DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1918, No. 48

# PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE CITIES *of the* UNITED STATES

By

J. H. VAN SICKLE, JOHN WHYTE, AND
W. S. DEFFENBAUGH

[Advance sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1916-1918]


WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1919

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# PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

CONTENTS.—I. The larger cities: Introductory—Americanization—Elimination of German and the teaching of foreign languages—Junior high schools—Vocational education—The Gary School—Military training in the schools—War activities in the schools—Conclusion. II. The smaller cities: Administration—School board rules and regulations—The superintendent—The survey in school administration—Salaries and promotions of teachers—Duplicate schools—Supervised study—The war and the small city schools.

## I. THE LARGER CITIES.

By J. H. VAN SICKLE, *Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Mass.*, and JOHN WHYTE, *New York University.*

Long before America's entry into the great war, education in the larger cities, in common with every other aspect of our national life, was reacting to the great conflict across the seas. Our educational authorities were watching carefully the effects of the war upon European education, with a view to appropriating for our purposes the educationally fruitful ideas that were coming from the cataclysmic struggle in which we had as yet no part; but as the months passed and the inevitability of our being drawn into the struggle became apparent, theoretical discussion as to the wisdom of this or that educational innovation of England or France gave way to the immediate consideration of the relation of the schools to the problem of war itself, in the event of our entering it. The schools were analyzed as to their part in a great preparedness program, and every phase of educational activity was scrutinized as to its potential contribution for service to a country at war. With the entry of America into the war, the slogan for the schools became "Win the War," and the solution of all the school problems was approached from that angle, for it was soon realized that the schools had become an essential part of the very machinery of modern war. That slogan is still, after 18 months of America's participation in the war, the determining factor in any consideration of educational problems, but already the problem of reconstruction is forcing its attention on the schools with an emphasis that is sure to become more and more insistent. And rightly so, for it is very apparent that a great many of the

educational problems of a country at war are and will be the problems of a country at peace, with the exception that in war their seriousness is accentuated and their immediate solution demanded. Hence it is frequently possible—and where it is possible, it is surely the part of wisdom to act accordingly—to unite the discussion of the best educational measures for a "Win the War" policy to a discussion of the applicability of those measures to post-war programs. By so doing we shall be proceeding along the lines of the warring European nations (particularly England and France), who under the compulsion of the times have adjusted their education to war and at the same time have not neglected planning and even executing in part such a revision of their whole educational policy as will best make up for the derelictions of the past and insure the future. Unless we proceed similarly, it is likely that after the war, when our problems seem less acute, lacking the stimulus of a great catastrophe, we shall try to solve them in the same haphazard, indifferent way that has characterized our attempts at this solution in the past.

The latest example of the long look ahead toward the closer relations, commercial and otherwise, which are sure to obtain between the allied nations is furnished by France, which through the French high commission has arranged to send to the High School of Commerce, of Springfield, Mass., for an intensive course of two years in American business practice, 35 young women, about 18 years of age, who have had a preliminary education equivalent to that of a graduate of an American secondary school. These are daughters of French officers who were killed in the war. This is probably but the vanguard of a larger delegation of young women who, if the initial experiment is successful, will be sent to this and other similar institutions in this country for preparation to carry on work in French business houses. It will be necessary for them, after the war, to take the places of men who have lost their lives or been incapacitated by their injuries. The advantages of the plan, while marked on the side of commercial relations, are equally significant on the social side.

It is the wish of the members of the French high commission to have these girls made acquainted with the home life of the people of America, and to this end arrangements have been made by which they are to be taken into the homes of representative people of the city and treated not as boarders but as members of the families in which they may be placed.

It has been suggested that after the termination of the war a reciprocal arrangement may be made for the exchange of pupils between France and this country, and this may prove to be one of the factors that will bind together more firmly than ever the people of these two Republics.

## AMERICANIZATION.

In the category of problems that has been thrown into especial prominence by the war, but whose solution belongs not only to war but to the future, is the great problem of the Americanization of the immigrant. Before the war it was a problem that engaged strenuous efforts only on the part of welfare and settlement workers and sociologists and remained in the eyes of a great many educators a more or less academic sentimental issue. To be sure, some provision had been made for certain aspects of the solution of the problem, e. g., for the teaching of English; and some States, such as Massachusetts, had even demanded compulsory attendance at evening school of minors of 16 to 21 who could not read and write up to the fourth-grade standard; but the enforcement of such laws was dependent upon the maintenance of evening schools by the towns and cities of the States, and far too few provided adequate facilities and financial support for such apparently extra curricula and irrelevant matter. But with the war came the sudden realization of the vital importance of the immigrant as a factor in the winning of the war. The revelation of the 1910 census that there were 5,516,316 people in the United States who could not read or write had evoked little comment and a few adequate remedial measures, but the fact that, of approximately 10,000,000 registrants for the selective draft, 700,000 could not sign their names aroused even the most apathetic to the serious impairment of our military efficiency revealed by such figures. With 1 out of 13 unable to respond intelligently to military or industrial orders on the one hand, and moral and spiritual appeals on the other, all because of lack of a common medium, the necessity for immediate action on the part of the schools became a matter of national importance. Additional facilities for Americanization were speedily provided, and the teaching of English to the immigrant as the first step in Americanization engaged the serious attention of school authorities all over the country.

## THE IMMIGRANT AND THE NIGHT SCHOOLS.

There is a tendency to blame the immigrant for his failure to learn the language of his new country. But, as a general rule, his failure can be attributed less to his lack of desire than to his lack of opportunity. The opportunity must be given him in every community by ample provision for night schools that shall be looked upon as an integral part of the functions of the schools of America. Up to the present the night school has been treated as a foster-child, maltreated and even disinherited when the budget required. If the wisely conceived plan of the National Committee on Illiteracy is

to be realized, i. e., the utilization of all the school machinery of the country in the teaching of the foreign illiterate, the administrative wisdom of educational authorities will be taxed as never before to solve the pedagogical and financial problems that will come from this broadening of the school's functions.

## THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO THE IMMIGRANT.

The fallacy that teaching English to foreigners is a simple, secondary matter, and may be safely entrusted to any who can be found to accept the pittance allowed such instruction, needs apparently to be demonstrated, for the policy of most night-school instruction in English rests upon this fallacy. It is time that educators realized that English for the foreigner is a foreign language and that the giving of instruction in foreign languages in our educational scheme has always presupposed a certain technique of instruction and a certain minimum at least of preparation and specialization.

## ENGLISH AND THE PROBLEM OF AMERICANIZATION.

The selection, preparation, and organization of night-school teachers ought therefore to engage the most serious attention of school administrators, and particularly, because it is through the foreign language English in this instance, that the immigrant's first introduction to the customs, thoughts, and ideals of the new country may come. The night-school instructor becomes, nolens volens, the interpreter of America to the newcomer—the mediator between the old and the new. To mediate effectively he should incarnate the best of his country and be able to approach the foreigner sympathetically. He should realize that he is one of the instruments that is trying to effect the blending of all the racial elements—the Slav, the Teuton, the Celt, the Anglo-Saxon—into a distinct racial cultural entity. That blending can not be commanded. Under the stress of war and under the compelling idealism of a Wilson, a "War Americanization" has taken place. The whole country has supported unitedly the compulsory service act and has given almost unwavering support to the policies of its President.

And the great struggle of all the races in a common cause will surely have constituted, when the war is over, a great step in that Americanization and democratization that all have desired. But with the conclusion of peace there will be lacking the urgent appeal for Americanization that the war has brought with it. The necessity will still exist, and it is even possible that, with the recrudescence of an intensified national feeling everywhere and the awakening of new nations from the suppressed national groups of Europe,

the nationalistic feelings of the foreign groups in America may be intensified and provide added difficulties to the process of assimilation. It is for the educators of the country to realize the importance of Americanization not only as a war program but as a peace program, and always as a problem for whose solution specialists on immigration, social welfare, and settlement work should be invoked.

## DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAY OF AMERICANIZATION.

The insistence on English as a prerequisite to Americanization is one thing, but the sudden and radical suppression of all foreign languages by city or State command is another, and is likely to defeat the very ends that are sought for. Presenting American ideals and customs is one thing, but attempting to *command* immediate and utter forgetfulness of the old country is another, and perhaps the very way to insure in this country unassimilable foreign groups after the model of those existing in such countries as Austria, Hungary, Russia, and Germany where repression has marked the treatment of alien groups. The normal course of Americanization in many parts of the country with respect to English has so far been from the uni-lingualism of the immigrant to the bilingualism of the second generation, to the uni-lingualism (English) of the third generation. Whenever the process is slower, there is the likelihood that there is maintaining itself a distinct racial unit that may be holding too vigorously to all of its foreign habits and customs. Such a state of affairs demands the attention of immigrant and welfare experts. An analysis may prove that a great deal of responsibility for it may rest on the American of older generations who by his indifference and social exclusiveness has thwarted the initial impulses toward Americanization. It is difficult to see, however, how this normal process can be greatly accelerated without detriment to the immigrant and to his new country. Competent observers have remarked the deterioration that is evident in that immigrant who has contemptuously stripped himself overnight of all the customs and habits of his old country, for in their stead he has too frequently appropriated a shoddy Americanism of the streets. The problem that confronts those who would deal intelligently with the immigrant is how to transmute the real value that the foreigner brings with him into the new Americanism. The common assumption that the foreigner has nothing to lose and everything to gain in the transition; that he has nothing of himself, his background, his country to give in exchange for what he receives, makes both him and the new country the losers. The spirit of Americans of older stock should be that so well expressed by the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Lane, in his opening address at the National Conference on Americanization (Apr. 3, 1918). The keynote of the conference, "Our Responsibility,"

was struck in this address. His frank recognition of the seriousness of the problem, his assumption for the shoulders of the older Americans of their great responsibility in its solution, and the sympathetic spirit with which he meets the immigrant need to become the common possession of those school authorities into whose hands are to a great degree committed the solution of the great issue. To quote:

> We are trying a great experiment in the United States. Can we gather together from all ends of the earth people of different races, creeds, conditions, and aspirations, who can be merged into one? If we can not do this, we will fail. * * *
>
> There is no such thing as an American race, excepting the Indian. We are fashioning a new people. We are doing the unprecedented thing in saying that Slav, Teuton, Celt, and the other races that make up the civilized world are capable of being blended. * * * Out of this conference should come, not a determination to make more hard the difficult way of those who do not speak or read our tongue, but a determination to deal in a catholic and sympathetic spirit with those who can be led to follow in the way of this Nation.

To this blending, then, the Slav, the Teuton, the Celt, the Anglo-Saxon, the Romance, and other races are to contribute. That Italian boy born with the soul of an Italian poet must contribute that poetic soul to America. If in his Americanization he loses it, both he and America have lost. That Slav with his wealth of folk song and legend must contribute that to America. It is only thus that there shall come to pass that great new America in which shall be fused the first attributes of all peoples and races. Toward the consummation of that end educators must devote their best efforts.

