graduated from college and university when they have gained definite intellectual accomplishments; yet all recognize that intellectual education alone never has and never will save a nation, uplift a people, sanctify a home, purify a ballot, aid in law-respecting or law-enforcing, or cause an individual to be transfigured into the likeness of Him who spake as never man spake. A single illustration will suffice. Dr. Gunsaulus, president of Armour Institute, was walking with a friend in State Street, Chicago, one Sunday afternoon when they noticed a crowd thronging about a public assembly room. Curiosity led them to go in. Just as they entered, the speaker on the platform was thrilling his audience by saying, "I am learning to make deadly explosives at Philip Armour's expense." Dr. Gunsaulus recognized the most talented, most intellectual student in the institution. It only confirms what Ralph Waldo Trine says: "The education of the head without the softening and refining influence of the heart only increases one's power for evil."

It is a crime to teach a child to read unless at the same time he is taught to read that which will be uplifting, purifying, ennobling. It is criminal to teach the intellect unless, at the same time, those principles are taught which will inculcate a practical knowledge of the universal brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God. It is a farce to give a man high ideals without furnishing the means whereby those ideals may function in action worthy of the best in an American citizen.

The application is easily understood. In this present time, the unlettered may be a part of an unorganized band in guerrilla warfare, shooting from ambush at a venturesome frontiersman and driving his cattle from the ranch. The educated are a part of vast armies with forty-two-centimeter guns, bomb-dropping aerial navies, submarines, with deadly projectiles, dreadnaughts and superdreadnaughts; and all the world is put under tribute for savages to carry on a war of annihilation. Poisoned bullets, suffocation gases, and blockades to starve the non-combatants are some of the results of intellectual and scholastic culture.

Note the contrast. When the government opened Oklahoma to settlers, in the mad rush for advantageous positions, a little girl was lost. The cry of a child lost went out thru the rabble struggling for homes. The selection of locations was abandoned and search was made for the little one who was supposedly without protection. During the afternoon, on thru the night, into the next day went the searching party, when some of the members came upon a wolf which had been killed in a sanguine struggle. A little farther on a second wolf was found with its vitals torn from its body; and nearby in a little clump of bushes was the child unharmed, sweetly sleeping, with the family dog lying dead across her body. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friend. In our day, when civilization across the water seems to have collapsed, it is refreshing to turn to the brute creation for examples of the destruction of self for the preservation of others.

In the study of those elements which should be emphasized in the making of citizenship, there are no differences with those who are working along the line of vocational training as a solution for national efficiency. In fact, all will agree that vocational education is a necessity growing out of the character of our social order. Manual skill will not save a republic, moreover. Men in America are not starving for bread, but they are starving for the good, the true, the beautiful. To make two blades of grass grow where one grew before is a valuable contribution to the wealth of the country, but to make boys and girls exercise self-restraint, practice the virtues, recognize every man as a brother, is a Godlike performance. The need of bread may cause a man to commit a crime, but the absence of the attributes of the soul makes him a criminal whether he ever breaks the statutes or not.

The schools have glorified knowledge. "Knowledge is power" has been carved in stone and placed over the doors of school buildings. It has been used as copy for practice in penmanship. It has been a gem for memory work. It has been the text for addresses before student bodies on all kinds of occasions. True knowledge is power, but power is selfish, and selfishness is antagonistic to efficient citizenship in a republic. Education will take on a new aspect when knowledge is regarded as the by-product of the schools, and character-building becomes the goal of the vision which prompts the levying of vast sums of money for educational purposes. When the acquisition of knowledge is secondary and the training for citizenship is fundamental, then scrutinizing surveys and statistical reports will give records of self-sacrifice, of service, of devotion to duty.

Many methods have been presented for the teaching of ethics. There are just two which are applicable to this discussion; two methods of instruction which, if made a part of the school policy, will result in better manhood mentally and physically as well as spiritually. Considering that less than 10 per cent of the young men who offered themselves to the marine corps last year were accepted, it is perfectly clear that some methods must be devised by which the unfit 90 per cent may be prepared to fill a place of usefulness in our common country.

The first and most important method for the creation of ethical concepts is thru the personality of the teacher. It must be understood, however, that the individual who stands behind the desk is not always the teacher. It may be an older pupil in the room or one in the alley who is shaping the life of the school much more forcibly than the so-called teacher.

The school, like a great mirror, reflects the soul of the teacher. "As is the teacher, so is the school," is truer than usually supposed. Children imitate; they copy; they take on the master spirit of the environment in which they live, be it good or bad. The orientals have a proverb that the grapes turned purple by looking at their fellows, and an English naturalist asserts that he has heard a sparrow singing the nightingale's song. On one occasion a gentleman was telling me about his canary and described him as an organ canary. The qualifying word attracted attention and led to inquiry as to the meaning of the term. The explanation was logical. A trainer had devised a mechanical contrivance which would produce certain musical tones. The birds to be trained were placed in little boxes in the room with the musical toy, and there, hour after hour, day after day, week after week, they heard no sound except the song to be learned. My informant remarked that they often sing no notes other than those they learned in their training school, their college of music. With proper humility we might say: If the throat of the little yellow songster can be so changed that he will sing a different song than nature intended him to sing, how much more ought we to be able to teach the boys and girls of America so that there would be no minor strains of despair because of misspent and unprofitable lives, and no discords, in the great chorus of human endeavor!

James J. Hill, the wizard in railroad organization, in addressing some Y.M.C.A. boys said: "We have tried athletics, social recreation, music, education, and all have failed. The only thing that will better our railroad men is religion. If you have lots of that, bring it along and put your associations on the Great Northern." If a cool, calculating, impassionate business man in a moment of careful investigation could declare that the railroad system needed more religion, as it was the only thing which had not been tried to increase the efficiency of the men, with equal propriety we may confidently say that we have tried many devices with marked success, but the one element that we all need is more of the religion of life that is worthy of imitation.

The adoption of a religious creed does not necessarily function in the practice of ethical virtues. Men have dropped munificent sums into the collection box on Sunday for sweet charity, or to spread the gospel of their faith among the benighted; but on any other day of the week they may drive a dishonest bargain and rob the innocent. Men have bowed on Sunday at the altar of the church in which they worshiped, and on Monday have gone blood-mad, unwilling to trust the law's delay, and taken one of their fellow-citizens from the bastille and hung his bullet-riddled body to a near-by tree. Thus it has been shown that little reliance can be placed in unrestrained and untrained human nature, subject to specific temptations no matter what may be their profession; but with the practice of self-sacrifice, self-restraint, self-abnegation, with systematic drill in integrity, honesty, sobriety, truthfulness, temperance, purity, we may hope to blot out from the body politic those who will trade their franchise for a mess of pottage or sell themselves and their constituencies for thirty pieces of silver.

The teacher must be spiritual as well as intellectual. He must give up self for others, if a boy or a girl is to receive a new birth. Arithmetic, algebra, Latin may be taught without any diminution or destruction of self, but boys and girls never.

The second method to be presented in this discussion is the emphasis of the spiritual in literature. The Scriptures present the basic principles for instruction in the things of the spirit. There are communities where the adoption of the Testaments for this work would be objectionable; yet there are few school units that would offer criticism against the teaching of Abraham's faith, Solomon's wisdom, Ruth's filial devotion. If there be objections to the Bible, then the material in the textbooks will serve the double purpose of literary standards and spiritual stimuli.

A few examples will help to make my meaning clear. We find fault with Longfellow's the "Psalm of Life" as literature, but there can be no criticism of his clear, unequivocal faith in the immortality of the soul as expressed in the poem.

William Cullen Bryant had failed in some of his ambitions. The future looked dark to him, and, as he crossed the country seeking a new situation, a solitary wild duck, with its form "darkly painted on the crimson sky," crossed before him. He mused upon "the Power" which guided its course, and his apostrophe to the bird, when it had entirely disappeared from sight, contains his unswerving faith in divine justice:

Thou'rt gone, the abyss of heaven
Hath swallowed up thy form; yet, on my heart
Deeply has sunk the lesson thou hast given,
And shall not soon depart.
He who, from zone to zone,
Guides thru the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone,
Will lead my steps aright.

The self-crucifixion of Enoch Arden for those he loved, in that beautiful story without sin, has made many a high-school boy and high-school girl live a more unselfish life.

The universal brotherhood of man, irrespective "of race, color, or previous conditions of servitude" is portrayed in "The Vision of Sir Launfal." Phoebe Cary's awakening in "Nearer Home," the nearness of the spirit world in "The Ancient Mariner," and Longfellow's return to faith in "The Bridge," are a few of the many illustrations which may be put into the hands of the pupils; and then, with the magic touch of the spiritual in the teacher, the young life reflects the moral reactions from the ethical concepts acquired.

When the teachers of America with uncovered heads stand within the threshold of the office, the recitation room, the laboratory, the gymnasium, before the pupils appear in the morning, and, no matter what creed they profess, petition the Great Jehovah for wisdom and power to do the work by example and by precept which is necessary to be done in order to make for universal brotherhood and fatherhood; and when, after the day's work is over and the children are gone, with the devotion of kinship they say: "Father, I thank Thee that I am permitted to be an American teacher and have a part in building and fortifying a great nation"; and when the children catch the master spirit, we will cease to be troubled about unpreparedness and inefficiency in national crises in this democratic government.

ROUND TABLE OF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

THE TWO PHASES OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

GEORGE MELCHER, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF RESEARCH AND EFFICIENCY, KANSAS CITY, MO.

For generations schools have been conducted on opinion. All other forms of business of great magnitude that involve the expenditure of vast sums of money and affect the welfare of thousands of people are being reduced to a basis of fact. The present tendency in the educational world is to substitute fact for opinion. Effective supervision must be based on fact, not on theory and opinion. In order to secure the necessary facts on which to base wise and efficient supervision, careful and scientific inquiries must be made and definite tests and standards must be established and used in measuring educational efficiency. By the application of such tests, we may reach facts—conclusions free from personal opinion or bias. Should not schools render accounts, both financial and educational, as trustworthy and systematic as the accounts of any other business? Professor Hanus, of Harvard College, one of the best authorities on school administration in America, says that efficient management of a school system depends upon "habitual and well-

organized self-examination within the school system, including adequate appraisal by the staff of the results achieved, and well-conducted experiments to confirm or refute educational opinion within and without the school system."

The two important phases of research and efficiency in the public schools are the financial and the educational. Let us first consider the financial aspect of the question. From one-sixth to one-third of the current maintenance fund in the public-school system is devoted to other purposes than paying for the personal service of instruction and supervision. The expenditure of all this money should be supervised by the superintendent. These expenditures may be under the immediate direction of such officers as the chief engineer or superintendent of buildings, the architect, the purchasing agent, the chief attendance officer, and the secretary of the board of directors.

