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ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF VILLAGE SCHOOLS

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CONTENTS.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, September 25, 1919.

SIR: In the United States there are more than ten thousand villages and towns having a population less than 2,500. These are usually not included in our discussion of rural schools and rural school problems, nor in our plans for rural school improvement. Nor are they generally included in plans for the improvement of city schools. Yet these villages offer excellent opportunities for combining many of the best features of both country and city schools, without the handicap of obstructing elements in either. Indeed, it is not improbable that in the future both the schools of the large cities and the schools of the open country may turn to the village schools for lessons in effective organization on the one side, and freedom of initiative and individuality on the other. At any rate, there is much need for careful study of the actual and the possible opportunities for education in these thousands of villages, in which nearly ten million of the people of the United States live.

For the purpose of calling attention to this neglected part of our systems of education, I have within the past two years called and directed several conferences of persons engaged in or directly interested in the work of village schools, and have had the results of a study of this subject prepared in the form of a manuscript, which I am transmitting herewith and which I recommend for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education. It is my purpose to have more detailed studies made of particular phases of village school work, and studies of the special needs and opportunities of the schools in agricultural villages, mining villages, and mill villages. The results of these studies will be submitted for publication as they are completed.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF VILLAGE SCHOOLS.

INTRODUCTION.

The village in America.—In general, any compact community of less than 2,500 population is considered a village. No data are available showing how many villages there are in the United States. The census report for 1910 gives 11,784 municipal corporations of less than 2,500 population. To these must be added the many small places that have not been incorporated for municipal purposes. In New England only a few villages are incorporated, the town[1] government serving the needs of the village as well as of the rural sections of the town.

In 1910 the population of incorporated places of less than 2,500 was 8.8 per cent of the total population of the United States. If the unincorporated villages and the immediate territory for which the villages serve as trading centers were added, the population living in villages and within their influence would amount to probably 30 per cent or more.

There are several types of villages—the industrial, the agricultural, and the suburban.

The industrial village may be either a mining or a manufacturing village, or both. As a rule it has no intimate relation with the surrounding country. If it is a mining town there are usually from 100 to 2,500 inhabitants, most of whom are engaged in mining. The men who work in the mines live in small houses, usually erected and owned by the company and rented to the miner. At one side of the town may be found the houses of the mine officials and store managers. Practically the entire population of the typical coal mining village is made up of foreigners—Slavs, Italians, and Poles. It is not unusual to find 10 to 20 different nationalities represented in a mining town.

The manufacturing town is somewhat different. A better class of houses is found, and a general higher average of intelligence, from the fact that greater skill is needed in a manufacturing than in a mining community.

[1] The New England town corresponds to the township in some other States.

The suburban village is really a part of the near-by city and should be classed with it. In the suburban village there are churches and schools, but the business interests of most of the inhabitants are in the city.

The agricultural village serves a community much larger than the village itself. It is only a part of a larger rural community. The country village serves as a trading center for the farmers of the neighborhood. Every week a large per cent of the farmers visit the village to trade at the stores, to have farm implements repaired, to deposit their money in the bank, or to attend meetings of fraternal organizations. The farmer's wife, too, goes to the village upon various errands. The young people look to the village for entertainment and amusement, as baseball games, picture shows, etc.

Special types of villages.—Besides these types of village, several special types may be mentioned. For example, there exists in Utah a type not found to any extent in other States. As the early settlers were of one faith, they usually followed the commands given them by their spiritual leaders. Among the first of these commands was: "Till the soil; learn the lesson of the land; do not search for gold or other precious metals or minerals."

The people were sent out in groups to form settlements, build churches and schools, and also stockades for defense against the Indians, who at that time were none too friendly. Farms were selected either by the church officials or by the settler himself, but the farmer lived in the village. The distance to the farm varied from an "easy walking distance" (about a mile and a half) to 5 or 10 miles. When new settlers arrived, they formed groups beyond the 10 or 15 mile limit, and thus each village became a self-supporting social center. Because of this natural isolation, they became more united internally by the social, religious, and economic situations, and to a less extent were influenced by external conditions. Thus, when the village was created, the opportunity for a central consolidated school was offered.