## ELIMINATION OF GERMAN AND THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

Under the pressure of popular feeling, the teaching of German was forbidden in thousands of communities in America. The agitation in favor of its elimination was such that few school boards or superintendents insisted on its retention. New York eliminated all beginners' classes, thus abolishing all German in three years. Philadelphia abolished it entirely. Many, but by no means all, of the larger cities of the country followed suit.

Some whole States, such as Iowa, Delaware, Montana, etc., forbade the teaching of German in all schools.

The attitude toward this question in some of the more conservative of the larger cities is illustrated by the following paragraph from the last annual report of the Portland, Oreg., schools, L. R. Alderman, superintendent:

> I have been asked repeatedly concerning the attitude the Portland schools will take regarding the teaching of German and French. Some have asked if we expect to do away with the former and increase the work in the latter.

Now, it is well known that Americans are deficient in language study. Europeans have been stimulated to understand the tongues of their near neighbors; but separated as we have been by great oceans, we have lived on without feeling the need of mastering any language save our own. But now comes the present stimulus. We are concerned as never before in our national life with events and developments in Europe. We wish to gain, for ourselves the fine literature, art, and science of the Old World. We confidently trust that a time is near at hand when all nations will be united in a compact of enduring peace; and when such a time comes we all shall need to know the languages of other nations. The boys and girls in the high school will be the leaders of the coming age. They must be prepared to meet the requirements at that time. Spanish must be learned, French must be learned, German must be learned, and learned with more enthusiasm than ever before.

The results on the education of the country can not be measured as yet. One of the immediate results was the rapid increase in the teaching of Spanish. The lack of properly equipped teachers of Spanish seemed to be no barrier; the jobless teachers of German became teachers of Spanish almost overnight. Courses were discontinued without notice and students' programs were shifted about in a demoralizing fashion. High-school students preparing for chemistry or other scientific professions, who had chosen German as an essential part of their preparation, were suddenly informed that the study of German even for such purposes was not necessary.

American educational authorities would do well at this time to consider the report presented (in 1918) by the committee appointed by the prime minister to inquire into the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain. It was a strong committee, presided over by Stanley Leathes, a civil-service commissioner and one of the editors of the Cambridge Modern History, and including several distinguished persons, such as Sir Maurice de Bunsen, late ambassador at Vienna; Dr. H. A. L. Fisher, now minister of education; Dr. Walter Leaf, the well-known banker and translator of Homer. The report emphasized the special need for foreign languages for the conditions after the war and asked for increased instruction in modern languages. It placed French at the head of the list both for cultural and commercial purposes, and German close behind it, and then Italian, Russian, and Spanish. It came "to the conclusion that it is of essential importance to the nation that the study of the German language should be not only maintained but extended." To what extent the findings and conclusions of the Leathes committee lack pertinence for American conditions is a question that ought to be answered by the same type of scientific investigation that prompted the research of the Leathes commission. It is obvious, however, that British ranking of Spanish is too low for American conditions, in view of our colonial and South American relations.

## JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

The rapid growth of junior high schools has been one of the outstanding educational developments of the years 1916–1918. Wherever a reorganization of the school system has been under contemplation, the organization of a junior high school seems to have found favor. The reasons for its favor lay somewhat, to be sure, in the fact that it seemed to involve no such violent change as would disorganize or demoralize even temporarily at least the school organization. And that is, of course, a commendable feature and has surely accelerated its introduction. But its comparatively easy incorporation into the present system contains dangers that must be avoided. It is patent that, in order to serve the ends that educators have purposed for the junior high school, it must involve a reorganization that is more than a mere numerical regrouping of the school years; it must contain and conserve above all those provisions for the educational guidance of the individual pupil in a wide, flexible, adaptable curriculum for which it was established.

It is not unlikely that five years may see its inclusion in the majority of the schools of the country. Prof. Davis, of Ann Arbor, has investigated the junior high schools in the North Central Association territory, 1917–18, and has found that about one-fourth (2,931) of the accredited schools contained the junior high school, and that one-fourth of this fourth (72) had been organized in 1917. The year 1918, Prof. Davis asserts, will show an even greater number of new junior high schools. The growth in the North Central Association has been fairly typical of the whole country.

In a plea for the reorganization of the school system of Greater New York, Mr. Somers submitted the following resolution, which was adopted by the board:

> That the board of superintendents be requested to appoint a special committee of three associate and five district superintendents to investigate and report upon the desirability and advisability of organizing our schools on the basis of a six-year elementary, a three-year intermediate, and a three-year high-school grouping.

## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

The Great War has demonstrated as nothing else could, the national need for vocationally trained men and women. In recognition of that need the Sixty-fourth Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act, which was signed by the President February 23, 1917. It provides for the promotion of vocational education; for cooperation with the States in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; for cooperation with the States in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and for the ap-

propriation of money and the regulation of its expenditure. The moneys set apart by Congress are granted on a graduated scale, beginning with $1,860,000 in 1917–18, and increasing to $7,367,000 in 1925–26, at which amount they are continued indefinitely. The amount appropriated to any State must be matched by that State, to become available. Under the impetus of the Smith-Hughes Act vocational education has taken a great leap forward. The movement in support of trade schools and continuation schools has been accelerated. It is obvious that, with the shortage of labor and building material and the constant readjustments in teaching force due to the war, the adequate introduction and trying out of vocational training on a nation-wide scale must wait for more normal times. In the meantime, investigation as to the best methods of arriving at the end desired can be carried on, for there are not lacking those who, admitting the wisdom of the Smith-Hughes Act, are fearful lest in its administration it fail to achieve the great and easily recognizable national benefits for which it was passed. The Carnegie Foundation, for example, has reached the conclusion that the Smith-Hughes Act is reproducing the history of the Morrill Act in involving the Federal Government in great expenditures of money before a sound educational policy and system of supervision have been formulated. There are some educators who, welcoming the idea of more vocational training, see the unity of the educational system threatened—class education fostered by a kind of enforced predestination of trade or profession; in other words, that type of dualism in education inaugurated that has existed in Germany and must not be incorporated into American education, just at a time when Germany is reverting to an "Einheitschule" in an attempt to correct the evils of her undemocratic class education. It would seem that the whole matter is one which wise administration can solve by a frank recognition of the dangers involved, and by a scientific endeavor to remove these dangers.

## THE GARY SCHOOL.

Vocational education after the Gary School type received a setback in New York City with the election of Mayor Hylan. Introduced as a part of a political program by Mayor Mitchell, it remained always a political issue and was continually subjected to the passion of political struggle. It was one of the chief issues in the last mayoralty campaign, and went down to defeat with its sponsor. The new school board under the new administration proceeded at once to "de-Garyize" the schools, and with the election of Mr. Ettinger as superintendent it is quite likely that the so-called Ettinger plan, with its prevocational opportunities for the seventh or eighth grades,

will be generally introduced. The Ettinger plan may, of course, lead to the junior high school or at least some compromise with it.

Advocates of the Gary School in New York City will always feel that the new system was not sufficiently tested, that four years' Garyizing of only a few schools did not provide sufficient data for its summary rejection. Opponents of the Gary school, unaffected by the political aspects of the question, can retort that the introduction of such a radical departure in such a vast organization as that of the New York schools was sure to meet with insuperable difficulties. The failure of the Gary schools in New York can as yet hardly be looked upon as an indictment of the Gary School scheme except as to its applicability to all the conditions of New York. Other communities may find in it all that Gary has found in it. Whatever may be the losses that may have come to New York through its adoption and rejection, the Gary School idea has at least served to accentuate the great import of vocational training for the whole country by the publicity that the New York experience has given it.

## MILITARY TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS.

Even before America's entry into the war the question of military training in the schools had become a much debated issue. Some States, such as New York, had by State legislation provided for military training in the schools of the State. The consensus of the opinion of educators opposed its introduction, and the committee on military training of the department of superintendence presented a report against it at the annual meeting of the superintendents in 1917. The report was adopted almost unanimously. The committee in its recommendations (1) asked for universal military training for young men 19 to 21 years of age, (2) protested against military training and military drill in the elementary or secondary schools, (3) advocated thorough compulsory physical training for boys and girls, (4) favored compulsory medical inspection, (5) encouraged outdoor camp life and camp activities, (6) placed new emphasis on patriotic and civic service as a prominent feature of an American education.

## WAR ACTIVITIES IN THE SCHOOLS.

The availability of the schools for war purposes became apparent soon after the declaration of war. The school children became volunteers in Liberty Loan drives, Red Cross drives, and in every activity in connection with the war in which they could partake effectively. It is not too little to say that they played a vital part in the material and spiritual organization of the country in support of the war. Nor was their activity confined to the school year. Thousands of boys were mobilized during the vacation months for work on the

farms, and it has been due to their efforts that the farmer has been able to meet the shortage of labor and to harvest his crops. Thus in a very direct way the schools have come to the support of the American Army in France and to the vast suffering civilian populations of the allied countries.

### CONCLUSION.

The period in which we are living is one of rapid flux and transition, and those in control of public education must so recognize it. They must be ready to meet every emergency. They must be prepared to cope with the problem of the returned, disabled soldier. Thy must keep open-minded toward all the great problems of reconstruction and the radical readjustments they may bring with them. America's experiences in the war will certainly lead her to certain new conclusions. But it is well to be reminded that European countries have a three years' start on the problems with which we must cope. We can learn from them. Educational journals are wisely opening their pages to detailed analyses of the changes that are taking place in the educational thought of Europe. If we are to remain abreast, we must even now be grappling with the same problems that have made for such radical revisions in the educational policies of the warring countries. It is only thus that we can prepare for the great reconstruction.

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## II. THE SMALLER CITIES.

(With less than 25,000 population.)

By W. S. DEFFENBAUGH,
*Specialist in City School Administration.*

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A chapter treating of progress in education for a period of one or two years must deal principally with the change in the machinery of education. It is not the purpose of this chapter to show how much better children in the small cities are being educated now than a year or two ago. The aim is to summarize changes in administrative machinery observed from correspondence with superintendents in the smaller cities, from city school reports and other publications.

Among the significant changes that may be mentioned are the enactment of a general education law for the cities of the State of New York, simplified school-board rules and regulations, a greater interest in the scientific study of educational problems, salary schedules based to a certain extent upon merit, greater attention to industrial work,

home economics, and physical training, and the use of the schools for disseminating information regarding the war.

## ADMINISTRATION.

During the past two years, few if any changes by special charter provision have been made in the manner of electing school-board members, in the number of members, or in the relation of the school board to the city council. In fact, few of the smaller city schools are now governed in any way by special charter provision. Most of the States have enacted general education laws to include the cities of the State. The State of New York is the latest to enact such a law. In that State the school systems of the several cities were operated and controlled under the provisions of nearly 250 separate acts enacted from the year 1829 down to and including the year 1915. These various laws of the legislature contained 600 pages of printed matter simply to create the necessary machinery to operate the school systems of the several cities. Many of these acts had become obsolete, many conflicting provisions were found in them, and in some cases every section of the law relating to the school system of the city had been amended, in some instances a single section having been amended a dozen or more times. Many of the provisions of these laws were mandatory in instances where the statutes should give school authorities discretionary power, and the statutes relating to the great majority of these cities so limited and restricted the functions of the local school officers that they did not have the authority to exercise many functions which a board of education should exercise in order to maintain and operate a school system in accordance with the public sentiment of the city over which it exercised jurisdiction.