In order that the expenditure in these various departments may be wisely made, it is necessary that standards of cost be established. There are so many factors that enter into the determining of the cost of any item that it is not an easy matter to establish standards in school finances. For example, in studying the cost of heating school buildings in different school systems, or school buildings in the same system, cost may be compared on the basis of the cost per pupil, or the cost per thousand cubic feet of space to be heated, or the percentage of the entire cost invested in fuel. So many factors enter into the determining of this cost that any single basis of comparison may be unfair. Some of the factors that must be considered are: (1) the kind of fuel and the relative cost of the various kinds of fuel; (2) the amount of air space per pupil to be heated; this item will be greatly influenced by the presence in the school building, or the absence, of gymnasiums, auditoriums, and playrooms, and it must also be known whether these auditoriums are used full time or part time; (3) the character of the building; (4) the kind of heating plant; (5) in comparison with other cities, temperature and climate must be considered.

At a glance, one can see that comparisons based on the cost per pupil may be unfair, since one building may have playrooms, auditoriums, and gymnasiums to be heated, while others have only the schoolrooms. Again, one building may place 30 pupils in a room 24×30 feet and another may place 50 in a room of the same size. Comparisons based on the cost per thousand cubic feet of air space to be heated may be unfair because the kind of heating plants in the buildings may be entirely different or the amount of ventilation may vary from building to building. Furthermore, the percentage of the entire cost, a method of comparison often used in comparing one city with another, is a very unfair basis, since this percentage is apparently low in cities that pay high salaries for teachers. It costs just as much to heat a given room for a teacher receiving \$500 per year as it does to heat the room when the teacher is receiving \$1,000 per year. The cost per thousand cubic feet of air space to be heated is possibly the fairest of all means of comparison when a single basis must be used.

Not only should the cost of heating be carefully standardized, but also the cost of light and water, cost of janitor service, cost of janitor's supplies, and the cost of supplies for instruction. A school system should know the cost per pupil of writing-paper, pencils, drawing-material, pens, regular textbooks, and supplementary books. It is true that certain factors will cause variations in these items, but if it is known by the persons responsible for the expenditure that there will be careful checking on each item of expense, and that comparisons of the various buildings will be made, greater economy will be exercised in the use of materials. The economy brought about by the mere knowledge that the checking will be made pays several times for the expense of checking.

Furthermore, as regards the matter of cost accounting, a school system should know the cost of each subject of instruction. It should know the cost per pupil hour in the high school for each subject, the cost per pupil hour of elementary-school work, the cost per pupil hour of special subjects, such as manual training and domestic science, and the cost per pupil hour of kindergarten work. In the erection of new buildings, the cost per

room or the cost according to cubical contents should be known. The cost of repairs on buildings should be carefully checked and studied.

The second phase of research and efficiency relates directly to the department of instruction. The research work in the department of instruction may be considered under five heads: (1) measuring general school results in terms of school progress; (2) measuring and standardizing achievements in school subjects; (3) conducting experiments and making measurements to test the value of methods of teaching or plans of organization; (4) testing the suitability of the material suggested in courses of study for the various grades, and standardizing the subject-matter for each grade; (5) contributing to the educational world, as a final result of this other work, a body of scientifically tested educational principles.

Bureaus of efficiency are now engaged very largely in checking up general results and measuring school achievements objectively. It is probable that, in a few years, the most important work of these bureaus will be centered on the last three phases mentioned above. Up to the present time, however, so little work has been done along these lines that only this mention will be made of them here.

Under the first division are studied such topics as retardation, over-ageness, promotions, non-promotions, causes of retardation and over-ageness, causes of non-promotion, and opportunity in the school for individual progress. Accurate data on these points can be obtained only when the school has a system of cumulative record cards so that the progress of pupils thru the various grades can be known accurately. For example, in Kansas City we have a seven-year elementary-school course. At the present time, cumulative record cards are used in the system, but they have been in use only two years. In June, 1915, it was desired to know the length of time required by the graduates of the elementary school to complete the course. In Part I of the *Fifteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, pages 126 to 130, there is an account of the method used to determine this important point. The results of this investigation showed that 6 per cent of the class completed the elementary-school course in six years or less, and 40 per cent in seven years, making a total of 46 per cent who completed the course in seven years or less. Forty per cent required eight years to complete the course, and only 14 per cent required more than eight years. In the same *Yearbook*, page 143, Dr. Starch, of the University of Wisconsin, has suggested that one-third of the elementary-school pupils should complete the elementary-school course in seven years, one-third in eight years, and one-third should require more than eight years. Assuming that our figures in Kansas City are practically correct at the present time, nearly one-half of our pupils complete the elementary-school course in less than seven years, and only one-seventh require more than eight years. This splendid showing is made with an elementary-school course of study that embraces an excessive amount of technical grammar, abstract arithmetic, and rigid work in other subjects, and would seem to indicate that, by the elimination of much useless, non-functioning material now in the elementary-school course, it would be possible so to organize the course of study that at least one-fifth of the elementary-school pupils would complete the elementary-school course in six years, three-fifths in seven years, and one-fifth in eight years, or in an average period of seven years. Since the average time required to complete the elementary-school course in eight-grade systems is almost eight and one-half years, this organization would save one and one-half years.

It is the consensus of opinion that there is generally too much retardation in the elementary schools. Hence, the subject of school progress is worthy of continued and careful consideration by school administrators. On pages 130 to 132, of the *Fifteenth Yearbook*, is found a discussion of opportunity for individuals in the Kansas City elementary schools. This study indicates that in the Kansas City as in other school systems too little opportunity is given the bright pupil for individual progress.

A study was made, during the past year, of the causes of non-promotion. This subject was studied from two angles: (1) for each case of non-promotion the opinion of the teacher was ascertained; (2) the regularity of attendance of the promoted and non-promoted pupils was compared. According to the teachers' estimates, 52 per cent of the non-promotions were due to non-attendance. Assuming that a pupil cannot complete a given course satisfactorily unless he attends at least 80 per cent of the time, it was found that 60 per cent of the non-promotions were caused by non-attendance. Of the pupils who were not promoted, only 40 per cent had attended more than four-fifths of the time school was in session; but 60 per cent had attended less than four-fifths of the time, or had been absent more than 20 per cent of the time. Of the pupils who were promoted, 11 per cent had been absent more than 20 per cent of the time.

This study makes it evident that the most serious problem in non-promotion is non-attendance. This is a proper problem for solution, but it must be met by the co-operative efforts of the school, the home, and society. In fact, the chief burden falls upon society, for most of the causes of non-attendance are social or economic and cannot be overcome by the school alone.

As regards the second division of the subject, it may be said that only a beginning has been made in measuring school achievements objectively. Many types of school work lend themselves readily to objective measurement, and for some such types of school work scales have been devised. For other such types of school work, scales and standards are now in process of formulation and definition. However, many forms of school achievement do not lend themselves readily to objective measurement, since they are so highly spiritual and so elusive that it has not yet been possible to devise scales for estimating their value. Such achievements are often almost by-products of the educational processes, but, like the by-products of many manufacturing operations, these results are sometimes the most valuable part of the product. While many forms of school achievement cannot yet be measured objectively, it is confidently believed that in the future more scales will be devised, so that ultimately it will be possible to measure objectively, either directly or indirectly, most of the principal types of school achievement.

While only a few subjects have been measured, these measurements have revealed many valuable facts for the use of teachers and supervisors. The results of the measurements have shown that not only do the pupils in the same grade vary more than teachers and principals have realized, but also that rooms in the different schools in the city vary more than was believed possible before the application of such accurate scales. While it was known that rooms vary from building to building, the magnitude of this variation has been made clear by such measurements. Even in the same school, the variations between rooms is often greater than has been realized by the principal or teachers. For example, in Kansas City entire third-grade rooms were found that wrote better than seventh-grade rooms in other schools, and better than sixth-, fifth-, and fourth-grade rooms. In handwriting, some buildings made an average gain during the year of nearly two Thorndike points. However, other buildings made practically no gain. In accurate copying, some buildings were seven times as good as other buildings. Similar differences were found in spelling and arithmetic. In fact, it was found that almost one-fourth of the pupils of the city in the fourth grade did better in the fundamental operations of arithmetic, on exactly the same test, than did the poorest fourth of the seventh-grade pupils. Similar striking differences were noted in the results of the tests in the various subjects.

Some will properly ask: "Were not these differences due to variations in nationality, in community life, and in social conditions, etc.?" Some of them were, but the majority were not. For example, two schools of similar foreign population are about at opposite ends of the scale in certain of these tests. Of two schools consisting of similar American population, one stands in the highest group of schools and the other in the lowest group in certain tests. A school sometimes ranks high in one test and low in another. These

results are in harmony with the results that have been secured in every large city system that has been tested.

The more one studies the results at first hand, the more convinced he is that this great variation is largely a question of teachers and wise direction of teachers. When trained teachers are guided by clear and definite purposes, the teaching is most effective. School principals and school superintendents may render valuable service to the schools by giving definite purpose to each teacher's work. Many teachers already have a clear conception of the end to be attained and are securing valuable and tangible results. Many others are working just as earnestly, seriously, and industriously, and failing to secure satisfactory results. Why? I shall give Mr. Bobbitt's answer:

The taproot of effective teaching is to know in specific terms what one is after. The central cause of ineffective teaching is lack of knowledge of specific ends and a substitute conception that what one is to do is teach certain textbooks that somebody else has selected; to teach certain topics laid down in the course of study, also arranged by somebody else; to follow in unthinking fashion the dictates of others in all these matters; not to be guilty of living, responsible thought; and, in general, to grind away at the course of study and textbook machinery without any other thought as to the outcome than that pupils may be able to pass the examinations that belong with this type of school machinery.

The greatest service that principals and supervisors can render their teachers is to give them clear-cut specific ends to be reached in each grade in each kind of work. We have had too much generalization. The generalizations should be only the summaries of particulars and should not be given to teachers; but each teacher should make his own generalizations from the details that come under his observation and into his experience.

Accurate objective measuring of school results will aid materially in giving more definite and specific aims to our teachers in conducting their work. Some of the distinct advantages of the use of scales and objective measures are: (1) they eliminate personal opinion and bias and give impartial results; (2) they make possible an accurate comparison of the progress of each pupil from grade to grade; (3) they enable school principals and teachers to determine the progress made by groups of pupils as they pass from grade to grade thru the school; (4) they enable impartial comparisons to be made of the work of rooms in the same buildings, and also of rooms or grades in one building with corresponding rooms or grades in other buildings; (5) they enable comparisons of the work in the different buildings to be made; (6) they enable accurate comparisons of work in different cities to be made; (7) they give an accurate scheme for comparing the results of different methods of teaching given subjects and also of different plans of school organization; (8) they give the teacher a very accurate means of measuring his own pupils, which is possibly the most important result. Teachers are now learning that these new viewpoints enable them to improve very materially their classroom work.

Objective measurements bring out individual differences and class differences that are surprising. For example, in accurate copying, the best seventh-grade class in the Kansas City schools made only one-seventh as many errors per pupil as the poorest seventh-grade class. In the Courtis research tests in arithmetic, the best fourth-grade class had five times the medium speed of the poorest one, and seven times the median in accuracy. Such differences raise important questions in the minds of principals and teachers.