The farmer living in a village is in almost daily contact with his fellow farmers. He avoids the isolation and loneliness of the open country farmer, who may go a mile or much more to find his nearest neighbor.

These so-called village farmers take great interest in schools, and enjoy many of the comforts of a semiurban life. In general, their lives are more complete and satisfactory than those of isolated farmers.

Another type of village is found in the section where there are abandoned mines. This offers a peculiar situation for the schools that once prospered and flourished in the midst of good live mining centers. Because of the absolue failure of the mines to produce ore in

abundance, or in paying quantities, fine old buildings once used as stores, dwellings, or schools are now partially boarded up or entirely abandoned. These tell their story of better days now long past. One of these abandoned villages has an excellent school building of eight rooms, once inadequate to accommodate the numerous children enrolled; now but one room is in use, and that is ample to accommodate the present attendance. It is doubtful if any great number of these towns will ever again become active, flourishing business centers. However, a few have turned their attention to manufacturing certain commodities, such as brick, tile, etc., which may, in time, bring back some of their former economic prosperity. Towns of this type are found in Nevada, Idaho, Washington, California, and Oregon in the West, and in some of the middle Western States, as Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois.

The shifting of the lumber industry caused a few abandoned villages, for in some places the timber, once so abundant, was finally cut, and the mills were moved to other parts, where timber could still be had. Fortunately, however, the "stump land," left after the trees are gone, can be tilled; and the erstwhile lumberjack may become an efficient farmer, provided he can solve the problem of a cheap and economical way of clearing the logged-off land. The central school will remain in the town or village.

Another type of village is that created by the recent war. In sites where munition factories were located "mushroom" towns filled with war workers sprang into existence almost overnight. Large school buildings, at an unusually large cost, have been built in these towns, many of which are now abandoned because it is no longer necessary to manufacture munitions of war.

The agricultural village is usually thought of when the term village is used, and this type is kept chiefly in mind in the preparation of this bulletin.

ADMINISTRATION.

DIFFERENT PLANS IN OPERATION.

As might be expected in a country where each State makes its own laws regarding the administration of its schools, there are many methods of administering the village schools.

In New England a town school committee administers the schools of the village or villages within the town, and there is no village school board. In some States, as Pennsylvania, schools in incorporated villages are administered by a village or borough school board, while the schools in unincorporated villages are administered

by the township school board. In States where the district system prevails the village and possibly some territory surrounding the village comprise a school district, which is under the control of a local board. In some States, as in Maryland and Alabama, where the county is the unit of school administration, the county board of education has control of all the villages in the county, just as the town school committee in Massachusetts has control of the schools in all the villages within the town.

The town system of New England, or the county system, is without doubt the best plan, by reason of the fact that the town school committee may district the town or the county board the county along natural community lines. In districting for school purposes boundary lines of the incorporated village should be disregarded, especially in the agricultural sections of the country where the village is an integral part of the rural community and all the children of the community should attend the same school. In other words, since the village is the center of life for a considerable territory, it should be the consolidation center.

THE VILLAGE AS A CONSOLIDATION CENTER.

One student of the village in its relation to the country, in commenting on the natural school district, says:[1]