The situation in the State of New York was the cause of many special bills being introduced into the legislature each year for the purpose of amending the several acts so as to give local school authorities the power to execute certain powers in relation to the local school systems which are desired by the people of the several cities. For illustration, one city went to the legislature to obtain authority, which it did not have under existing law, to submit to the voters of that city a proposition to expend $40,000 for the erection of an elementary school building. Another city which had erected a new school building and abandoned an old one did not possess the authority to sell the abandoned school property. It was necessary to go to the legislature to obtain authority for that purpose.

In order to provide better administrative machinery for the schools of the several cities of the State, the education department prepared and caused to be introduced into the legislature a bill which repealed all the special acts and substituted for the 600 pages of printed matter a law which contains about 20 pages. The bill was enacted into law during the session of the legislature in 1917.

The chief advantages claimed for this law are:

1. It is simple and clear and easily understood by those who must administer it.

2. It confers broad powers upon boards of education in the several cities of the State, so as to operate and manage their schools as the residents of the city may desire and to adjust the school organization to the necessities of new and changing conditions from year to year.

3. It gives greater powers to localities than they have ever before exercised, and it eliminates many of the useless mandatory and restrictive provisions contained in the old, complicated, and obsolete statutes.

4. It fixes responsibility upon those who manage the schools.

That the powers and duties conferred by the general education law upon city boards of education in the State of New York are broad and permit cities to expand their educational system is evident from the fact that school boards have power to prepare an annual estimate for the following purposes:

(*a*) The salary of the superintendent of schools, associate, district, or other superintendents, examiners, directors, supervisors, principals, teachers, lecturers, special instructors, auditors, medical inspectors, nurses, attendance officers, clerks, and janitors, and the salary, fees, or compensation of all other employees appointed or employed by said board of education.

(*b*) The other necessary incidental and contingent expenses, including ordinary repairs to buildings and the purchase of fuel and light, supplies, textbooks, school apparatus, books, furniture and fixtures, and other articles and service necessary for the proper maintenance, operation, and support of the schools, libraries, and other educational, social, or recreational affairs and interests under its management and direction. The provisions of this section in regard to the purchase of light shall not apply to a city having a population of 1,000,000 or more.

(*c*) The remodeling or enlarging of buildings under its control and management, the construction of new buildings for uses authorized by this chapter and the furnishing and equipment thereof, the purchase of real property for new sites, additions to present sites, playgrounds, or recreation centers and other educational or social purposes, and to meet any other indebtedness or liability incurred under the provisions of this chapter or other statutes, or any other expenses which the board of education is authorized to incur.

## SCHOOL BOARD RULES AND REGULATIONS.

The rules and regulations of a school board are not often revised, but a sufficient number of school boards have taken this action within the past few years to show that the tendency is toward fewer and more definite rules. Too many regulations seriously confuse. The teacher who manages her school with the least effort usually makes few rules. School boards can learn from the experience of teachers in this respect not to hamper the superintendent and others by making rules to cover every conceivable point.

The rules and regulations adopted by the school board at East Orange, N. J., may be given as an example of the kind that most progressive school boards are adopting. These rules are in accordance with two interesting principles of school administration: (1) Legislative action by the school board as a whole; (2) centralization of executive authority in the superintendent.

Article II of the rules and regulations of that city, which treats of the organization of the school system, and Article III, relating to the duties of the executive officer, are quoted as a type of the kind of rules that school boards in the smaller cities could well adopt:

### ARTICLE II. ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

SECTION 1. *Departments and Their Functions.* There shall be three departments, to be known as the Department of Instruction, the Department of Records and Finance, and the Department of Buildings and Grounds.

*Instruction.* The department of instruction shall comprise all the activities that directly affect the welfare of the pupils, such as teaching, discipline, attendance, and medical inspection. The superintendent of schools shall have charge of this department.

The department of records and finance shall comprise the more strictly business activities of the board, such as keeping records, the making of contracts, purchases, and the custody and expenditure of funds. The secretary of the board shall have charge of this department.

***Buildings and Grounds.*** The department of buildings and grounds shall be responsible for the physical upkeep of the school property, including repairs, renovation, and new construction. The supervisor of buildings and grounds shall have charge of this department.

### ARTICLE III. EXECUTIVE OFFICERS AND DUTIES.

SECTION 1. *Superintendent of Schools.* The superintendent of schools shall, under the direction of the board of education, and in accordance with its rules and regulations, have the general management of the school system.

*Duties.* He shall, unless excused by the board, attend all regular and special meetings of the board of education, and of committees, and shall have a right to speak, but not to vote.

All communications to the board from principals, supervisors, teachers, or other employees shall be submitted through the superintendent of schools. Communications from teachers shall also be first submitted to their respective principals. All such communications shall be referred to the board at the next regular meeting by the superintendent with or without recommendations. But nothing in this paragraph shall be construed as denying the right to appeal to the board of any member of the school system.

The superintendent shall recommend to the board for appointment principals, supervisors, teachers, and others to be engaged in the work of instruction or discipline, also school doctors, nurses, and attendance officers. With the advice of the supervisor of buildings and grounds, he shall also recommend for appointment engineers, janitors, mechanics, and other assistants. In the same manner he may recommend the removal of any employees whose services are no longer required. All recommendations provided for in this section shall be made in writing, excepting in the case of substitutes for temporary periods, where no action by the board is necessary.

The superintendent shall assign principals, teachers, and others employed in the department of instruction to their duties, and make necessary transfers, reporting such action to the board at the next regular meeting.

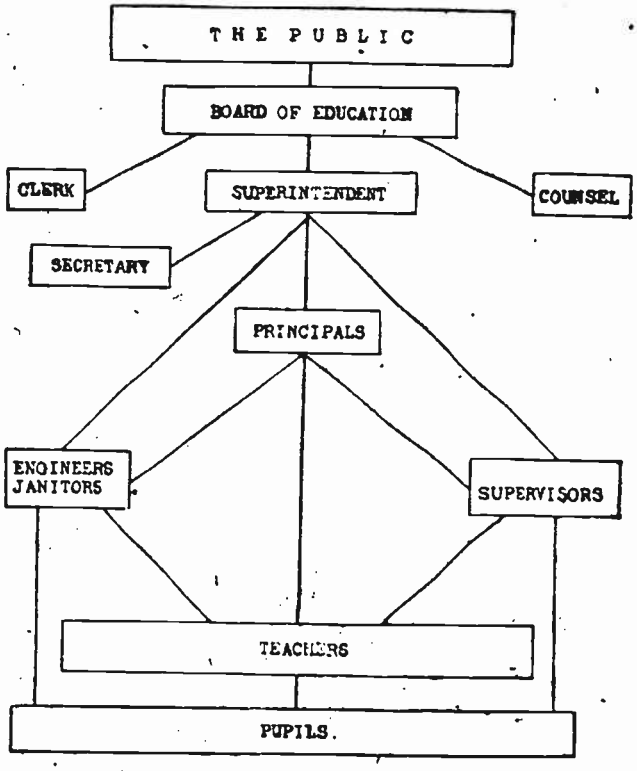
He shall, with the cooperation of principals and supervisors, plan courses of study, time schedules, etc., for all departments, and supervise their operation; but he shall submit to the board for its approval any important changes which call for a radical departure from accepted policies, or which require increased expenditure of money.

With the cooperation of principals and supervisors, the superintendent shall recommend appropriate text and reference books, school supplies, apparatus, and furniture for the use of the schools, and shall submit such recommendations to the board for its approval.

He shall prepare the annual budget before April 1 and submit it to the board at the next regular meeting.

He shall submit a report to the board in writing at least once a month, with recommendations for action. This report shall be mailed to each member of the board at least 48 hours before the board meeting, and any further particulars may be submitted in writing at the meeting. He shall prepare a general report on the condition of the public schools at the close of the school year. He shall prepare and submit to the board any special reports which may be required. He shall attend to all other necessary details of administration, and shall faithfully perform such other duties as may be required of him by the board of education or the laws of the State of New Jersey.

Huron, S. Dak., and Mansfield, Mass., may be given as examples of other cities that have simplified the administrative machinery of their school systems. The following chart shows the plan of the organization of the school system of Huron:



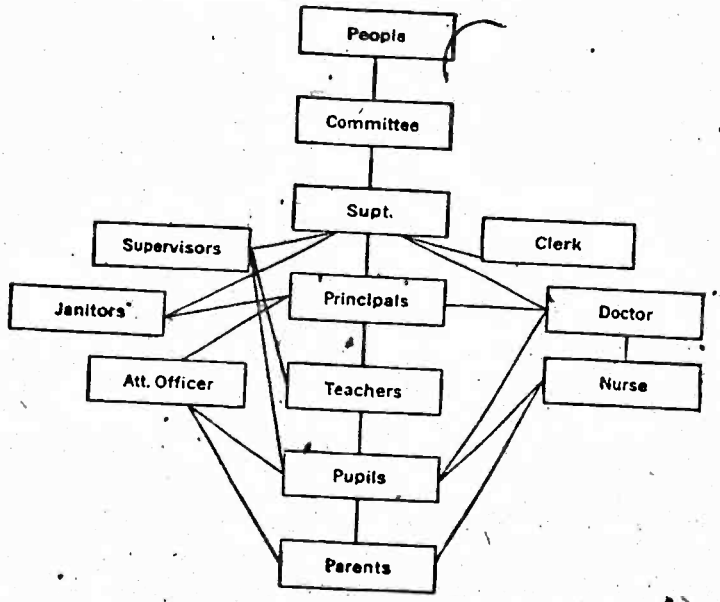

HURON PLAN OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

By this plan the board of education legislates, the superintendent executes, the board acts as a whole without standing committees. The board of education holds the superintendent responsible for an efficient execution of its orders. This reponsibility is distributed by the superintendent to all members of his staff, the principals having the responsibility of the first degree next to the superintendent. Within his or her particular field of activity, the superintendent holds each of his staff responsible for effective results, the only way by which to secure them.

With the delegation of responsibility, there must go commensurate authority. The superintendent must uphold the authority of each member of his staff within his or her field of responsibility. Pupils are amenable to the management of their teachers and of special supervisors, and at times to that of janitors and engineers. The teachers work under their principals and cooperate with the janitors. The principals, janitors, and supervisors cooperate directly with the superintendent, who is the means of communication between all members of his staff and the board of education.

The school board at Mansfield, Mass., may also be mentioned as having simplified the organization of its school system. The superintendent has been made secretary of the school board, thus centering the executive work under one head. This makes the superintendent responsible for the bookkeeping, purchasing, correspondence, records, and other clerical matters, as well as for the administration and supervision of instruction. The making of the superintendent the secretary of the school board in a small city should always carry with it sufficient clerical assistance to relieve him of details.

The organization of the school system at Mansfield in relation to the community may be pictured as follows:




It will be noted that—(1) the board is responsible to the town for the control of the schools; (2) the superintendent is responsible to the board for the expert management of the schools; (3) the principals are responsible to the superintendent for buildings, teachers, pupils, and janitors; (4) teachers and janitors are responsible to the superintendent and principal.