Our supervisor of writing has been collecting specimens of writing at the beginning of each year and at the end of each year. Until our bureau undertook the study of penmanship, he had not fully realized that some buildings actually made almost no progress in the quality of writing during the year, and that other buildings made a progress of two Thorndike points, and that as a result of this great variation in progress in the quality of handwriting there were several third-grade rooms in the city that last May wrote better than several seventh-grade rooms.

A comparison of the October papers with the May papers in writing revealed the fact that the different schools had no common aim in teaching handwriting and that they had no standard for speed and quality for the different grades. Some schools reduced their speed during the year and improved the quality of their handwriting; others aimed to secure speed, and did so at the sacrifice of the quality of the handwriting. Often in the same building the aims of the teachers seemed at variance.

Without question, definite standards of quality and speed in handwriting should be established for each grade and the teachers given specific goals to be reached. In general in Kansas City, when both quality and speed are considered, the greatest progress in writing was made in the fourth grade; the sixth grade ranked second, the fifth grade ranked third, the seventh grade came fourth, and the third grade ranked fifth. However, if speed alone is considered, the third grade made the greatest progress, but, in making progress in speed, it made almost no progress in quality; and many rooms lost in quality.

This study in writing only indicates a condition that is general in our school systems, and shows the need of more accurate measurements and more definite aims on the part of our teachers.

STANDARDIZATION OF TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS

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It is hardly necessary to remind this audience of the rapid growth of the movement for the use of measurement in education. Five years ago, had anyone suggested the possibility of a meeting of this kind, he would have been looked upon as a person of unsound mind; but today, from one end of this country to the other, measurement has an established place. It is true that, so far, measurement has been used mainly by those interested in survey work, by students of education, or by superintendents and teachers doing a little experimental work out of mere curiosity. Yet, during the meetings this week, the point has been emphasized over and over again that measurement should be of direct value to the teacher, and again and again the warning has been sounded that, if steps are not taken by those interested in the movement to make standard tests and scales practicable for daily use in the classroom, a reaction against measurement is bound to set in. I wish this afternoon to emphasize this warning and to indicate the steps taken here in Detroit to meet this need. As Director of Educational Research in a large city system, I am more directly interested in the improvement of the efficiency of teaching effort than I am in the more general problems of purely scientific research.

In all forms of educational measurement the standard test is an essential feature. Now, standard tests are little more than standard examinations. It is true that they measure single and very simple abilities, and that the conditions under which they are given and scored are very carefully controlled. Nevertheless, in all their essential features they are primarily examinations. They become "standard" tests only in two ways. One type of test is called "standard," because the text itself has been standardized by giving it to a large number of children, so that norms of performance have been established. The other type may be called "standard" for a different reason. Where the abilities measured are very simple and the factors involved few in number, the analysis of the testing material may be so complete and so perfect as to make it possible to construct duplicate tests exactly equal in value to the first. It is, of course, just as necessary to standardize such tests as it is to standardize those of the first type, but when such a test has been used in one extensive investigation, the scores that will be obtained in the use of all subsequent editions of it can be predicted with certainty.

At the present time almost all standard tests are of the first type, for the simple reason that very little knowledge exists in regard to the factors which determine the diffi-

culty of such tests. For instance, the Ayres spelling scale is constructed on the basis of the actual performances of many children; Thorndike's handwriting scale is based upon the judgment of many teachers. So Kelly's reading tests and many other tests of the same kind are useful measures only after standard values have been assigned to every question in accordance with the performances of many children. The other type of test, however, is much more to be desired, and it is possible but difficult to make. For instance, the paragraphs of Gray's reading scale gradually increase in difficulty. This fact is proved by the failure of first-grade children to read successfully more than the first paragraph or two of this scale. The second grade is able to penetrate farther into the paragraphs of the scale. No one knows, however, just what it is that makes paragraph three more difficult than paragraph two and less difficult than paragraph four. In addition, which is a much simpler ability, the various factors to be controlled are definitely known. Test 1, Series B, of the Standard Research Tests, for instance, can be duplicated endlessly without changing in the slightest the difficulty of the test itself. At the present time, three such editions of the tests have been issued, and a fourth is to be constructed soon.

The value of Gray's reading scale would be very greatly increased were it possible to duplicate at will the various paragraphs of the scale; and as an illustration of the kind of research work which must be completed before this type of standard test in reading can be constructed, I wish to present a consideration of the factors whose effect must be determined.

As I see it, the factors to be considered are of three kinds. The first of these is purely mechanical, dealing with such qualities as size of type, form of letters, spacing of letters and words, etc.; the second series of factors are those which depend upon the content, or thought elements, of the paragraph or sentence; the third series of factors are those which must be controlled in the giving and scoring of the tests. I shall discuss each of these in turn.

To make my discussion concrete, consider as a basic sentence (Fig. 1),

The girl is running down the street. (29 letters)

Fig. 1

Printed in eight-point type with conventional spacing, this sentence, which contains 29 letters, makes a line $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. The problem, then, is to construct a second sentence which shall be equal, in difficulty of reading, to the first.

Let us consider the mechanical features involved, the first of which is structure. The sentence, "The boy is climbing up the tree," parallels in number of words and in general structure the basic sentence. It is three letters shorter, to be sure, but as far as structure is concerned is nearly the equal of the first. If, however, the sentence were changed to "Which girl ran upstairs?" it would be impossible to say without trial whether the new sentence is more or less difficult than the original sentence. We need, therefore, careful evaluation of the differences in difficulty, if any, which are due to the structure of the sentence alone.

I have already referred to a second factor which must be considered, "length." For, if instead of the basic sentence, "The girl is running down the street," we were to use "The pretty little girl is running down the street, chasing her black dog," we know without trial that the sentence would take more time to read and would involve a greater number of eye movements. We need to determine very accurately, however, what the effect of such an increase in length from 29 to 59 letters would be. Is the longer sentence twice as difficult as the first, or only once and a half? For in the duplication of any paragraph of a set form, there is bound to be some variation in the length of constituent sentences.

So in the printing of our tests, we must be careful as to the size of the type and as to the spacing. For instance, in Fig. 2, notice that in one case our basic sentence is printed in large primer and in the other in six-point type.

a. The girl is running
down the street.

b. The girl is running down the street.

Fig. 2

Even to the adult, the difference in difficulty of reading is evident. The exact value of this factor also must be determined before we can measure the degree of development in reading in passing from the readers of the elementary grades to those of the later years.

Similarly, in Fig. 3, there is given an illustration of the basic sentence printed in condensed type closely spaced, and in type widely spaced.

a. The girl is running down the street.

b. The girl is running down the
street.

Fig. 3

Not only are there differences in the distance the eye must travel, which would affect the time of reading and, therefore, the relative difficulty of the two sentences, but the psychological effect of the two styles of printing upon even the adult mind is marked.

In similar fashion, any change in length or character of the actual line of type, entirely aside from the length of the sentence, also produces a change in difficulty. Those who have worked with children in the first and second grades know that a distinct step in advance has been made when a child can read a sentence in the forms given in Fig. 4

a. The girl
is run-
ning down
the street.

b. The girl is running
down the street.

Fig. 4

instead of in the form in which the basic sentence is first given (Fig. 1). These changes in mechanical features seem trivial to those who have given them no attention, but to those whose work lies in this field they are known to be of the very greatest importance. The average teacher is astonished to find that trivial changes in conditions cause children to appear to have forgotten all they have ever learned. But if the reader will look at Fig. 5, in which the basic sentence is printed upside down,

The girl is running down the street.

Fig. 5

he will realize that so slight a thing as a change of position may throw his reading habits almost entirely out of gear.

In addition to all the factors mentioned, there is the difficulty due to differences in the ease of word recognition. In changing from the sentence, "The girl is running down the street," to the sentence, "The boy is climbing up the tree," if "boy" is easier to recognize than "girl," if "running" is easier to recognize than "climb," if "street" is easier to recognize than "tree," the resultant value of the second sentence may be less than that of the first, altho every other factor has been kept carefully the same. This, how-

ever, is a point about which we have no information whatever, and even on the mechanical side it is impossible at present to construct, with any certainty of the result, two sentences of equal value.

If we now leave the mechanical factors and turn to the content factors, we shall find an even more serious situation. Consider, for instance, the three sentences: "The girl is running down the street," "The boy is climbing up the tree," "The misanthrope is sulking in his den." These sentences in structure, size of type, number of letters, etc., are of nearly the same value, but even for the adult reader there will be differences in difficulty, due to the fact that in the third sentence the thought element, aroused by the stimulus of the printed words, is very different.

The major element in the content situation is probably the familiarity of the reader with the particular word forms used; a second important element is the incentive which leads to the act of reading. All content difficulties are to be evaluated in terms of experience. The difficulty of a word for a reader is probably determined by the frequency and recency of its use and by the interest and emotional atmosphere surrounding the conditions of its use. It is, of course, hopeless to attempt to evaluate completely the relative difficulties of different words for individual children; but it would be perfectly possible to analyze the vocabularies of children in terms of average frequency and conditions of use. Such an analysis of the English language for different ages and types of life is urgently needed. If such data were available, tests of nearly equal value could be constructed, and the process of determining the exact value of the various units by the reactions of unselected groups of children would be very greatly shortened.

The third set of factors governing the equality of tests are those which have to do with the testing conditions themselves. The incentive of the children to put forth their best efforts will be determined largely by the instructions, personality, and general manner of the examiner. Teachers, as a rule, try to secure from each child the utmost possible performance, and are very quick to resent the efforts of scientific men to control conditions under which tests are given, in order to keep them uniform. The results from child to child, however, are not comparable, unless the instructions and general procedure are the same for all. The factor of personality is a difficult one to control, but there is some evidence tending to show that the differences produced by this factor are not large, providing conscientious care is taken to fulfil standard conditions. A far more important factor is the question of the timing of the test. Scrupulous care must be taken to keep exact time. In a test of one minute's duration, a variation of one second at the beginning and at the end will make a total variation of 3 per cent in the result. So with the length of the test. If a test is so short that all are able to finish in a given time, the subjects measured will appear to be of equal ability. On the other hand, if the test had been long enough to keep all occupied for a longer interval, large individual differences in scores would have been revealed. So, too, a test of short duration in addition is a different thing from a test, with exactly the same type of examples, of long duration, because of the variation in results caused by differences in the effects of practice and fatigue.

In similar fashion, we need much more information in regard to the effects of physical conditions. We all understand that in a test in reading a proper degree in illumination is essential for the best work, that the most gifted person would make the same score as the imbecile if both were required to read in absolute darkness; but we have not paid enough attention to the effects of small differences in light, temperature, humidity, etc., and we have not evaluated at all the effects of the position and physiological condition of the subject under examination.