In the three cities just cited as examples of those that have reorganized the administrative machinery of their schools all standing committees have been abolished. School boards as a rule are reducing the number of such committees or discontinuing them altogether. The plan of having many committees originated with many school boards when they were larger than they now are. As a rule the larger boards have more committees than the small boards.

Though the size of school boards has been reduced by legal enactment this evil of many standing committees, characteristic of the large board, persists in not a few cities. These have hung on as a sort of vermiform appendix, having no useful function and often causing internal trouble. In not a few of the smaller cities there are still as many standing committees as there are board members, it not being uncommon for each member to hold a chairmanship, which is about the only excuse for the existence of many of the committees, since there is nothing in particular for them to do. In the absence of a genuine need, too frequently they take upon themselves duties that belong to the professional experts employed by the school board. On the other hand, if the board acts as a whole, responsibility can be placed on each member and not on an elusive committee; all business, not part of it, is considered by the entire board and all members must be intimately familiar with every phase of it. Such an arrangement insures better correlations and more harmonious expenditures, expedites business, and avoids the shifting of responsibility. One argument sometimes advanced in favor of committees is that they can meet and go over the work assigned them without having it discussed openly in board meeting. The argument that school business should be transacted through committees so as not to attract the attention of the public is not valid in a democracy. The school board represents the people who should be kept informed of the disposition of all school matters that affect the general public. There are times, it is true, when it is necessary for the school board or a special committee to discuss in private matters in which only individuals are interested. The school boards that have reduced the number of their standing committees, or, better, that have abolished them, have without doubt taken a step forward in the efficient administration of their schools.

## THE SUPERINTENDENT.

School board rules and State legislation have gradually recognized the importance of the office of city superintendent of schools. The qualifications for the office have been raised and more power granted the superintendent. For example, the recently enacted general education law of the State of New York takes cognizance of the city superintendent, setting forth the qualifications for a city superintendent in that State and his powers and duties. A provision of the law is that in all cities except in those of the first class a superintendent shall serve at the pleasure of the board." This is an unusual provision. The argument for such provision is that if a superintendent is to be the executive officer of the school board, he should be requested to resign at any time he can not or does not carry out the

plans of the board, and that it means a longer tenure for the majority of superintendents. When superintendents are elected for a term of two or three years and are required to come up for reelection, all the enemies he has made concentrate their forces upon the school board. The expiration of a superintendent's term is a signal for them to act. If he serves at the pleasure of the board, there is no one time when opposition is invited.

The standard for the office of city superintendent is placed by the recently enacted general education law of the State of New York on a higher basis than in most other States. He must be—

1. A graduate of a college or university approved by the University of the State of New York, and have had at least five years' successful experience in the teaching or in the supervision of public schools since graduation; or

2. A holder of a superintendent's certificate issued by the commissioner of education under regulations prescribed by the regents of the University of the State of New York, and have had at least 10 years' successful experience in teaching, or in public-school administration, or equivalent educational experience approved by the commissioner of education.

The superintendent of city schools in the State of New York shall possess, subject to the by-laws of the board of education, the following powers and be charged with the following duties:

1. To enforce all provisions of law and all rules and regulations relating to the management of the schools and other educational, social, and recreational activities under the direction of the board of education, to be the chief executive officer of such board and educational system, and to have a seat in the board of education and the right to speak in all matters before the board, but not to vote.

2. To prepare the content of each course of study authorized by the board of education.

3. To recommend suitable lists of textbooks to be used in the schools.

4. To have supervision and direction of associate, district, and other superintendents, directors, supervisors, principals, teachers, lecturers, medical inspectors, nurses, auditors, attendance officers, janitors, and other persons employed in the management of the schools or the other educational activities of the city, under the direction and management of the board of education, to transfer teachers from one school, or from one grade of the course of study to another grade, and to report immediately such transfers to the board for its consideration and action; to report to the board of education violations of regulations and cases of insubordination, and to suspend any employee until the next regular meeting of the board, when all the facts relating to the case shall be submitted to the board for its consideration and action.

5. To have supervision and direction over the enforcement and observance of courses of study, the examination and promotion of pupils, and over all other matters pertaining to playgrounds, medical inspection, recreation, and social center work, libraries, lectures, and all other educational activities and interests under the management, direction, and control of the board of education.

6. To issue such licenses to teachers, principals, directors, and other members of the teaching and supervisory staff as may be required by the board of edu-

cation in cities in which the board requires its teachers to hold qualifications in addition to or in advance of the minimum qualifications prescribed by law.

Whether or not the powers and duties of city superintendents should be definitely defined by general State law is still a question. The school law should, however, define the more important duties of the superintendent, as does the general education law of the State of New York.

In those States where the school law does not define the powers and duties of the city superintendent of schools, school boards have within the past few years accorded him many of the prerogatives that belong to an executive officer. They have made the office a more dignified one, calling for men with executive as well as with teaching ability.

For this reason a new type of superintendent is coming to the front. Instead of the mere pedagogue, out of touch with the world, there is the practical, scientific administrator who is able to show what the schools are accomplishing. He can show the public how the school funds have been expended. He has developed school accounting so as to indicate with definiteness the purpose for which all money is spent in terms of the particular service secured, and also with respect to the particular division, school, or subject taught. Not until within the past few years did school boards, or, indeed, any individual in the smaller cities, know how school funds were expended. Money was appropriated on a "hit-or-miss" plan. The high-school expenses might be costing four or five times as much per pupil as the elementary grades. The cost of heating 1,000 cubic feet in one building might be several times as much as for another building. Latin might be costing 25 cents per pupil recitation and other subjects only 5 or 6 cents. No one knew. There was no attempt made to find out where every cent of the funds went. There was no attempt at detailed budget making. Now all progressive school boards and superintendents can trace every dollar from the time it leaves the taxpayer until it is expended for the object intended. It is true that in the smaller cities the number of such boards having this information is not large; but it is becoming larger each year.

The new type of superintendent has also learned to show more definitely what children have achieved. He is using more exact measurements, especially for the formal subjects. His annual reports have been much improved, being no longer abstract treatises or a mass of uninterpreted facts. The frankness with which many of the superintendents in the smaller cities set forth conditions is an indication for the better that has come about in the administration of the small city school. For instance, the whole situation regarding the progress of pupils through the grades, the school attendance, and achievement of pupils measured by well-known standards are presented, and recommendations made on the basis of fact.

## THE SURVEY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

In this connection mention should be made of the improvement of school administration in the small city through the influence of the school survey. Though the immediate results where surveys have been made have not always been all that could be desired, they have, on the whole, been helpful to school administrators. They have at least shown a method of attacking educational problems and they have aroused greater interest in school administration, especially in the approach from the fact side.

Among the small city schools that have been surveyed during the past two years are Brookline, Mass., Elyria, Ohio, Janesville, Wis., Winston-Salem, N. C., and all the cities of Arizona and South Dakota in connection with State-wide surveys.[1]

Besides the general surveys, there have been surveys of specific phases of school work. At Fort Dodge, Iowa, a survey was made to discover the chief reasons why so many boys leave the schools of the city before completing the course; in what grades the greatest number of boys drop out; what they do after leaving school; what their earning capacity is; and what readjustments should be made in the courses of study to make them meet the needs of the boys of the community.

At Virginia, Minn., a study was undertaken to determine what is required of boys and girls who seek employment after leaving school. The survey covered not only the trades, such as machinists, plumbers, etc., but all work which requires the employment of men and women, boys and girls. The information for the survey was collected from three sources: (1) Industrial surveys made in various parts of the country; (2) reports and expenses of institutions, both private and public, working along the lines of industrial education; and (3) a survey of the local industries.

As a result of the survey the school board adopted the plan of giving students in the junior high school general work in the various departments of vocational training, work which would be practically the same as that offered under the head of manual training. During this period every effort is to be made to assist the students who are following vocational work to decide which of the courses offered they are best fitted to follow. The senior high school is to be used as the time to specialize in this course or trade, so that at the end of the high-school course the graduate will have had four years of work in the trade which he has selected to follow. It is not the expectation of the school board in adopting this plan that after four years of work in the senior high school the graduate will be a finished

[1] For a discussion of the reports of these surveys, see the chapter on educational surveys, reprinted as Bulletin, 1918, No. 40.

tradesman but that he will simply have made a very good start toward the mastery of his trade.

The survey committee recommended: That the work in the industrial department, both for boys and girls, be made practical; that it be suited to the needs of the industries in the community; that a certain amount of commercial work be brought into the shops; and that experienced men be employed from the industries to teach shopwork. The committee was of the opinion that, while the greater part of the instructors should be experienced workers, it must not lose sight of the fact that teaching others is a profession, and that a few trained teachers should be employed to systematize at least the elementary work of the student and give him a well-rounded education.

The survey, according to the report of the committee, developed the fact very clearly that something has been lacking in the school system. The employers of labor, upon first approach, were skeptical about what the school could do to better conditions in the industries and to train boys to take their places in the industries. They seemed to question the possibility that work of this practical character could be introduced into the schools, but after the committee explained that experienced workers would be employed as instructors and that the employers would be called upon to visit, criticize the work, and give suggestions, they all agreed that the committee was upon the right track, and that this matter should have been considered and put into effect long ago. The fact was also brought out that the students in the community lacked the quality of stick-to-it-ive-ness, and that they overestimated the value and ability of themselves. The employers suggested that it was high time that the school and the community cooperate in bringing about a better spirit toward the work. The survey committee continued its report by making recommendations regarding the work to be done in the schools in respect to the industries of the community.

As a result of the surveys made by persons not connected with the schools surveyed, more superintendents are surveying their own schools. If the outside survey has accomplished nothing more than to cause school men to study their own schools, it has been worth while. Whether surveys by persons outside the school system will continue is a question. One thing is certain—there will be more self-surveys. Superintendents surveying their own schools may call in some one as consulting specialist to help them interpret the facts.

The better type of school report that some superintendents are preparing is evidence that they are analyzing conditions more carefully than before, and that in effect they are surveying their own

schools. There is no reason why a superintendent can not make an exhaustive study of his school system, especially if he has had college courses in school administration and management. He is on the ground all the time and should know conditions better than any one else. The statistical data that the surveyor collects often after much labor should be in the superintendent's office at all times. It should not be necessary for an outside surveyor to spend a week or more collecting data regarding school attendance, progress of pupils through the grades, education and experience of teachers, etc. These should be on file. A superintendent can measure the achievement of pupils by means of standard tests as well as any one else. He has access to the scores made by pupils in other cities and can easily make comparisons and draw conclusions. In the matter of finance he can show unit costs and make interesting comparisons just as effectively as can any one brought in from outside the school system.

Among the late school reports that may be classed as instructive self-surveys are those of Southington, Conn.; Huron, S. Dak.; Globe, Ariz.; Anderson, Ind.; Bristol, Va.; Lawrence, Kans.; and Kane, Pa.