Even after all the elements in the tests themselves, or in the conditions under which the tests are given, have been accurately measured and controlled, the results secured will be influenced by the methods of scoring and tabulating. The primary need, of course, is for standard marking. It is essential that a given unit have the same value for all, but it is equally essential that the tabulations of the results be made in the same manner

for all. If one city defines efficiency of a test in addition on the basis of the percentage of the children who can work at average speed with perfect accuracy, while another city defines efficiency on the basis of the percentage of the children able to work at average speed with 80 per cent accuracy or better, it is evident that, altho the actual data secured in the two cities may be precisely the same, the statement in regard to efficiency in the respective cities would differ widely. In this connection, let me make a plea for approximate methods and greater simplicity of procedure. We know at the present time that the results of any single test, no matter how carefully controlled, contain a large gross error of approximately 10 per cent caused by the variability which is a constant characteristic of all human performances. It would seem foolish, therefore, to carry correlation

Test A. (Lesson 13)

Form A

Lesson No. _____ Form _____ Date _____

Name _____ Grade _____

Add					Subtract			
3	8	6	8	4	152	118	165	94
9	6	8	9	2	56	68	97	23
9	1	7	6	3	120	152	90	57
3	7	1	3	2	97	78	71	29
8	2	3	8	5				
6	3	9	6	7	71	121	125	123
3	9	3	2	2	37	46	57	38

Multiply				
31	42	23	71	62
24	23	13	42	24

Divide		
21)395	32)672	43)559
51)1887	34)2788	

Form B.

Lesson No. _____ Form _____ Date _____

Name _____ Grade _____

Add					Subtract			
2	3	4	6	8	134	129	163	125
7	1	8	3	9	76	68	85	76
8	3	8	9	0				
2	9	3	3	5	93	178	85	163
4	2	3	4	1	77	84	47	79
9	5	5	7	5				
5	1	9	3	1	72	112	117	126
					25	16	67	79

Multiply				
21	32	43	51	32
19	21	13	37	34

Divide		
31)744	42)966	13)299
71)2982	24)1488	

13 A

13 B

SCORES DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS TRIAL
 Tried — STANDARD PRACTICE TESTS No. —
 Right — LESSON No. 13 TEST A (Lessons 1-12) Form A

SCORES DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS TRIAL
 Tried — STANDARD PRACTICE TESTS No. —
 Right — LESSON No. 13 TEST A (Lessons 1-12) Form B

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Fig. 6

coefficients to the fourth decimal place with data which are reliable only for the first digit. It seems foolish to try to determine whether a given specimen of handwriting is to be graded 11.2 or 11.8 on the Thorndike scale, when the average variation in the judgment from which the scale values were determined amounts to many units of the scale. In this connection, it is interesting to note the very great change in value of all such judgments when the same sets of samples are submitted to judges with very different training. In Detroit we use muscular-movement writing, and it is very difficult for teachers trained to consider the merits of handwriting from the point of view of muscular movement to use accurately such scales as the Ayres and Thorndike handwriting scales, no samples of which conform to their standards of judgment.

From all that has been said, it will be evident that the actual construction of tests and the planning of testing conditions is a scientific activity, calling for a large amount of technical skill and experience. When a test has been constructed and the conditions under which it is to be given have been determined, administering, scoring, and tabulating are purely mechanical steps, which may be carried out by any person of average intel-

ligence and a small amount of special training. The real problem confronting directors of educational research, therefore, is that of devising tests or examinations which will be valid according to the most rigorous scientific standards, but which can be administered by classroom teachers and which will yield definite knowledge, of value to the ordinary classroom teacher. In my judgment, measurement is certain to prove ineffective in school work, except for purposes of supervisory control, unless it is possible to put into the hands of all our teachers instruments designed primarily to aid them in measuring the effects of their own efforts.

By way of a concrete illustration of the type of test referred to, I present in Fig. 6 a test in arithmetic.

In Detroit we use the Standard Practice Tests. The assignment for the term consists of lessons ranging from very simple examples in the four fundamental operations to the longest examples that a child in the grades is likely to be called upon to solve. There are 48 lessons of equal difficulty, and they are so arranged that it is possible for each child to progress at his own rate and work in his own way without interfering in any way with the group formation. Our experimental work in the past has proved conclusively that the children most likely to be injured by such drill work are those who at the beginning of the year already possess those habits of speed and accuracy which the practice lessons are designed to generate. An attempt has been made, therefore, to imbed in the practice work a form of standard test which will enable a teacher both to eliminate those who are up to standard and to measure the effects of her teaching. The test shown in the illustration covers the abilities represented in the first 12 lessons. The factors which determine the difficulty of this test are so completely known that it is possible

to construct as many editions of the test as may be desired, so that a teacher may measure a child over and over again and yet be sure that a change in the scores is not due to a change in the measuring instrument itself. In the illustration two forms of this test are shown.

During the first week of the term all the children are measured twice with this test. Those who are up to standard are excused from drill and have the time for study in more important work. The others take the practice lessons, and at the end of six or seven weeks of drill the tests are repeated.

Upon completing a test, the teacher fills out a record sheet which is sent to the department and from which tabulations of city-wide results are made. In Fig. 7 an actual record for an eighth-grade class is shown. The tests were given on February 8 and 9. There were 25 children in the class, and on the first day three had perfect papers, on the second day two. The average number having perfect papers was, therefore, 10 per cent of the class, and the figure for efficiency¹ at the bottom of the report should have

¹The reader should note that "efficiency" as here defined means merely the percentage of the children who have completed their training.

Class Record
DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
PRACTICE TESTS IN ARITHMETIC
REPORT OF TEST A Lesson 13

Teacher Mary M. Brown
 School Mumford Grade 8 Room A
 Date Feb. 9 and 9 16 Form A + B

	1st Trial	2nd Trial
Total number of children in class	25	25
Number having perfect papers	3	2
Per cent. having perfect papers	12	8
Number missing but one example	2	0
Per cent. missing but one example	8	0
Number excused from Lesson Nos. <u>1-12</u>	5	
Per cent. excused from Lesson Nos. <u>1-12</u>	20	
Efficiency <u>12</u> - Efficiency Previous Trial Gain		
City Results—Efficiency Gain Per cent excused		

One copy of this report is to be sent to the Department of Educational Research and the other is to be kept on file in the school.

Fig. 7

been 10 per cent instead of 12 per cent as written by the teacher. On the first day there were in this group of 25 children two children who came within one example of having perfect papers. Altogether there were five children who were excused from drill upon lessons 1 to 12. This means that the three children who were perfect the first day were not the same as the two children who were perfect the second day. Under the conditions under which these tests are used, children perfect either day are excused from drill, so that in this class one-fifth of the children had the drill time free to spend upon other lessons.

These practice tests are in use in 50 schools with 13,000 children and some 434 classes. The median efficiency for the entire city is 2.3 per cent; the median per cent of the classes excused for the entire city is 2.8 per cent. These results, when reported to the teacher, will be written in on the last line of the class-record sheet, and in this particular case the teacher will see at once that the material in her class is superior to that of the city at large. At the end of seven weeks, the teachers of the city, on a given date, will repeat these measurements. From the reports sent in at that time, a second city-wide tabulation will be made, and, from a comparison of the two results, it will be possible to determine the average gain for the different grades.

Teachers' Record
TEACHER'S RECORD SHEET

Name *A. N. Jones* School *Lincoln* Grade *7*

Names of Children	Score	Number of Trials to complete successfully Lesson												Score
		Test A	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
<i>1 John Smith</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>29</i>
<i>2 May Brown</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>24</i>
<i>3 Tom Black</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>12</i>	

Fig. 8

Each teacher, also, keeps a daily record like that shown in Fig. 8. This record is to be interpreted as follows: John Smith in the first test worked correctly only 24 of the 29 examples in Test A. He was, therefore, required to take the drills. He was able to complete Lesson 1 in three trials, Lesson 2 in two trials, and so on. In the second test his score was 29 examples, proving that he had benefited by his drills. May Brown, on the other hand, had in the initial test a score of only 10 examples correctly worked, and required a very large number of trials to complete each lesson. Her score in the second test (24) shows that, while her training has helped her greatly, it is not yet complete. Tom Black had an initial score of 12, and after ten weeks of work, in which apparently he was completing each lesson in 4 or 5 trials, his score in the final test was 12, indicating that there was no transfer from the practice work to the examination. Such a child is at once reported to the department for investigation and special assistance.

The illustration which has been given represents the attempt to control the construction of tests and the conditions under which they are given and scored so completely that the results obtained by different teachers are comparable. Our experiment in Detroit—which is, of course, very limited, as the tests were used for the first time this year—seems to indicate that our efforts have been successful. But it is also certain that for very many years the ordinary teacher's examination will be the chief instrument by which the teacher may measure both the development of the child and the success of her own effort. Accordingly, there is a third type of standardization possible, which Detroit is also attempting.

At the beginning of the year, principals were asked to hand in copies of all examinations that were given in their schools. An analysis of these was begun, to determine the essential elements of a standard examination for a given grade. A sixth-grade examination in arithmetic was standardized by C. W. Stone. Why should not Detroit standardize examinations for every grade and every subject? This does not mean at all that every teacher must give the same examinations, but that a book of standard examinations may

be issued later, in which typical examinations for every grade may be shown, with detailed directions for giving and rating the various questions. A teacher would be free to select model questions from any grade or type, or to make up new questions at will. But for each type of question, or for an examination as a whole, the standard models would furnish a guide as to method of rating and as to relative difficulty.

The construction of the standard models will, of course, require many years of work, but the most essential step is making a beginning, and that step has been taken in Detroit. Already significant results have been secured and suggestions developed for future experimental work and for the construction of tests. For instance, questions on the writing of numbers occur in every grade. In the B-2 grade, 39 per cent of the questions deal with this point, in the A-2 grade but 5 per cent. In the A-4 grade, the number has dropped to 2 per cent of the total questions asked, and the percentage for this topic remains at about this figure, being also 2 per cent of the total number of questions asked in the eighth grade. Evidently a standard test covering this one point is needed, and the construction of such a test will be undertaken in the immediate future.

In precisely similar fashion, it has been found that questions dealing with the mere mechanics of addition of fractions are about 2 per cent of the total number of questions in the A-3 examinations, about 10 per cent of the B-4 questions, 9 per cent of the B-5 questions, 6 per cent of the A-5, and 1 per cent of the B-6. From this point on they occur less frequently than once in one hundred questions. It is very evident from these figures that the addition of fractions is learned in grades B-4 to A-5. An examination of the questions themselves shows a certain increase in difficulty in these grades. The department, therefore, will formulate in a very definite way typical questions in the addition of fractions for these grades. It will determine, by the direct giving and scoring of these standard questions, their relative difficulty. Finally, both the questions themselves, and the standards derived from them, together with the information secured as to the factors to be controlled in the construction of questions of equal difficulty, will be issued in such form that the information will be available for all the teachers of the city. Similar analysis of the questions in the history, geography, and English-composition papers is now under way.

The most important conclusion so far drawn from this work is that a very large number of elements are ordinarily covered in a conventional examination. Questions involving thought and the use of knowledge occur with questions involving purely mechanical skills. Moreover, it is the general custom to divide the credits equally among the questions in the examinations without regard to their real character or difficulty. Under these conditions, a mark of 75 per cent has no meaning, for it is not 75 per cent of a given desired ability, but of a complex of abilities, and may indicate merely that the child has neither the information nor the skill to do any of the work adequately. In the opinion of the writer, questions involving the development of skills, such, for instance, as the addition of whole numbers, or the addition of fractions, or the reading of Arabic numbers, should not occur in final examinations. Each specific skill can be adequately measured only by a test composed wholly of examples of a single type. The best examination, also, is not that represented by the score of a single performance on a certain day. Human effort is too variable and human skill too easily upset to make it fair to have promotions depend upon such chance scores. For these mechanical skills promotions should depend upon the median performance of a large number of trials thru the term; i. e., they should depend upon the daily increase in amount and quality of scores toward the standard, thru a long period of time. If a child has shown consistent development in repeated tests during the term, a single poor performance on a certain day has little significance.

On the other hand, questions involving thought and power to do are of quite a different character. We are today in desperate need of a measuring scale for ability in thinking and reasoning. The department is undertaking the measurement of reasoning

problems in arithmetic, following the general plans of Buckingham and Ayres in spelling. How rapidly this work can proceed no one can tell, but in this, as in the other types of standardization suggested above, progress will depend greatly upon the co-operative efforts of many workers; and if this paper stimulates the efforts of other members of this organization along these same lines, it will have served its purpose.

IMPROVING INSTRUCTION THRU EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT

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The Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement in Boston is undertaking its measurement work on the theory that "the ultimate purpose of all educational measurement is to increase the effectiveness of the instruction which the child receives."

THREE STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF IMPROVEMENT

In the process of improving educational results thru educational measurement, three quite distinct steps are involved:

1. The quality of the educational results now being obtained must be measured by the best available standard tests as a basis for determining just what the present educational achievement is. This involves also analyzing that achievement and judging it in the light of what, for a better term, may be called a standard achievement.

2. After the present educational achievement has been thus analyzed, suggestions must be made for improvement where results are unsatisfactory. These suggestions may be given in informal conferences with individual teachers or with groups, or they may be presented to teachers in the form of printed reports. The sagacious superintendent or school official will not put them into the form of official orders.

3. When a reasonable time has elapsed after the suggestions have been made, similar standard tests must be repeated to determine what effect, if any, the suggestions have had on the instruction. These second tests should not be given until the teachers have had ample time in which to put the suggestions into operation. The suggestions cannot be made today and the tests given tomorrow, or even next week.

PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT IN BOSTON

In Boston, as elsewhere, the measurement of educational results is in its initial stages. In Boston the first step in the above program has been taken in several subjects; the second step has been taken in a few cases; but the third step has not as yet been taken in any subject except for the four fundamental operations in arithmetic. It is the purpose of this paper to outline, briefly, the educational-measurement work which has been started in Boston, and to review more fully the results which have been achieved for the four fundamental operations in arithmetic, because that is the subject which has received special attention for a sufficient length of time to warrant the expectation of measurable results.

The work which has already been undertaken in Boston to determine the present educational achievements will now be briefly described.

1. *Accurate copying.*—One of the eight requirements in English for graduation from an elementary school, defined by the committee on standards in English and approved and put into effect by the Board of Superintendents, reads:

A graduate of an elementary school should be able to copy at least twelve lines of simple prose or poetry and a bill of at least seven items. Copying is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. The pupils should be made to see that accuracy in arithmetic, language, and other subjects may depend largely on accuracy in copying.

A standard test was prepared by the department and given to 4,944 first-year high-school pupils in November after they had been in the high school only about two months. For our purpose they were considered only elementary-school graduates. In this test the department was concerned with finding out to what extent elementary-school graduates measure up to this theoretical standard.

The standard for accurate copying, based on the median achievement of those 4,944 pupils, is stated as follows:

A boy graduating from the elementary school should be able to copy fifteen and a half lines (four and a half inches long, or thirty ems of ten-point type) of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than five errors of any kind (spelling, punctuation, capitalization, words added, words omitted, wrong words used, misplaced words, uncrossed *t*'s, and undotted *i*'s).

A girl graduating from the elementary school should be able to copy sixteen lines of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than three errors of any kind. (Length of line and kinds of errors same as above.)

A mixed class of boys and girls should be able to copy sixteen lines of ordinary prose in fifteen minutes, making not more than four errors of any kind. (Length of line and kinds of errors same as above.)

In due time, after teachers have had opportunity to study the successes and failures of pupils in this test, and also have had opportunity to improve their instruction, another test of the same kind will be given to measure the improvement.

2. *Spelling*.—The department is proceeding on the assumption that one of the reasons for the lack of ability to spell on the part of some pupils lies in the fact that teachers are spreading their instruction over too many words, many of which are practically useless to the pupil. As a means of economizing the time of teacher and pupil, and improving the pupil's ability to spell, the department is preparing a course of study for each grade, which shall consist primarily of words used voluntarily by normal pupils in their written work.

In making up the lists of words for each grade, teachers were asked to furnish lists of alleged difficult words. The teachers' lists have revealed two things: first, that mere opinion or a priori reasoning is not an adequate basis for determining the degree of difficulty of spelling for given words, because many of the alleged difficult words were spelled correctly by 990 out of 1,000 pupils in a rigid test given last May; secondly, that many of the words which teachers have reported as being difficult to spell are words which elementary-school pupils should not be expected to spell. Teachers have been trying to teach such words as convalescence, coupé, crochet, diaphragm, dilatory, equilibrium, fictitious, hypotenuse, impenetrability, knuckles, licorice, malleable, mayonnaise, naphtha, phlegm, quadrilateral, reminiscence, sovereignty, and zephyr when the children are misspelling such common words as business, divide, either, enough, fourth, library, ninety, similar, straight, their, there, and which. Limiting instruction to a reasonable list of words, and thereby economizing the time and energy of both teacher and pupil, is the first step which Boston has taken toward improvement in spelling.

Boston has also taken another step to promote better spelling. As a result of the tests given last May, the degree of difficulty of each word in the spelling-lists for the various grades has been determined according to the ability of 1,000 pupils to spell it. Each word has thus been standardized, so that each teacher knows what words are most difficult for the children of her grade. She likewise knows with what degree of accuracy the children of her class ought to spell the assigned words.

One further step has been taken in Boston. A committee of Boston teachers has been organized to study the various methods of teaching spelling. This committee has reviewed all the periodical and other literature touching on this subject which has been published during the last several years. The recommendations of each educational writer on methods in spelling were discussed by the committee, and each teacher during the next ten weeks is to carry on in her school an experiment involving some phase of the

methods of teaching spelling. At the close of this year's work a printed report for teachers will set forth the results of these experiments.

3. *Geography*.—The first and second steps in the above program have also been taken in the subject of geography. A test was recently given covering certain phases of the geography of the United States and Europe. Exactly the same test was given to 594 eighth-grade pupils, to 166 third-year high-school pupils, and to 83 first-year pupils in the Boston Normal School. The most surprising result shown by this test is that so little of what has been taught in the sixth grade remains in the minds of eighth-grade, high-school, or normal-school pupils. This test has indicated the urgent need of defining the minimum essentials in the course of study, if pupils graduating from the elementary school are to carry with them a knowledge of those common facts of geography which should be the intellectual possession of every person.

4. *Penmanship*.—The quality of the handwriting of elementary-school graduates has also been studied. A random selection of 600 papers was made from the 4,944 papers written in the test in accurate copying. These papers were studied by a committee of six Boston teachers who are especially proficient in the teaching of penmanship. The papers were rated according to the Ayres scale for adult handwriting, disregarding the even-numbered specimens in that scale.

The committee has also analyzed the merits and defects of these specimens of handwriting, and a report is being prepared for distribution among the teachers of the city. The department believes that merely calling the attention of teachers to the merits and defects of the handwriting of the children is to promote systematic improvement.

5. *Addition of fractions*.—In December a test in the addition of fractions, prepared by the department, was given in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary schools. The usual procedure of analyzing the results and printing a report for the use of teachers will be followed.

6. *Four fundamentals in arithmetic*.—Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are the only phases of any subject in which educational measurement has been carried on for a sufficient length of time to make it reasonable to expect any tangible results therefrom. The remaining portion of this paper will describe the methods employed to utilize the results of the Curtis tests in Boston, and the improved results which have been obtained for the four fundamental operations.

The Curtis standard tests were introduced into Boston in October, 1912, when Mr. Curtis was employed by the School Committee to make a study of the results of arithmetic instruction. Since that time the Curtis standard tests have been given five times in Boston.

The introduction of the tests into the city has been gradual. They were first given in twenty-one of the seventy elementary schools of the city. Gradually from ten to fifteen more schools have been added in the five successive testing periods, until in May, 1915, all of the seventy elementary schools were tested, involving 214 buildings and 55,277 pupils.

METHODS EMPLOYED TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION

Before taking up a detailed account of the results of testing work in arithmetic, it will be well to consider the use which has been made from time to time of the results of that testing work. This will illustrate not only how the improvement in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic has been brought about, but it will also show the methods by which the department undertakes the improvement of instruction in any subject.

1. *Standards have been established*.—Objective standards of achievement in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic have been established for Grades IV to VIII in the elementary schools. These standards have been established on the basis of the median achievement of all the pupils in all the schools tested. These standards not only represent the present educational achievement of the elementary schools in the four fundamental operations, but they indicate a reasonable achievement for any class of normal pupils.

As in other cities, Boston finds great variation in the achievement of pupils and classes—a condition which appears to a considerable extent as unnecessary as it is educationally disadvantageous. The lower 29 per cent of the eighth-grade pupils have no more ability than the upper 29 per cent of the fourth-grade pupils. Ultimately this variation should be reduced thru a better educational classification of pupils. If these objective standards become the end to be attained by pupil and teacher, and if they become an incentive for both to put forth their best efforts or to economize time, as the case may be, the results cannot be other than a more homogeneous group of pupils in each class and grade.

2. *Formal reports have been made.*—The report made to each teacher places her in a position to know how her class stands in comparison with the established standard for that grade. What is still more important, these reports tell her which pupils made low scores and probably need special attention and which pupils made high scores, and hence should not be subjected to any unnecessary further drill.

A report has been made to each principal after each test, showing the relative standing of his school in the city and of each class in his school. Every principal may find from these reports which classes stand relatively low and should have special attention in his supervision. These reports have been made as professional and more or less confidential reports from the director of the department to the principal of the school. Detailed comparison of the work of one teacher with that of another, which is likely to arouse controversy or hard feeling, has been studiously avoided. The form of the report has been such as to protect the individual teacher, and no publicity has attended it. What official use is made of the report is left entirely to the discretion of each principal.

The superintendent has been furnished with copies of all statistical tabulations and reports for his information and for such individual use as he cares to make of them.

Inasmuch as educational measurement is at present fairly well begun in Boston, the Board of Superintendents and the department are now engaged in working out a plan for placing the results of educational measurement in the hands of each assistant superintendent, to be used in his supervision of schools and teachers. When such a plan has been perfected, the necessary official machinery will have been set up for securing the most effective and far-reaching benefits from the work of the department.