The 1916–17 report of the schools at Huron, S. Dak., discusses organization and administration, physical environment, teaching force, pupil accounting, quality of instruction, pupil achievement, schools costs. The report contains 35 statistical tables and 39 charts to illustrate relation of attendance to enrollment, preparation of teachers, grade distribution, etc.

The superintendent of schools at Lawrence, Kans., in his report for 1916–17, asks and answers 90 questions regarding the schools of that city. Among the questions asked and answered are:

In what proportion does Lawrence apportion school money among the several expense items?
What do these figures show?
What probable future demands will these several items make upon Lawrence?
What changes will this necessitate in the Lawrence budget?
How does the high cost of living affect the schools?
How many children failed of promotion?
How many children skipped a grade?
In what subjects do children make the most failures?
Is Lawrence peculiar in this respect?
What do we know of failures for all the children?
What is the retardation in each building?
Have we any basis of comparison in the matter?
What does the comparison show?
What has been done to improve the situation?

The report thus continues to answer questions that any searching investigator would ask, and which the school patron would wish to know.

## SALARIES AND PROMOTIONS OF TEACHERS.

Until within the past two years the educational and professional standards for teachers had been raised slowly until most of the smaller cities required applicants for teaching positions to be high-school graduates with an additional year or two of professional training, or in lieu of such training a year or two of successful experience. In not a few cities the standard has been difficult to maintain, owing to the fact that many teachers have recently left the profession to accept more lucrative positions with the National Government or with private corporations. In many of the schools in smaller cities it is not unusual for a teacher to receive a salary of less than $600 a year. Since positions elsewhere, paying $1,000 or $1,200 a year, were easily obtained, the teaching corps in many of the smaller cities has been almost depleted of its experienced teachers. As a result those less experienced and less well prepared have to be employed. Many married women who taught school 10 or 15 years ago have returned to the classroom. The plan of employing married women who have taught school is to be preferred to that of employing girls just out of high school, from the fact that the married women, though they may not have completed a high or normal school course, have a broader view of life and know children much more intimately. In order that those who formerly taught and who are again taking up teaching may know something of recent developments in educational methods, a superintendent should hold numerous conferences to assist these teachers in gaining the newer point of view in educational methods. As many as possible should be induced to attend summer schools for teachers.

If school boards had increased salaries in proportion to the increase in living expense, there would in all probability not now be such a shortage of teachers. Some, however, would have left the profession, thinking that they could render better service for their country in other lines of work.

In order to keep the schools running some school boards have given teachers bonuses of from $50 to $100 a year. Others have granted salary increases ranging from 5 to 35 per cent, the usual increase being only 10 per cent. Salaries in other professions or occupations have increased much more. Although the cost of living has more than trebled, teachers' salaries have remained almost stationary. The schools in many of the smaller cities can not help but suffer because teachers resign to accept more lucrative positions. Resignations of teachers were all too common before the war, few teachers remaining in a city more than five years. Conditions have been going from bad to worse. There is but one way to check this general movement away from the profession—salaries commensurate with the preparation re-

quired and with the exacting demands made upon a teacher's time must be paid. The increase in salary should be at least 40 per cent over the salary paid two years ago. Increases of 5 and 10 per cent have little or no effect in holding teachers who have been offered positions at twice their present salary.

In determining a salary schedule the following principles should be recognized:

1. The teacher at the very least should receive a living wage. This should include enough to allow her to improve herself professionally and to save something each year in anticipation of the time when she must retire from active schoolroom service.

2. The maximum salary should be sufficient to retain the service of the most desirable teachers.

3. In the administration of a salary schedule, superior work should be recognized.

In many of the school systems where merit is a factor in the promotion of teachers, superintendents have devised various plans for grading teachers. Of 780 superintendents reporting, 115 have formulated schemes for grading teachers. Whether such rating plans can be carried out successfully is a question, especially if the rating scheme is a detailed one. If a teacher is to be promoted upon merit, she should know what standards the superintendent has in mind, so that she may attempt to attain them. It is not possible to give examples of all the many standards in use, but a few are presented to show what superintendents and others are attempting to do to develop subjective standards for the testing of teachers. In some of the schemes which enumerate qualities or elements of good instruction the idea is that the qualities enumerated may serve as a basis for self-criticism and self-improvement on the part of the teacher. For instance, the superintendent of schools at Kalispell, Mont., who has prepared a teacher-rating plan, wisely says:

> With these standards as a suggestion, teachers need not wait to have weaknesses pointed out to them. Let no one understand that instruction and teaching ability will be judged solely or chiefly on the basis of the factors enumerated. The best part of the teaching process is what has been called "unconscious tuition." The habits the teacher is instilling, the taste she is cultivating, and the appeals she is making to the feeling and the volition of the child are more important than any of these elements. We are more concerned with what the children do than with what the child knows.

The following test is to be used by the teachers themselves to see that they are not overlooking some of the elements of success:

I. *Results.*
- (*a*) Development of pupils.
- (*b*) Growth in subject matter.
- (*c*) Attention.
- (*d*) Responsiveness of class.

II. *Technique in teaching.*
- (*a*) Organization of subject matter.
- (*b*) Choice of subject matter.
- (*c*) Skill in teaching how to study.

II. *Technique in teaching*—Contd.
(*d*) Skill in stimulating thought.
(*e*) Definiteness and clearness of aim.
(*f*) Skill and care in assignment.
III. *School management.*
(*a*) General care of room, blackboards, window shades, waste baskets, floors, etc.
(*b*) Ventilation.
(*c*) Care of wraps and wardrobes.
(*d*) Care of books and supplies.
(*e*) Care of desks (teacher's and pupils').
IV. *Professional equipment.*
(*a*) Understanding children.
(*b*) Use of English.
(*c*) Interest in the work.
(*d*) Manner of reacting on suggestions.
(*e*) Manner of receiving criticisms.
IV. *Professional equipment*—Contd.
(*f*) Loyalty to other teachers and school authorities.
(*g*) Manner of keeping records.
(*h*) Times tardy during the year.
(*i*) Days absent during the year.
V. *Personal equipment.*
(*a*) Health.
(*b*) Voice.
(*c*) Tact.
(*d*) Sympathy.
(*e*) Evenness of temper.
(*f*) Dignity.
(*g*) Personal neatness (dress, etc.).
(*h*) Cheerfulness.
(*i*) Orderliness.
(*j*) Winsomeness; appeal to children.
(*k*) Posture.

To receive promotion in the Kalispell schools beyond $960 a year a teacher must show marked success. All advancement in salary is upon the recommendation of the superintendent, confirmed by the board of education, which recommendation is conditional on ability to teach, professional spirit, attitude toward the school and the children, spirit of growth, and desire to excel.

At Marblehead, Mass., the teachers are classified by the supervisors and superintendent into five groups, on the basis of the quality of service they have rendered: 1. Those whose work is of so poor a quality that they should be dismissed from the service. 2. New teachers whose work has been unsatisfactory, but who show sufficient promise of growth and improvement to justify further trial. 3. Those who show litle, if any, improvement over the work of previous years. 4. Those who are strong teachers and do uniformly good work; who measure up well in all departments and show improvement from year to year. 5. Exceptional teachers whose work is superior; who possess unusual skill in teaching and show a large measure of initiative, resourcefulness, and power in stimulating pupils to achieve the most worth-while of the results that the school seeks to accomplish.

The school board of Ann Arbor, Mich., has prepared a salary schedule to supplement the regular one. After attaining the maximum salary allowed by the schedule, each teacher's salary is to be final for triennial periods. An increase of $100 above the maximum may be received the second triennial period by meeting, during the first period, the requirements of any one of the following plans:

PLAN I.

(*a*) Attendance on at least one annual session of some national educational organization meeting outside of Michigan.

(*b*) Attendance on at least one annual session of the Michigan State Teachers' Association meeting outside of Ann Arbor.

(*c*) Subscription for and reading of two educational periodicals, one of which shall not be devoted especially to the subject or grade taught by the teacher.

(*d*) Making reports on the meetings attended and the periodicals read as may be required by the executive committee and the superintendent of schools.

PLAN II.

(*a*) Gaining eight hours' credit for regular work in any university, college, or normal school, half of which shall not be in subjects or grades regularly taught by the teacher.

(*b*) Subscription for and reading of two educational periodicals, one of which shall not be devoted especially to the subject or grade taught by the teacher, and making reports thereon.

PLAN III.

(*a*) Spending two months in foreign travel and reporting as may be required by the executive committee and the superintendent of schools.

(*b*) Subscription for and reading of two educational periodicals, one of which shall not be devoted especially to the subject or grade taught by the teacher, and making reports thereon.

PLAN IV.

(*a*) Maintaining during the period a definite line of study that, in the judgment of the executive committee and the superintendent of schools, is equivalent to eight hours of university, college, or normal school work.

(*b*) Subscription for and reading of two educational periodicals, one of which shall not be devoted especially to the subject or grade taught by the teacher, and making reports thereon.

Any teacher who has gained the first increase of $100 may for the ensuing period gain an increase of $100 more by meeting the requirements of one of the foregoing plans other than the one by which the first increase was gained; but only two such increases shall be possible.

Failure to meet the requirements of some one of these plans during a triennial period will cause the loss of $100 per year in salary if an increase has already been gained.

Each applicant for increase beyond the maximum of the schedule must notify the superintendent of schools in writing, at the beginning of the school year, of the intention to seek an increase and state which of the plans has been chosen.

In the inauguration of this plan, any teacher who has taught three years or more at the maximum salary and has, during the past three years, met the requirements of any one of these plans, except as to reports, may receive the first increase during the current year, and any teacher who has taught two years or more may receive the first increase for the year after that in which the requirements of any one of the preceding plans have been met.

The following efficiency record, prepared by the department of education of the University of Chicago, is in use in some of the schools reporting the use of subjective standards:

EFFICIENCY RECORD.

| DETAILED RATING | V. P. | Poor. | Medium. | Good. | Ex. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I. *Personal equipment*— | | | | | |
| 1. General appearance | | | | | |
| 2. Health | | | | | |
| 3. Voice | | | | | |
| 4. Intellectual capacity | | | | | |
| 5. Initiative and self-reliance | | | | | |
| 6. Adaptability and resourcefulness | | | | | |
| 7. Accuracy | | | | | |
| 8. Industry | | | | | |
| 9. Enthusiasm and optimism | | | | | |
| 10. Integrity and sincerity | | | | | |
| 11. Self-control | | | | | |
| 12. Promptness | | | | | |
| 13. Tact | | | | | |
| 14. Sense of justice | | | | | |
| II. *Social and professional equipment*— | | | | | |
| 15. Academic preparation | | | | | |
| 16. Professional preparation | | | | | |
| 17. Grasp of subject matter | | | | | |
| 18. Understanding of children | | | | | |
| 19. Interest in the life of the school | | | | | |
| 20. Interest in the life of the community | | | | | |
| 21. Ability to meet and interest patrons | | | | | |
| 22. Interest in lives of pupils | | | | | |
| 23. Cooperation and loyalty | | | | | |
| 24. Professional interest and growth | | | | | |
| 25. Daily preparation | | | | | |
| 26. Use of English | | | | | |
| III. *School management*— | | | | | |
| 27. Care of light, heat, and ventilation | | | | | |
| 28. Neatness of room | | | | | |
| 29. Care of routine | | | | | |
| 30. Discipline (governing skill) | | | | | |
| IV. *Technique of teaching*— | | | | | |
| 31. Definiteness and clearness of aim | | | | | |
| 32. Skill in habit formation | | | | | |
| 33. Skill in stimulating thought | | | | | |
| 34. Skill in teaching how to study | | | | | |
| 35. Skill in questioning | | | | | |
| 36. Choice of subject matter | | | | | |
| 37. Organization of subject matter | | | | | |
| 38. Skill and care in assignment | | | | | |
| 39. Skill in motivating work | | | | | |
| 40. Attention to individual needs | | | | | |
| V. *Results*— | | | | | |
| 41. Attention and response of the class | | | | | |
| 42. Growth of pupils in subject matter | | | | | |
| 43. General development of pupils | | | | | |
| 44. Stimulation of community | | | | | |
| 45. Moral influence | | | | | |
| GENERAL RATING | | | | | |

Recorded by ..... Position ..... Date .....

## EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

I. *Personal equipment* includes physical, mental, and moral qualities.

1. *General appearance*—physique, carriage, dress, and personal neatness.
3. *Voice*—pitch, quality, clearness of schoolroom voice.
4. *Intellectual capacity*—native mental ability.
5. *Initiative and self-reliance*—independence in originating and carrying out ideas.
7. *Accuracy*—in statements, records, reports, and school work.
10. *Integrity and sincerity*—soundness of moral principles and genuineness of character.
13. *Tact*—adroitness, address, quick appreciation of the proper thing to do or say.
14. *Sense of justice*—fair-mindedness, ability to give all a "square deal."

II. *Social and professional equipment* includes qualities making the teacher better able to deal with social situations and particularly the school situation.

15. *Academic preparation*—school work other than professional. Adequacy for present work.
16. *Professional preparation*—specific training for teaching. Adequacy for present work.
17. *Grasp of subject matter*—command of the information to be taught or the skill to be developed.
18. *Understanding of children*—insight into child nature; sympathetic, scientific, and practical.
22. *Interest in lives of pupils*—desire to know and help pupils personally, outside of school subjects.
23. *Cooperation and loyalty*—attitude toward colleagues and superior officers.
24. *Professional interest and growth*—effort to keep up to date and improve.
26. *Use of English*—vocabulary, grammar, ease of expression.

III. *School management* includes mechanical and routine factors.

29. *Care of routine*—saving time and energy by reducing frequently recurring details to mechanical organization.
30. *Discipline (governing skill)*—character of order maintained and skill shown in maintaining it.

IV. *Technique of teaching* includes skill in actual teaching and in the conduct of the recitation.

31. *Definiteness and clearness of aim*—of each lesson and of the work as a whole.
32. *Skill in habit formation*—skill in establishing specific, automatic responses quickly and permanently; drill.
33. *Skill in stimulating thought*—giving opportunity for and direction in reflective thinking.
34. *Skill in teaching how to study*—establishing economical and efficient habits of study.
35. *Skill in questioning*—character and distribution of questions; replies elicited.
36. *Choice of subject matter*—skill with which the teacher selects the material of instruction to suit the interests, abilities, and needs of the class.
37. *Organization of subject matter*—the lesson plan and the system in which the subject matter is presented.
39. *Skill in motivating work*—arousing interest and giving pupils proper incentives for work.
40. *Attention to individual needs*—teacher's care for individual differences, peculiarities, and difficulties.

V. *Results* include evidence of the success of the above conditions and skill.

41. *Attention and response of the class*—extent to which all of the class are interested in the essential part of the lesson and respond to the demands made on them.
42. *Growth of pupils in subject matter*—shown by pupils' ability to do work of advanced class and to meet more successfully whatever tests are made of their school work.
43. *General development of pupils*—increase in pupils' ability and power along lines other than those of subject matter.
44. *Stimulation of community*—effect on life of the community, tending to improve or stimulate its various activities.
45. *Moral influence*—extent to which the teacher raises the moral tone of the pupils or of the school.

Since school superintendents in the State of Indiana are required by law to issue over their own signature and deliver to the teachers under their supervision each year a statement of the success of each teacher, and such success grade shall be the teacher's legal success grade from one year from date of issuance, superintendents in that State use the rating system provided by the State law or a modifica-

tion of it. The following schedule of success items is in use at Elkhart:

SCHEDULE OF SUCCESS ITEMS.

I. Teaching Ability ..... 55%
  A. Professional attainment ..... (20%)
    1. Scholastic preparation.
    2. Professional training.
  B. The recitation ..... (15%)
    1. Preparation of teacher and pupils.
    2. Appropriateness of subject matter.
    3. Definiteness of aim and purpose.
    4. Skill in questioning.
    5. Progression in plan.
    6. Care in assignments of lessons.
    7. Balancing of lines of work.
  C. Results in scholarship of pupils ..... (20%)
    1. Acquisition of facts and relations.
    2. Accuracy.
    3. General information.
    4. Awakening of scholarly interests.
    5. Clearness and elegance of expression.

II. Governing and Disciplinary Ability ..... 30% _____
  A. Moral and social influence on pupils and community ..... (10%)
    Ability to develop in the pupils the altruistic virtues—recognition of law and social rights.
  B. Ability to develop egoistic virtues—industry, honesty, reliability, fidelity, etc ..... (10%)
  C. Personality and appearance of teacher ..... (10%)
    Personal and moral worth and influence, habits, disposition, health, attire, sympathy, energy, manliness or womanliness, honesty, etc.

III. Professional and Community Interest ..... 15% _____
  A. Cooperation with other teachers and with with supervisors ..... (5%)
  B. Interest in aims and plans of school community ..... (5%)
    1. Care of school property—
      a. Protection of supplies and furniture.
      b. Neatness.
      c. School decoration.
    2. Building up of strong school sentiment in the community.
    3. Educational, literary, or social club work.
  C. Professional pursuits ..... (5%)
    1. Present lines of professional study.
    2. Reading of educational literature.
    3. Attendance upon summer schools, institutes, and associations.

Total ..... ____ %

The following is a schedule of success items provided by the superintendent of public instruction of Indiana according to the school law of that State:

| | Per cent. |
|---|---|
| A. Teaching power. Many items enter into this, but the principal ones are training of teacher, preparation of lessons, skill in presentation, results obtained. | 45 |
| B. Government. The teacher's power in government is shown in the general spirit of the school and in the attitude of the pupils toward their daily tasks, toward each other, and toward school property. | 35 |
| C. General characteristics. Under this head the personality of the teacher, his community interests, and all those qualities that make for the best citizenship are considered. | 20 |

*Salary schedules prepared by teachers.*—Some superintendents, in conjunction with their teachers, have prepared salary schedules based upon merit. Such a schedule was prepared by a committee of teachers and the superintendent of schools of Columbus, Miss. Teachers are divided into the following classes:

Class A—Superior. A teacher whose work is exceptional. A teacher possessing unusual skill, resourcefulness, and power to stimulate pupils to achieve the best results the school seeks to accomplish.

Class B—Good. A teacher whose work is satisfactory and improving from year to year. A strong teacher.

Class C—Fair. A teacher showing little improvement from year to year. A teacher who has practically ceased to grow and whose service is doubtful, whose work is uneven and inconsistent. Work strong in some things and weak in others.

Class D—Unsatisfactory. A new teacher whose work is unsatisfactory but who gives promise of improvement and growth.

Class E—Inexperienced. A teacher who is entering the profession, or one whose experience is insignificant and unworthy of recognition.

Class F—Poor. A teacher whose service is poor and should be dismissed.

All teachers are classified by their principal in the following items:

1. *Personal qualifications.*—Health, voice, appearance, enthusiasm, etc.

2. *Professional ability.*—Knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of children, daily preparation, etc.

3. *School management.*—Discipline, system, attention to routine, etc.

4. *Teaching skill.*—School spirit of pupils and teacher, skill in conducting recitation, character of work of pupil, etc.

5. *Results.*—Knowledge gained, power to use knowledge, etc.

The school board of Evanston, Ill., made a decided departure from the usual method of formulating salary schedules when it suggested to the teachers that they appoint a committee of their own number to discuss, formulate, and recommend changes which, in their opinion should be made in the salary schedule of the teachers of that

city. Acting on this suggestion the teachers in each building and the principals as a group selected one of their number to represent them on the committee. This resulted in a committee of nine, which held a number of conferences to discuss the various phases of the salary schedule. After every conference the arguments presented and the conclusions reached were reported by each member to the teachers they represented. The school board after making a few minor changes adopted the recommendations of the committee of teachers.

The committee recommended that a salary schedule should be based upon the following principles:

1. The salary of a teacher at the very least should be enough to provide a living wage. It should enable a teacher to do the reading and pursue such studies as are necessary to keep her in touch with the progressive movements in education in this and other countries. In addition it should permit her to save something each year to provide for the time when she must of necessity retire from active schoolroom service.

2. The maximum salary should be sufficient to retain the services of the most desirable teachers, as well as to induce teachers of highest quality to seek positions in the Evanston schools. It is safe to say that this community demands and is willing to pay for the best possible instruction and training for its children.

3. The administration of a salary schedule should result in stimulating teachers in the service to develop to the highest degree whatever teaching power they possess. Superior work should be recognized and rewarded. Teachers should be classified according to the quality of service rendered and not alone on the basis of their years of service.

4. The basis for classifying teachers as to their teaching efficiency should be systematized, rationalized, and controlled. There should be something definite to show upon what the judgment is based; evidence should be available to support the final rating. The factors on which a teacher is judged should be carefully selected so as to include the really vital elements. The terms used should be so clearly defined that the teacher will not be in doubt as to what is expected of her. It is of the highest importance that the items listed be understood by those who use them. Confusion and misunderstanding are inevitable if the supervisor rating and the teacher rating have a different interpretation of their meaning. The rating schedule should enable a teacher to analyze her own work, to discover her own strength and weakness, and to find out how best to remedy the defects in her teaching.

5. Salary increases should be based on the quality of service rendered as shown by the rating of the teacher's efficiency. In teaching as in other lines a "wage should be a gauge"—more pay should mean larger or finer service. Mediocre service should not be rewarded by increase in salary, lest all service, including the best, shall suffer from withdrawal of efficiency rewards. Increases of salary should be conditioned upon demonstrated increased classroom efficiency.

In applying the basic principles which it announced the Evanston teachers' committee urged that the board of education adopt (*a*) a plan for rating teachers according to the quality of the service which they render; (*b*) that as a result of the rating, definite classifications be established, and that these determine the pay of individual

teachers; (*c*) that a specified salary rate be adopted; and (*d*) that a well-determined plan be adopted for the dismissal of the unfit.

The purpose of the rating plan, as outlined by the teachers, is—

1. To determine the quality of teaching, as a basis for selecting (*a*) those who are deserving of promotion with increased salaries; (*b*) those who are to be retained without salary increases; and (*c*) those who should not be retained in service.