From the above description it is clear that the results thus far achieved in educational measurement have been brought about without administrative pressure of any kind. The department has no authority whatever over principals, and has not undertaken to direct them. Whatever has been accomplished has been brought about thru the professional attitude of principals and teachers toward this problem of economizing time and effort in the obtaining of a satisfactory result. The credit for the achievement belongs, therefore, to the principals and teachers rather than to the department of which the writer is director.

3. *Printed bulletins have been distributed.*—In addition to the reports just described, the department has prepared bulletins analyzing the statistical results, explaining their significance, and suggesting methods of improving unsatisfactory results. These bulletins have been published as School Committee documents and a copy has been given to each teacher.

4. *Systematic practice material has been introduced.*—Undoubtedly the most important means of improving instruction in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic has been the introduction of systematic practice material or exercises which take the place of the former general class drill in which every child practiced on the same exercise. The Courtis tests have demonstrated conclusively that the mass or class-drill exercises in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are ineffective and uneconomical. Mass drills provide unnecessary practice for the more capable third of the class, and hence are uneconomical; they do not provide enough practice for the less capable third of the class, and hence are ineffective. An economic distribution of drill requires that it provide a means of reaching the individual needs of the forty pupils of the class.

The department has not insisted on the use of any particular kind of practice material. Reports from the principals show that over 80 per cent are using one or more of five different kinds. The department has felt that each principal should be left to use that educational material which he and his teachers believe to be most effective, but the department then expects these principals and teachers to produce satisfactory results.

This brief sketch will give a general notion of the methods by which the department believes the educational results in various subjects can be improved. Undoubtedly the objective standards of achievement, the various reports made to teachers, to principals, and to the superintendent, the printing of bulletins for general distribution, the introduction of scientific practice material, have all contributed something toward the improvement of results in arithmetic. Of more pronounced effect probably than any of these factors, however, has been the stimulation among teachers of an inquiring attitude toward the whole problem of arithmetic instruction. The results of the tests have shown the need of improvement; they have shown that the problem of arithmetic teaching is not yet solved, and they have prompted many teachers to study their own work as the first step toward improving methods of instruction.

MEASURING IMPROVEMENT IN ARITHMETICAL RESULTS

Courtis standard tests, Series A, were given during the first year the Courtis tests were used in Boston, three years ago; and Series B has been used since then. Unfortunately, for our purpose, this makes it impossible to compare the achievement of pupils in 1912, when the tests were first given, with the achievement in 1915, after three years' use.

A most significant comparison can be made, however, between the results achieved in May, 1915, in the schools where the tests had been given for a period of three years and the results obtained in schools where the tests were given in May, 1915, for the first time. This comparison will show the cumulative effect of giving the tests in a group of schools over a three-year period. To make this comparison, the seventy elementary schools of Boston were divided into three groups and the results tabulated accordingly.

Group A schools in the following discussion are those in which the tests have been given since 1912. In Group A there are twenty-nine schools and 18,391 pupils represented.

Group B schools are those which were added during the second year or the first half of the third year of testing. They are schools which have been tested for periods of from one to two years, schools in which the effects of the testing may legitimately vary. In Group B there are seventeen schools and 15,241 pupils represented.

Group C schools are those in which the tests were given for the first time in May, 1915. They are schools which have not been affected by the Courtis testing work in the city, except in so far as general discussion of the work has affected individual teachers or principals. It should be said, however, that principals of these schools have had opportunity to introduce the practice material, and that several of them have done so. If these schools had not been at all affected by the system of educational measurement in the city, the superiority of the schools tested would have been even greater than it is. In Group C there are seventeen districts and 11,836 pupils represented.

In the following comparisons particular attention will be directed to the achievements of Group A schools and Group C schools, because these two groups represent the two extremes, the former having received the full effect of the testing work and the latter supposedly not any.

It should be understood that the schools tested by Mr. Courtis in 1912-13 were so selected as to represent the varying conditions found in the city. This same care has been taken in adding schools from year to year, so that one group of schools possesses no inherent superiority over another group.

By way of summary let it be noted: (1) that all the public elementary schools of the city are involved in this comparison; (2) that each group (A-B-C) is representative

of the varying conditions in the city; and (3) that the number of pupils involved is sufficiently large to constitute a reliable basis of comparison.

COMPARISON OF MEDIAN SCORES OF GROUP A, GROUP B, AND GROUP C SCHOOLS BY SUBJECTS. MAY, 1915

TABLE I
ADDITION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	14.4	79.07 per cent	13.1	77.84 per cent	12.6	76.41 per cent
VII.....	12.9	77.50 per cent	11.6	74.15 per cent	11.6	74.24 per cent
VI.....	11.5	78.17 per cent	10.4	72.72 per cent	11.1	74.14 per cent
V.....	9.3	72.93 per cent	9.6	71.61 per cent	9.4	68.64 per cent
IV.....	8.2	70.00 per cent	7.6	65.15 per cent	7.7	63.11 per cent

The arrangement of the above table makes a comparison easy. For example, in the addition tests in Grade VIII, Group A schools achieved a median score of 14.4 examples attempted, with an accuracy of 79.07 per cent; Group C schools achieved a median score of 12.6 examples attempted, with an accuracy of 76.41 per cent. From a comparison of these scores we find that in addition Group A schools show a superiority over Group C schools of 1.8 examples attempted. This is a superiority of 14.3 per cent in amount of work done, and the table also shows a superiority of 2.66 per cent in accuracy for Group A schools.

TABLE II
SUBTRACTION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	14.6	89.73 per cent	13.1	88.77 per cent	12.4	86.92 per cent
VII.....	12.9	87.57 per cent	11.7	86.26 per cent	11.5	84.92 per cent
VI.....	11.5	88.01 per cent	10.7	85.69 per cent	11.0	88.73 per cent
V.....	9.3	85.14 per cent	9.4	84.44 per cent	9.0	80.64 per cent
IV.....	7.9	83.63 per cent	7.5	81.56 per cent	7.1	78.28 per cent

This comparison shows that, in subtraction, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 2.2 examples attempted, or of 17.7 per cent. In achieving this increase of 17.7 per cent in the amount of work done, Group A schools have also at the same time surpassed Group C schools in accuracy by 2.81 per cent.

TABLE III
MULTIPLICATION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	12.1	82.58 per cent	11.2	81.19 per cent	10.8	80.42 per cent
VII.....	10.8	81.58 per cent	10.3	79.28 per cent	10.1	80.08 per cent
VI.....	9.5	78.45 per cent	8.8	76.67 per cent	9.4	79.93 per cent
V.....	7.0	75.69 per cent	7.7	76.01 per cent	7.3	70.97 per cent
IV.....	6.1	70.95 per cent	5.9	67.45 per cent	5.8	63.61 per cent

This comparison shows that, in multiplication, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 1.3 examples attempted, or of 12 per cent. Group A schools surpass Group C schools in accuracy by 2.16 per cent.

TABLE IV

DIVISION

GRADE	GROUP A		GROUP B		GROUP C	
	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy	Speed	Accuracy
VIII.....	12.7	93.46 per cent	12.0	92.08 per cent	11.0	89.72 per cent
VII.....	10.9	89.34 per cent	9.6	87.63 per cent	9.3	86.37 per cent
VI.....	8.9	88.09 per cent	7.9	85.02 per cent	8.6	86.72 per cent
V.....	6.2	78.98 per cent	6.7	80.05 per cent	6.2	73.68 per cent
IV.....	4.7	65.85 per cent	4.6	59.11 per cent	4.8	63.11 per cent

This comparison shows that, in division, Group A schools possess a superiority over Group C schools of 1.7 examples attempted, or of 15.5 per cent in amount of work done. In doing this increased amount of work, Group A schools have at the same time increased the accuracy with which the work has been done, so that they now surpass Group C schools in accuracy by 3.74 per cent.

In the preceding discussion comparisons have been limited to Group A and Group C schools and to the results in Grade VIII. The following table, based on the preceding tables, institutes a comparison concerning all three groups of schools and the five grades from the fourth to the eighth, inclusive. The table shows the difference between the speed median and accuracy median achieved in Group A and in Group B and Group C schools respectively.

The following table is to be interpreted as follows: In Grade VIII the pupils in Group A schools exceed in ability the pupils in Group B schools by a median score of 1.3

TABLE V

ADDITION

GRADE	GROUP B SCHOOLS		GROUP C SCHOOLS	
	In Speed	In Accuracy	In Speed	In Accuracy
VIII.....	1.3	1.23 per cent	1.8	2.66 per cent
VII.....	1.3	3.35 per cent	1.3	3.26 per cent
VI.....	1.1	5.45 per cent	.4	4.03 per cent
V.....	-.3	1.32 per cent	-.1	4.29 per cent
IV.....	.6	4.85 per cent	.5	6.89 per cent

SUBTRACTION

VIII.....	1.5	.96 per cent	2.2	2.81 per cent
VII.....	1.2	1.31 per cent	1.4	2.65 per cent
VI.....	.8	2.32 per cent	.5	-.72 per cent
V.....	-.1	.70 per cent	.3	4.50 per cent
IV.....	.4	2.07 per cent	.8	5.35 per cent

MULTIPLICATION

VIII.....	-.9	1.39 per cent	1.3	2.16 per cent
VII.....	.5	2.39 per cent	.7	1.50 per cent
VI.....	-.7	1.78 per cent	.1	-1.48 per cent
V.....	-.1	-.32 per cent	.3	4.72 per cent
IV.....	.2	3.50 per cent	.3	7.34 per cent

DIVISION

VIII.....	.7	1.38 per cent	1.7	3.74 per cent
VII.....	1.3	1.71 per cent	1.6	2.97 per cent
VI.....	1.0	3.07 per cent	.3	1.37 per cent
V.....	-.5	-1.07 per cent	.0	5.30 per cent
IV.....	.1	6.74 per cent	-.1	2.74 per cent

examples attempted and by 1.23 per cent in the accuracy with which they do their work; the same pupils surpass the pupils in Group C schools by a median score of 1.8 examples attempted and by 2.66 per cent in the accuracy with which they do their work.

In the ten cases where the number is preceded by a minus sign the median for Group A schools is lower than the median for the group given. In the seventy cases where no sign precedes the figure the advantage is in favor of Group A schools.

A few brief statements, without discussion, will summarize the conclusions to be drawn from this comparative table:

1. In the amount of work done in the four fundamental operations, Group A schools show superiority over Group B schools in sixteen out of twenty comparisons and over Group C schools in eighteen out of twenty comparisons.
2. In the accuracy with which the work is done, Group A schools show superiority over both Group B and Group C schools in seventeen out of twenty comparisons.
3. The ten cases in which Group A schools are surpassed in speed or accuracy by Group B or Group C schools are distributed as follows:

TABLE VI

	Group B	Group C	Total
Grade VIII.....	0	0	0
Grade VII.....	0	0	0
Grade VI.....	0	2	2
Grade V.....	6	1	7
Grade IV.....	0	1	1
Total.....	6	4	10

It is to be expected that in the earlier grades the differences between those schools tested and those not tested will be found to be small, because the cumulative effect of testing work can be hoped for only after several years of effort, and hence must always be found largely in the upper grades.

SIGNIFICANT OBSERVATIONS

1. The difference in amount of work done as shown in a comparison of Group A, Group B, and Group C schools is slight in the earlier grades and gradually grows more pronounced, until in the eighth grade the superiority of Group A schools over Group C schools is from 12 to 17.7 per cent.

2. This gain of from 12 to 17.7 per cent in the amount of work done has also been accompanied by an actual increase in the accuracy with which that work is done. Altho the idea has not been developed in this paper, it is proper to point out that in all testing work undertaken by the department those pupils who do most work do it most accurately. This is a refutation of the contention of would-be critics that pupils are inaccurate in the Courtis tests because they are hurried in their work.

3. The fact that the 18,391 pupils represented in Group A schools are graduating from the elementary school or are going into the next grade with varying degrees of superiority up to 17.7 per cent over the 11,839 pupils who have not been tested is altogether due directly or indirectly to the system of educational measurement in Boston.

4. It is also a significant fact that this achievement has been brought about without the exercise of any administrative pressure of any kind whatsoever. The results are wholly due to the desire of principals and teachers to make the best possible use of the time of teachers and pupils in securing a reasonably satisfactory educational result.

5. These results seem to prove two important propositions: (1) that the scientific measurement of educational results is possible and practicable in a large city school system; and (2) that educational measurement may be a means of improving those educational results.

ROUND TABLE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION, SCHOOL CENSUS, AND CHILD WELFARE

DOES A STRICT ENFORCEMENT OF THE COMPULSORY-EDUCATION LAW ASSIST TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS IN THEIR WORK?

EDWARD B. SHALLOW, ASSOCIATE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK, N.Y.

On May 1, 1914, a Bureau of Attendance, School Census, and Child Welfare was organized in the city of New York. In the work of this bureau, an attempt is made to have an up-to-date record of every child of school age within the city, to see that all such children are kept regularly in school, if they are fit to attend, and to bring to the aid of children who need help the assistance of social welfare agencies. Thru the work of this bureau, we have gathered much useful information while enforcing the law.

In the brief time at my disposal, I shall try to tell you how a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law helps the work of teachers by increasing attendance, reducing retardation, and conserving a teacher's nervous energy.

1. *Increasing attendance.*—The 327 square miles of territory in the city of New York are divided into attendance districts, for the purposes of taking the school census and of enforcing the compulsory-education law. In this territory, there are approximately 1,326,500 persons between five and eighteen years of age; 850,000 of these are enrolled in public schools. During the past year, the percentage of attendance on the register was 90 per cent.

The following regulations governing the admission, transfer, and discharge of pupils in the city of New York may be of interest. Before these regulations were in force, thousands of children disappeared while transferring from one school to another.

The regulations provide that:

No pupil enrolled in a public school shall be discharged except by order of the principal for one of the following causes, which must be well established in each case: (1) proper and known admission to another school or to an institution; (2) the issuance of a duly authorized transfer; (3) commitment to a truant school or other reformatory institution; (4) transfer or expulsion in accordance with subdivisions 3, 4, and 5 of section 48 of the by-laws; (5) commitment to a charitable institution by a parent or guardian, a court, or a public officer; (6) notice from the director of attendance that an employment certificate has been issued and that the name of the child has been placed on the general suspense register; (7) death; (8) marriage; (9) graduation; in such case, the principal shall report the name of the child to the bureau of attendance, if it has not received a transfer to another school, or at the time of graduation has not obtained an employment certificate; (10) withdrawal by parent for any one of the following reasons: (a) instruction at home by a competent teacher, provided the district superintendent of the district in which the child lives has been notified and has approved the amount and the character of instruction; (b) physical disability certified as to cause and duration by a physician or other person duly recognized by the regents of the state of New York, provided the duration of such physical disability shall amount to one month; (c) mental disability when duly certified as sufficient for discharge by the city superintendent of schools; (11) permanent removal from the city; (12) inability to locate the residence of the pupil, when such fact shall have been duly reported to the principal of the school by the director of attendance.

The director of attendance shall maintain a general suspense register on which shall be placed the names of children residing in the city of New York, under sixteen years of age, who have been discharged and who are not regularly enrolled in a recognized school. He may require reports concerning the admission, transfer, and discharge of children from the public schools, and may arrange with schools not under the control of the board of education for similar reports.

Immigrant children admitted under bond by the immigration authorities to attend school for a given time shall not be discharged before the expiration of that time, except by permission of the director of attendance, nor shall a school record of attendance be issued to any such immigrant child to enable it to obtain an employment certificate, except by permission of the director of attendance.

When a pupil leaves school thru promotion or authorized transfer, a duplicate of his or her record card at the time of promotion or transfer shall be forwarded to the principal of the school to which such pupil is transferred.

The date and cause of discharge shall be entered immediately on the original and the duplicate of the record card of such pupil discharged as hereinbefore provided.

Every child is required to attend a school situated in the school district in which he resides. Within said district he shall attend the school nearest his residence. These requirements may be suspended by the city superintendent of schools.

The better method of enforcing the compulsory-education law, made affective in May, 1914, in the city of New York, and a stricter accountability of each attendance officer for the amount of work done each day, have done much, not only in increasing attendance at school but in preventing juvenile delinquency. Yet the law is not strictly enforced; this is not due to the method provided for doing the work, but rather to the inadequate financial support which the departments gets from the city government.

An evidence that a better enforcement of the compulsory-education law has increased attendance in the city of New York, may be seen in the fact that twelve years ago the attendance was only 86 per cent of the average register in public schools, whereas last year it was 90 per cent. A difference of 4 per cent less attendance in the enrolment of the New York schools for the past year would mean that 34,000 enrolled children had not attended school regularly.

The most notable example of a city which is fairly successful in accounting for all the children of school age within its limits is the city of London. There the compulsory-school age is from five to fourteen years, and there the teachers are relieved from the anxiety of looking after absentees. The Bureau of School Attendance inspects the registers of every school to find out who is absent. The teaching staff has only to note the fact of absence.

The attendance department in the public schools of London accounts for all children of compulsory-school age within the city. Within the six years from 1905 to 1910, there were on the rolls of London schools from 97.3 per cent to 97.5 per cent of all the children of compulsory-school age.

Under a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law in London, the percentage of attendance in public schools steadily increased for ten years, and showed a gain of nearly 10 per cent. Under the same public supervision, the gain in attendance was at the same rate in private and parochial schools. An effort is made to account for every child of compulsory-school age, and, if such a child is not in school, to give a satisfactory reason for his absence.

But how can any city, large or small, have a proper supervision of the school attendance of its children without an effective organization and a suitable force of agents for taking a school census and compelling attendance? In most American cities hitherto, the work of attendance officers has been largely a laughing-stock. The statistics of six years ago showed the following facts:

New York had 9,300 school children for each attendance officer
Boston had 5,800 school children for each attendance officer
Philadelphia had 4,700 school children for each attendance officer
Dublin had 2,600 school children for each attendance officer
Glasgow had 2,104 school children for each attendance officer
London had 2,086 school children for each attendance officer

In keeping with the careless way in which American school boards generally look upon the matter of keeping children of compulsory-school age in school is the attitude of magistrates in enforcing parental responsibility.

In towns where there are no children's courts, the same magistrate or justice of the peace before whom adults charged with felonies are arraigned is also called upon to hear charges against "hookey-players" and their negligent parents, and against those who employ children illegally. The magistrate's view of these, to him, minor affairs is generally one of justice tempered with too much mercy, and parents are not held to a proper accountability. Why, the dignified man on the bench may have "played hookey" himself forty or fifty years ago! The question comes to his mind: "Is non-attendance at school such a serious offense?" But the London magistrates think it is, because in one year they punished 10,600 adults for keeping children out of school. In the same year, New York— with about the same school enrolment—punished 1,500 adults for the same offense. Philadelphia in the same year enforced a greater responsibility than New York. In Germany, the punishment for keeping children from school during the compulsory-school age is accepted as almost certain, unless a valid reason can be given for absence.

But illegal absence from school, and especially truancy, meant much less fifty years ago in this country. Then, when the population was more largely rural, if a boy was a truant he usually went a-fishing, or played games in open fields, or went for a day to a circus in his own or a neighboring town. Now, if he plays truant in a large city, he is likely to fall into the worst of companionship, to consort with loafers and juvenile criminals, and to learn vice and crime. Statistics show that most of the juvenile criminals have been at some time truants.

The following excerpt from Bulletin No. 573 of the United States Bureau of Education, entitled *Compulsory School Attendance*, is also significant as showing the effect of a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law in increasing attendance:

An experiment was conducted by the truancy department of the Indianapolis schools several years ago by having the truant officer visit the school daily and obtain the names of all absentees. All cases of absence were visited, even tho a good excuse, such as sickness, was known to exist. Altho many children were excluded at that time, as medical inspection had been recently introduced, the absentees during the four-months' period were 20 per cent less than for the corresponding period of the preceding year. The method was discontinued, as it imposed too much work upon the officer, whose duties were already heavy. Money so expended would, however, bear dividends far beyond those accruing to the more or less haphazard method under present conditions.

As stated in this report, money expended in a strict enforcement of the compulsory-education law would bear good dividends. But if we are to account for every child of school age and see that he is in school, cities should do more in providing suitable special classes and schools for the physically and mentally defective, for the blind, the deaf, the crippled, and the mentally abnormal. Some cities have made good beginnings along these lines. Such efforts would do much in saving ultimate expense for charitable and correctional institutions for adults.

In one attendance district in the city of New York, comprising 35 schools, the percentage of attendance has increased in every school during the past two years, since the work of the attendance Bureau has been brought under an efficient system. Where formerly there was uncertainty and speculation as to how much work each attendance officer was actually doing each day, now it is a matter of definiteness and responsibility. If a pupil is detained from school temporarily thru sickness, poverty, or neglect, his case is not neglected. He is returned to school at the earliest possible time.

2. *Reduction of retardation in studies.*—When we consider the waste in money and time, both to the individual and to the community, occasioned by the retardation of children in school, and realize that much of such retardation is due to unnecessary and preventable absence, it will be seen that money expended in a strict enforcement of compulsory-education laws is largely offset by money saved in teachers' salaries and

school equipment. The truth of this statement is, it would seem, axiomatic. An appeal to common experience is sufficient to justify it. A proper record of promotions and non-promotions in almost any community will show this.

The following extracts from the records of the bureau of attendance in the city of New York are pertinent:

The significance of the practice of extending the attendance service beyond the mere control of truancy by police methods is further emphasized by the summary of facts regarding the relation of absence to non-promotion.

In a study made of non-promotions in New York a few years ago, nearly one-half of the pupils who failed of promotion were absent over two-fifths of the school term, and 70 per cent were absent from school at least 30 days during the half-year. These data, furthermore, take account only of the pupils who failed of promotion on June 30.