2. To help teachers discover their own strength and weakness and to remedy existing defects in their work.

The following tentative basis for rating teachers was recommended:

TENTATIVE BASIS FOR RATING TEACHERS.

I. *Personal qualities:*
- 1. General appearance.
- 2. Health.
- 3. Voice.
- 4. Tact.
- 5. Intellectual capacity.
- 6. Reliability.
- 7. Initiative.
- 8. Self-control.
- 9. Enthusiasm.
- 10. Sincerity.

II. *Social and professional ability:*
- 1. Preparation, academic, and professional.
- 2. Professional interest and growth.
- 3. Grasp of subject matter and daily preparation.
- 4. Use of English.
- 5. Understanding of and interest in children.
- 6. Relation to associates and school life.
- 7. Relation to parents and community.

III. *School management:*
- 1. Character of discipline.
- 2. Guarding physical welfare of children.
- 3. Schoolroom housekeeping.
- 4. Attention to routine.

IV. *Teaching technique:*
- 1. Factors affecting recitation:
  - (*a*) Physical conditions.
  - (*b*) Attitude of pupil to work.
  - (*c*) Attitude of pupil to teacher.
  - (*d*) Attitude of teacher to pupil.
- 2. Activities of the teacher:
  - (*a*) Securing and retaining attention.
  - (*b*) Selection and organization of subject matter.
  - (*c*) Motivation.
  - (*d*) Character of questions.
  - (*e*) Character of illustrations.
  - (*f*) Clearing up pupils' difficulties.
  - (*g*) Attention to individual needs.
  - (*h*) Capitalizing child's experience.
  - (*i*) Stimulating initiative.
  - (*j*) Courtesy to pupils.
- 3. Activities of pupils:
  - (*a*) Character of responses.
  - (*b*) Organization of material—differentiating between essentials and nonessentials.
  - (*c*) Independent thinking and self-reliance.
  - (*d*) Cooperation with teachers and other pupils.

IV. *Teaching technique*—Continued.
3. Activities of pupils—Contd.
(*e*) Character and extent of questions by pupils.
(*f*) Character and extent of field work.
4. Assignment of lesson:
(*a*) Definiteness and clearness.
(*b*) Adequacy of preview.
(*c*) Presentation of values.
(*d*) Reasonableness and provision for exceptional pupils.

V. *Results:*
1. Gain in subject matter.

V. *Results*—Continued.
2. Power to use and apply knowledge gained.
3. Powers of initiative and persistence.
4. Powers of independent judgment and reason.
5. Attitude toward school.
6. Habit of testing results.
7. Skill in performance.
8. Development of character qualities.
9. Development of social mindedness.
10. Influence in community.

1. The scale of 1 to 10 is used for the sake of convenience to indicate the extent to which a quality exists. Such a marking is relative; it can not, of course, be considered an absolute measure. A mark of 10 in self-control, for example, does not mean 100 per cent or perfect self-control, but rather that the person so marked possesses self-control in an unusual degree, while a mark of 1, 2, or 3, would indicate the lack of it.

2. The qualities listed are not considered of equal value, neither does the scale show their relative value. It is obvious however, that some of these qualities should have vastly more consideration than others in determining the general rating of a teacher.

3. The general rating of a teacher therefore can not be found by adding up the numbers set opposite the different items. A teacher's general rating may be low, although she is marked very high in many of the items listed.

4. It is recognized that differing standards of excellence in the minds of different judges must result in differences in judgment. These standards so far as possible should be standardized and made objective. Standards can be established only through experience and long use of the scale, with such changes and modifications as are found to be needed.

5. In all cases it is a prime essential that a teacher shall be told and shown the basis for the rating in any particular, as well at the final general classification she is given.

All teachers at Evanston are to be clasified by the supervisors and finally by the superintendent into five groups, on the basis of the quality of service they have rendered. Five groups are suggested:

1. Those whose work is of so poor a quality that they should be dismissed from the service.

2. New teachers whose work has been unsatisfactory, but who show sufficient promise of growth and improvement to justify further trial. Frequently, it happens that a teacher who has done excellent work elsewhere finds it difficult within a year to adjust herself to new conditions, to new demands, and to standards which differ from those to which she has been accustomed.

3. Those who show little, if any, improvement over the work of previous years. The results obtained may be fairly satisfactory, but the fact that a teacher is reaching the point where she ceases to grow and improve, places her in the doubtful class. The work of a teacher in this group soon deteriorates and

her value is greatly reduced. Teachers whose work is uneven or not consistent—strong in some lines but weak in others which are essential, should be classified in this group.

4. Those who are strong teachers and do uniformly good work; who measure up well in all departments and show improvement from year to year.

5. Exceptional teachers whose work is superior; who possess unusual skill in teaching and show a large measure in initiative, resourcefulness and power in stimulating pupils to achieve the most worth while of the results the school seeks to accomplish.

It was recommended by the committee of teachers and adopted by the board of education that the minimum salary should be $75 and the maximum salary $1,500, and that increases should be granted as follows:

For teachers classified in—

(*a*) Group 1—no increase; teacher dismissed.
(*b*) Group 2—no increase; teacher retained for further trial.
(*c*) Group 3—$25 increase.
(*d*) Group 4—$50 increase.
(*e*) Group 5—$75 increase, or more, the merits of each case to be considered and decided individually.

The initial salary for any teacher is based on the character of the teacher's academic and professional equipment, the quantity and quality of her previous experience, and the salary she has been able to command in her former position.

## DUPLICATE SCHOOLS.

Sufficient data are not at hand to say whether there is any general movement in the smaller cities to adopt duplicate schools. Several superintendents report that they are experimenting with such school with good results. The duplication school at Monessen, Pa., may be given as an example of the possibilities of such schools. One of the eight-room buildings in that city has been converted into a duplicate school. To the original building of eight rooms there were added a gymnasium, auditorium, domestic science, manual training, art, music, nature study, and application rooms, and a community room and library.

The use of the eight regular classrooms and the eight special rooms during every part of the school day gives the pupil the advantages of special activities and special teachers without the disadvantages of extra room occupied only part of the time.

All the drawing is taught by one teacher in the art room, which is arranged especially for the work. All the music is taught by a special teacher in the music room. A teacher is in the gymnasium the entire school day, and the different classes go to the gymnasium for their physical exercises. While the boys of two classes are in the manual-training room, the girls of the same two classes are in

the domestic-science room. The teacher in the library or reading room teaches the supplementary reading to the first, second, and third grades, and all the reading to the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The basal reading in the primary grades is taught in the regular classrooms. Spelling, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, history, and geography are taught by regular teachers in the classrooms. Under the direction of the teacher of expression the pupils are taught story-telling, dramatization of stories, and other oral English work. Hygiene and sanitation and nature study are taught by a special teacher in the nature study and application room. This puts number work into practice by playing store, for which sets of measures and weights, toy money, and different packages of goods have been supplied. There are no pupils beyond the sixth grade in the duplicate school. The following program explains the operation of the school:

## PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR THE IOWA BUILDING.

September, 1917.

| | 8.50–9.40 | 9.40–10.20 | 10.20–11.00 | 11.00–11.45 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IB1. | Exp., M. W. F.<br>Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Handwork. | Classroom. | |
| IB2. | Classroom. | | Exp., M. W. F.<br>Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Handwork. |
| IA1. | Exp., Tu. Th.<br>Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Handwork. | Classroom. | |
| IA2. | Classroom. | | Exp., Tu. Th.<br>Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Handwork. |
| IIB. | Handwork. | Exp., M. W. F.<br>Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| IIB.<br>IIA. | Classroom. | | Handwork. | Exp., M. W. F.<br>Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. |
| IIA. | Handwork. | Exp., Tu. Th.<br>Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| IIIB. | Classroom. | | Handwork. | Exp., Tu. Th.<br>Nat. S. App., M. W. F. |
| IIIB.<br>IIIA. | Art, Tu. Th.<br>Phy. Ed., M. W. F. | Music, M. W. F.<br>Lib., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| IIIA. | Classroom. | | Art, Tu. Th.<br>Phys. Ed., M. W. F. | Music, M. W. F.<br>Lib., Tu. Th. |
| IVB. | Art, M. W. F.<br>Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Music, Tu. Th.<br>Lib., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| IVA. | Classroom. | | Art, M. W. F.<br>Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Music, Tu. Th.<br>Lib., M. W. F. |
| VB. | Music, M. W. F.<br>Lib., Tu. Th. | Art, Tu. Th.<br>Phys. Ed., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| VA. | Classroom. | | Music, M. W. F.<br>Lib., Tu. Th. | Art, Tu. Th.<br>Phys. Ed., M. W. F. |
| VIB. | Music, Tu. Th.<br>Lib., M. W. F. | Art, M. W. F.<br>Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| VIB. | Classroom. | | Music, Tu. Th.<br>Lib., M. W. F. | Art, M. W. F.<br>Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. |

Noon intermission, 11.45-1.15. Boys may take art while girls are taking physical education. Girls may take art while boys are taking physical education.

PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR THE IOWA BUILDING—Continued.

| | 1.15–1.35 | 1.35–2.35 | 2.35–3.15 | 3.15–3.55 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IB1. | Art, Tu. Th. Phys. Ed., M. W. F. | Music, M. W. F. Lib., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| IB2. | Classroom. | | Art, Tu. Th. Phys. Ed., M. W. F. | Music, M. W. F. Lib., Tu. Th. |
| IA1. | Art, M. W. F. Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Music, Tu. Th. Lib., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| IA2. | Classroom. | | Art, M. W. F. Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Music, Tu. Th. Lib., M. W. F. |
| IIB. | Music, M. W. F. Lib., Tu. Th. | Art, Tu. Th. Phys. Ed., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| IIB. IIA. | Classroom. | | Music, M. W. F. Lib., Tu. Th. | Art, Tu. Th. Phys. Ed., M. W. F. |
| IIA. | Music, Tu. Th. Lib., M. W. F. | Art, M. W. F. Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| IIIB. | Classroom. | | Music, Tu. Th. Lib., M. W. F. | Art, M. W. F. Phys. Ed., Tu. Th. |
| IIIB. IIIA. | Exp., M. W. F. Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Handwork. | Classroom. | |
| IIIA. | Classroom. | | Exp., M. W. F. Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Handwork. |
| IVB. | Exp., Tu. Th. Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Handwork. | Classroom. | |
| IVA. | Classroom. | | Exp., Tu. Th. Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Handwork. |
| VB. | Handwork. | Exp., M. W. F. Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. | Classroom. | |
| VA. | Classroom. | | Handwork. | Exp., M. W. F. Nat. S. App., Tu. Th. |
| VIB. | Handwork. | Exp., Tu. Th. Nat. S. App., M. W. F. | Classroom. | |
| VIB. | Classroom. | | Handwork. | Exp., Tu. Th. Nat. S. App., M. W. F. |

[1] In grade 5, for example, the 5A pupils are in the regular classroom from 8.50 to 10.20, and during the period from 10.20 to 11.45 they are in one or more of the special rooms. During the period 8.50 to 10.20 the 5B pupils are in one or more of the special rooms, and during the period 10.20 to 11.45 they are in the regular classroom.

The superintendent of schools at Monessen summarizes the advantage of the duplicate school as follows:

It furnishes special teachers for special subjects, like music, drawing, physical culture, domestic science, and manual training.

It provides these special activities at a less cost by having all rooms occupied at all times.

It provides library and reading facilities that we can not have in another school.

It provides better for the exercise of the pupils' natural activities.

In the application room and the handwork rooms the pupil has an opportunity to put into practice his arithmetic, and in the expression room or story-telling and dramatizing room he has an opportunity for practical oral English.

Our experience so far shows that the children prefer to go to this school.

## SUPERVISED STUDY.

A few years ago the attention of teachers was called to the fact that many children fail because they do not know how to study. Not a few superintendents have, within the past few years, rearranged the daily program in both the elementary and the high school so that teachers may have an opportunity to supervise the study of pupils. Supervised study may no longer be considered an experiment. The interest in it has become such that several books and numerous magazine articles have been written on the subject. Teachers' associations and institutes have taken it up as one of the vital problems in school management.

The purpose of supervised study is to shift the emphasis from the recitation period to the study period and to give more attention to methods of study and less attention to testing the pupils to find out how much they remember of the text. A recitation of 10 minutes after 30 minutes of supervised study is no doubt better than a recitation of 30 minutes after 10 minutes of study, the amount of time some pupils give to the studying of a lesson. Since good habits of study are more desirable than the mere accumulation of facts, one of the important functions of the teacher is to teach children how to study.

The results of supervised study have been reported as good. The superintendent of schools at Foxcroft, Me., who made trial of this method in the elementary grades, reports:

Many of the supposedly dull pupils manifested unusual ability after a short time, due to the confidence caused by class discussion and better methods of study. Nonpromotions were diminished, and a better standard of work was obtained in both divisions. The dull pupils were not outstripped in coming to conclusions by the bright ones; neither did the quicker pupils have to wait for explanations that were needless to them. At the end of the year the class came nearer to being all on the same level than they could possibly have been with all pupils in the same group.

The superintendent of schools at Madison, Ind., who has introduced supervised study into his schools, has distributed to the pupils the following suggestions as to methods of study which should prove helpful, especially if the teacher encourages and assists her pupils to follow the suggestions:

SUGGESTIONS.

1. Make out a regular study program at the beginning of the term for both school and home study. A regular study program saves time, prevents idleness, presents a definite task for each period of the day, assures preparation of each lesson, shows the necessity for home study, and tends to create habits of regularity along all lines.

2. If possible arrange to study a subject immediately following the recitation in the subject.

3. Follow your study program regularly every day. Never make an exception to this rule.

4. Begin to work at the beginning of the period. Do not waste time.

5. Provide yourself with the material the study of the lesson requires at the beginning of the study period.

6. Begin by reviewing the chief points in the last recitation in the subject to be studied.

7. Study the assignment. Be sure you understand it and know what you are expected to do.

8. Concentrate on the work to be done. Do not let other things attract your attention. When you study make a serious business of it. Do not dilly dally.

9. Read the lesson through as a whole and get the general idea.

10. Study each paragraph, topic, or problem in detail. Understand it before going to the next.

11. Make use of the dictionary, reference books, maps, and all aids available.

12. Stop frequently and think over what you have read. Relate the new ideas to old ideas of a like nature.

13. Make a brief written outline of the chief points. Close the book and think through the lesson following the outline.

14. Review often. Memorize important data.

## THE WAR AND THE SMALL-CITY SCHOOLS.

Schools in the smaller cities have been influenced by the war in practically the same way as those in the larger cities. The former as a result of the war have in some respects suffered more and in other respects they have made more advancement relatively than the latter. In the small city there has been a greater shortage of teachers, owing to the fact that salaries in most of these cities are much less than in the larger cities. The selective draft called more men from the schools of the small cities than from the large, since most of the male teachers in these schools are within the draft age. In some respects the small-city schools have made more progress relatively than the large-city schools. Prior to the war not a few of the former confined their attention chiefly to the academic subjects. Now most

of them have introduced industrial, home economic, and commercial courses. Many have organized night schools for adults and especially for the foreign-born adult.

The war has modified the course of study by relating it more intimately to actual conditions. Schoolmen realized that the teaching of the war should not be deferred until after the historian has arranged the events in chronological order and has sifted and interpreted the facts. Practically every school in the smaller cities has been teaching the causes of the war. Many schools have followed the movements of the armies from day to day by means of bulletin boards. Discussions in connection with lessons in history, geography, English composition, and literature have been common. Incidental instruction regarding the war can and should be provided through the opportunities offered by the regular school subjects. It has been found that a good time to impress the causes and events of the war upon the minds of the children is when Liberty Loans are being floated and when subscriptions for the Red Cross are being solicited. However, if definite results are to be obtained, instruction regarding the war must be more than incidental, incidental instruction in school subjects having proved a failure. There must be systematic instruction, there must be some aim, and not the teaching of a few unrelated facts here and there, and now and then, in connection with the other school subjects.

Some schools have made a systematic study of the war by means of an outline prepared under the direction of the superintendent. Such an outline prepared by the superintendent and teachers at Fargo, N. Dak., may be given as an illustration of what it is possible for a school to do to make a systematic study of the war. The outline was prepared to suit the different grades. The outline for the sixth grade is given herewith:

OUTLINE OF WAR STUDY AT FARGO, N. DAK.

I. The Army.
   1. Regular.
   2. National Guard.
   3. National Army (first call).
II. The geography of the warring nations.
III. Social and political conditions among the warring nations.
   1. Suffrage.
   2. Condition of—
      (a) Poorer classes. Day laborers; wages.
      (b) Middle classes.
      (c) Upper classes.
   3. Class distinctions.
   4. Opportunities for the common people.
   5. Position of women.

III. Social and political conditions among the warring nations—Continued.
6. Government.
7. Compare with the United States.
8. Immigration to the United States. Why?
IV. Military organizations of—
1. Germany.
2. Austria.
3. Russia.
4. Italy.
5. France.
6. England.
7. United States.
V. The Hague Tribunal.
1. Its history.
2. Attempts at arbitration.
3. Attempts at disarmament.
VI. The Monroe Doctrine. Attitude of Germany toward it.
VII. The war.
Why we are in the war.
(*a*) Invasion of Belgium.
(*b*) Sinking of the *Lusitania*; President's message.
(*c*) Sinking of the *Sussex*; President's message.
(*d*) Submarine warfare.
(*e*) Making the world safe for democracy.
VIII. The naval battle of Heligoland, illustrating use of dreadnaughts, battle cruisers, torpedo-boat destroyers, torpedo boats, and submarines.
IX. Movement for peace.
1. The Hague Tribunal. The work of Carnegie.
2. Czar of Russia and his disarmament proposition.
3. Treaties made upon the advice of Mr. Bryan.
X. The Red Cross.
1. Its history.
2. Its purpose.
3. Tell the story of Florence Nightingale. Read the poem to her by Longfellow.
XI. Y. M. C. A. Its purpose in relation to the war.
XII. Conservation.
Elimination of waste:
(*a*) Clean plate and empty garbage can.
(*b*) Quit feeding useless pets.
(*c*) Getting full value for money.
(*d*) Government fixing prices.
XIII. Tell how the different countries finance the war.

The war has modified the method of teaching many of the school subjects. The teaching of English composition has been vitalized through the discussion of topics relating to the war. Compositions based upon some event of the war have taken the place of those on topics in which the pupil had no, or at least only a remote, interest. One of the most powerful means of vitalizing instruction in English has been the Junior Four Minute Men talks. New meaning has been given to history and geography by teaching about present-day hap-

penings and the work the world is now doing. In the manual training shop and in the home economics rooms a motive now prevails, while heretofore the pupils in many schools in the smaller cities did "exercises" in manual training and in cooking and sewing. Now they are making things in the manual training shop that have a real use. Sewing is for some purpose, making material for the Red Cross; cooking has been put on a more rational basis, the children being taught food values and food conservation. The art teacher has likewise vitalized her work. Instead of mere exercises, she has had her pupils make posters for Liberty Loan, War Saving Stamp, and Red Cross campaigns. There is scarcely a school subject that has not been made more alive by relating it to actual conditions. The principle that school work should be related to life has long been advocated and but little practiced. The War has been a means of relating school work to life.

Before the war the smaller city schools as a rule gave but little attention to home gardening under the direction of the schools. A few were, however, experimenting with this kind of school work. In almost a day practically every small city school system became interested in gardening under the direction of a supervisor. Many teachers have volunteered their services during the summer months. In some places the supervisors are employed by the school board. This is the better plan. In a very small city the principal of schools could well devote part of his time to the supervision of home gardening. In other cities the instructor of science or teachers especially interested in nature study should be employed for the entire year, so that during the summer months they may supervise the garden work.

Most of the small-city schools report that they have dropped German from the high-school course of study. In those schools in which German has been the only modern foreign language offered, French or Spanish has been substituted. Owing to our close relations with the French people and our interest in them, the teacher of the French language now has an opportunity to vitalize the subject which she has never had before. Many children will be interested in learning the language so that they may write letters in French to their brothers or friends now in France, and they will be interested in learning to speak the language so that they may converse in French with those returning from France. These motives, it is true, are not the real ones for studying the language, but they are so near that the teacher can not afford to neglect them.

Within the last few years physical training has received a powerful impulse. Of the schools reporting, practically all have taken steps toward the better care of the child's health. Some have intro-

duced military training, others have introduced systematic physical education. Many have employed a school physician or nurse, or both. Greater advancement has been made in the schools of the States of New York and New Jersey than elsewhere, owing to the fact that the State law in each of these States requires physical training as a part of the course of study. As good results may be expected in the other States that require physical training. In those States where no such law has been enacted the more progressive cities have made physical training a part of the school work. Since such training has been found to be necessary, the State should require it of every school and not leave its adoption to local initiative, because some cities never will have initiative enough to introduce a course in physical training. It is sound theory that the State should require every school to teach those subjects that are of most value to the individual and to the State and not leave the introduction of vitally important subjects to the whims of a local community. Every State requires that reading, writing, and arithmetic be taught, these being considered the "tools," and that it is necessary for every one to have a thorough mastery of them, so that they may have the means of becoming intelligent citizens. Every State should require physical training of every child so that he may become an efficient citizen. Not until this is done will small city schools introduce systematic physical training, though the war has made the need of such training apparent.

Thus we might continue to enumerate the influence of the war upon the schools. In brief, every school in the smaller cities has engaged in some kind of war work. In some of these the schools have undertaken to do everything that was suggested—Red Cross work, selling Liberty Bonds and Thrift Stamps, demonstration lessons in food conservation, gardening, etc. Through the school children much of the information regarding the war, food conservation, etc., has been disseminated.

Though the war has entered the schools, school men have not been unmindful of the fact that a state of war is unnatural and that the fundamental studies ought not to be crowded out by war activities. Superintendents and teachers have, however, found that they can vitalize the regular school subjects by introducing the war into the schools. They have found that the war offers an opportunity to train children in the service of the State. It is true that in peace time opportunity exists for the same kind of training, but the immediate need is not so keenly felt.