Important as it unquestionably is to discover and control truancy in its incipiency, it is obvious that the occasional truant is not the only problem-maker. A conservative program of attendance control must find effective means for dealing with the very large number of children who by sporadic absence for trivial causes not only lessen their own chances for making satisfactory progress in school, but, by requiring an undue amount of the attention of teachers, handicap those pupils who are regular in attendance.

3. *Saving in nervous energy of teachers and supervisors.*—That well-planned and enthusiastic teaching is facilitated by the regularity of the attendance of pupils needs no demonstration. A school organization which works smoothly naturally makes no extra draughts on the nervous energy of the teacher. But where irregularity in the attendance of the pupils is common, it is difficult to plan and difficult to execute. Where a teacher's time is divided between teaching and acting as attendance officer, energy which should be given to teaching is lost.

It was seriously proposed in one of our large cities last year that the attendance-officer force should be reduced or dispensed with, and that the teachers should, before and after school hours, investigate all absences of pupils by visits to their homes.

That a teacher should visit homes of pupils in a rural community, or even in a smaller city, is advisable. Such visits often help the teacher in knowing how to deal with certain pupils and in getting in touch with parents. But in a large cosmopolitan city, I would not ask teachers to visit homes. The disadvantages of the practice in such places are too great for the results obtained. Attendance officers should be engaged, if possible, who have both the spirit and the earnestness of the teacher and of the missionary. Such officers' visits to homes may result in as much, or possibly more, good than the visit of a teacher.

In conclusion, let me urge upon the officials of every large city-school system the importance of having an efficient bureau, both for the taking of an up-to-date school census, and for a prompt, strict, and efficient enforcement of the compulsory-education law. And let me add that, in my judgment, the time is not far distant when the large American cities will have to know, at all times, not only who the school children are, and where they are, but also who the adult residents of the city are, what their occupations are, and where they may be found. Then such cities may be able to know what percentage of their children of school age are in school.

DISCUSSION

HENRY D. HERVEY, superintendent of schools, Auburn, N. Y.—As applied to the field of education, democracy demands absolute equality of educational opportunity for all. It demands that every human being capable of being educated shall be given his fair and equal chance to attain the largest measure of self-development. We have made progress toward the realization of this ideal in the past. Schools have been made free and accessible to all. The principle that schools supported by all should meet the needs of all has been fairly well established, tho progress in the discovery of varying types to be

educated, and in the adaptation of courses and methods to meet the needs of these varying types when discovered, has been slow and is as yet far from complete. Whether the faith which the people now fondly place in the public schools will continue unshaken depends largely upon the sincerity, the vigor, and the skill with which this supreme task of discovery and adaptation is prosecuted. No greater calamity could befall the schools and the nation than to have that faith destroyed.

But the policy of free education in a democracy demands not only that there shall be a school for every child with instruction skilfully adapted to meet his individual need; it demands also and equally that every child shall be in school and in fit condition to receive and to profit by the instruction offered. A free school is a mockery to the child who is not free to enter. It is a mockery to the child who, by reason of physical or mental limitations, cannot assimilate what is taught. The democratic ideal demands a school offering to each what is best for each, with freedom for each to take what is offered. With increasing energy, intelligence, and efficiency, the majority of the states have protected each child in his right to attend the school—the majority of the states, but not all; hence the Keating-Owen bill.

What justification or necessity is there for this bill? The Keating-Owen bill is based on the belief that self-preservation is the first law of a nation; that good citizens are necessary to the welfare, to the very life, of the state; that good citizens are as necessary in one section of the nation as in another; that good citizens can be produced only thru education; that child labor interferes with education, spoils the future citizen in the making, rendering him alike unfit for full productive efficiency in his maturer years and for future education; that the children of the nation have as much right to protection in one section of the nation as in another; that the nation has no right to permit the wanton waste of the physical and mental capital of the coming generation in any part of its domain; that the prerequisite and fundamental condition of all preparedness is intelligent citizenship; that Macaulay was right when over sixty years ago, speaking in the House of Parliament on the evils of child labor, he said: "If ever we are forced to yield the foremost place among commercial nations, we shall yield it to some people pre-eminently vigorous in mind and body"; that the moral law should be nationalized; that the feeling of human brotherhood is not a matter of geography; that the personal responsibility of a citizen for the rights, the welfare, and the happiness of the nation's children does not end with the boundary lines of his own state; that the enlightened and patriotic consumer who abhors child labor because he knows the cost to the child and to the state has a right to be freed from the possibility of buying unwittingly goods that bear the taint of such labor; that the manufacturer doing business in a state that protects its children should not be forced to compete with a manufacturer in a state that delivers its children over to destruction; in a word, that what affects the peace, the prosperity, the happiness, and the greatness of the nation as a whole is the supreme concern of the whole nation; that if the protection of the childhood of the nation is the supreme duty of the nation, then the nation must perform that duty in the only way open to it, namely, by national legislation along the lines indicated in the Keating-Owen bill.

Who that knows conditions as they exist in certain portions of our country today can longer doubt the wisdom, the justice, and the necessity of immediate federal legislation? If there be such a doubter, let him consider what it means in terms of physical and mental deterioration, loss of youth, loss of educational opportunity, and loss of future economic efficiency that 27,000 children between ten and fourteen years of age are at this moment working in factories; that 17,000 more between ten and sixteen years of age are working in mines; that 122,000 between ten and sixteen years of age are working in factories in states where they may work nine, ten, or eleven hours a day; that 29,000 between ten and sixteen years of age work in factories in states where they may work at night; and that hundreds of thousands more, tho working in states that have placed

enlightened child-labor laws on their statute-books, are not being sufficiently protected because of lax enforcement or non-enforcement of these laws.

A single word, in closing, with reference to the Lockwood continuing census bill now before the New York legislature. In my judgment, this bill should become law, and should serve as a model in other states, for the following reasons:

1. A continuing census is the only kind that is either serviceable or sensible. A school census that is up to date only once a year or once in four years is on a par with an attendance officer who is on the job once a week or once a month.

2. A school census as ordinarily taken by a few hungry ward heelers who are thereby rewarded for loyalty to the "grand old party" is inaccurate at best, is wasteful of public money, and is out of date before the figures can be compiled.

3. The Lockwood bill groups together the agencies that belong together—the census-taking agencies, the compulsory-attendance agencies, and the child-welfare agencies. Child-welfare work must go hand in hand with the enforcement of the compulsory-education law. Few children stay away from school from choice. Back of almost every case of chronic truancy is the enfeebled home, or the home divided against itself, or no home at all. The child is a victim not a transgressor.

4. Under this bill all these agencies are centered in the board of education and the superintendent of schools, and all employees are appointed by the board and are made directly and solely responsible to it.

5. The home is given its fair share of responsibility. The parent must report promptly to the census bureau when his child becomes of school age, when he moves from one school to another, when he goes to work; and, upon moving to another city in the state, he must report immediately the names of all children in his family under eighteen years of age.

6. The census bureau is empowered to collect data with reference to illiteracy and the enforcement of the child-labor laws and is given power to enforce these laws.

7. A parent who fails in his duty under the law may be fined and imprisoned, and a city that fails in its duty may forfeit its entire state appropriation.

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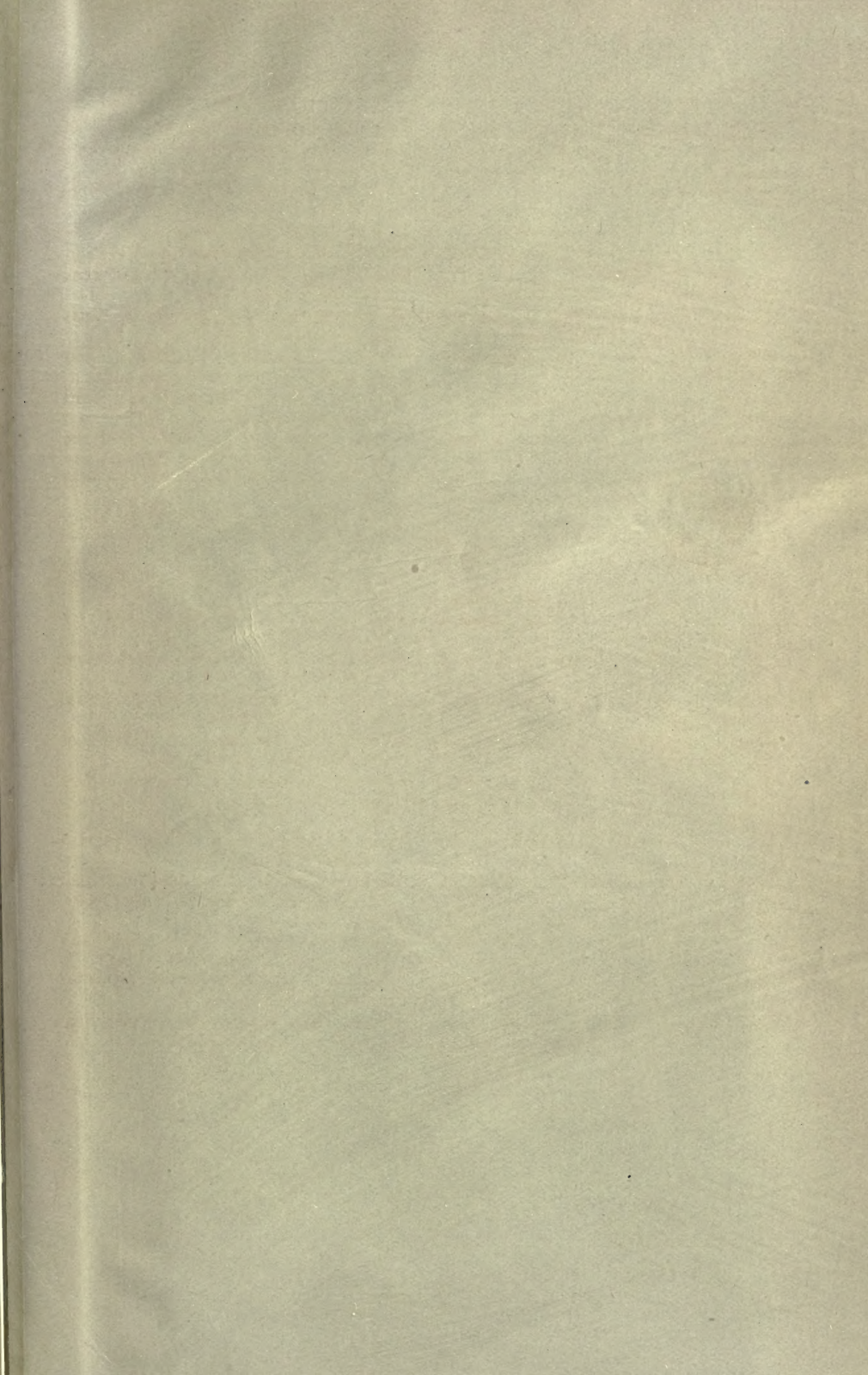
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