> In the realm of education the identification of the natural with the legal community is being realized to a considerable extent by the union high-school movement in its various forms. In many States the town has long had an independent school district somewhat larger than its municipal limits. It was patronized also by many country youth living beyond the district. These paid tuition in lieu of taxes, and were admitted or not at the pleasure of the town educational authorities. The next step was to authorize the township to pay the tuition for its high-school pupils in the town school and to compel the school to receive them if it had room. Here many States stuck; the more progressive, however, have enacted union high-school laws. Thus, in Wisconsin, any contiguous area of 36 square miles defined by section lines may organize itself for high-school support and maintenance. So far forth this allows the town center to associate its dependent country with it in the secondary phase of education. But the trade area of a town of 3,000 population in a northwestern State with average density of population may be 100 square miles instead of 36. Minnesota therefore goes farther: Any county, upon petition of 25 per cent of its residents, must appoint a county school survey commission, which redistricts the county on the basis of actual communities. Education is thus freed from arbitrary political units and allowed to organize on a basis of geographical and social facts. The report of the commission, with maps and diagrams, then comes before the voters in a special election. Under this law Douglas County, for example, with 20 townships and 648 square miles of area, reduced its 84 district schools to 24, following in the main natural rather than township boundaries.

[1] The Little Town, p. 206, Harlan Paul Douglass.

Commenting on the Minnesota plan, Prof. Cubberley observes: "If established in a little village, itself the natural center of a rural community, such central schools can become the very center both of the village and of the community life." [1]

An idea of natural communities may be had from the following diagram: [2]

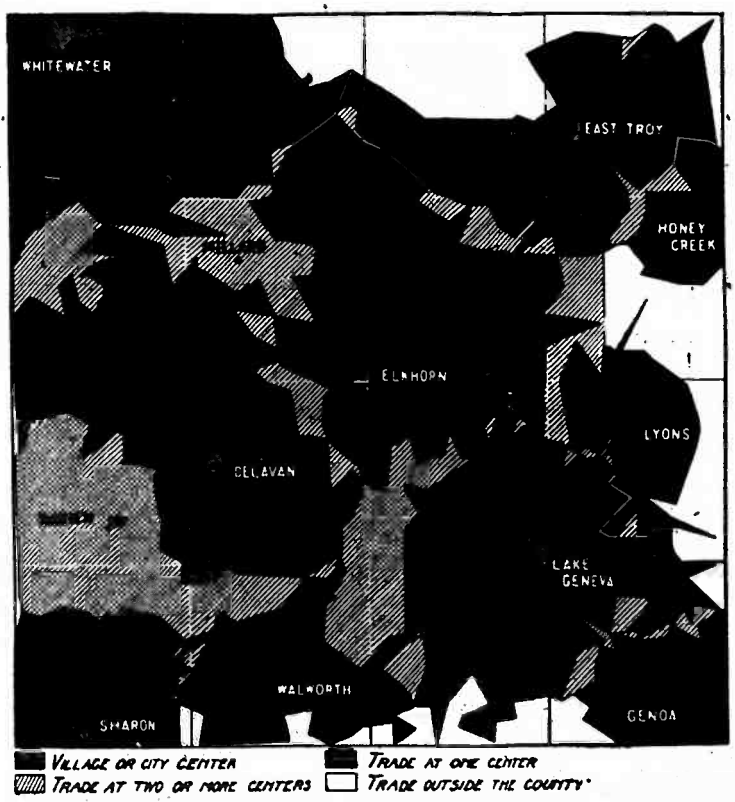


FIG. 1.—TRADE COMMUNITIES.

Twelve villages and small cities situated in the county serve as trade centers for the farm homes precisely as for the village and city homes, and all the homes trading at the same center form a trade community. Township lines 6 miles apart indicate the distance.

Why the village is not more often a consolidation point.—Even in many counties and townships where the school boards have authority to make school districts on community lines, with the village as part of the community, they have failed to do so. There are several reasons why a barrier has been set up between village and country schools. One, as already mentioned, is the fact that villages are per-

[1] Cubberley. Rural Life and Education, p. 246f.
[2] University of Wisconsin Bulletin No. 84.

mitted to have independent school systems, thus shutting off the children of the outlying districts. As a result there are often two or three one-room schools within a few miles of a village. In Pennsylvania, for instance, where the boundaries of the village school district are coterminous with the boundaries of the incorporation and the village school district is entirely independent of the township, only 4 per cent of the villages reporting have no one-teacher schools

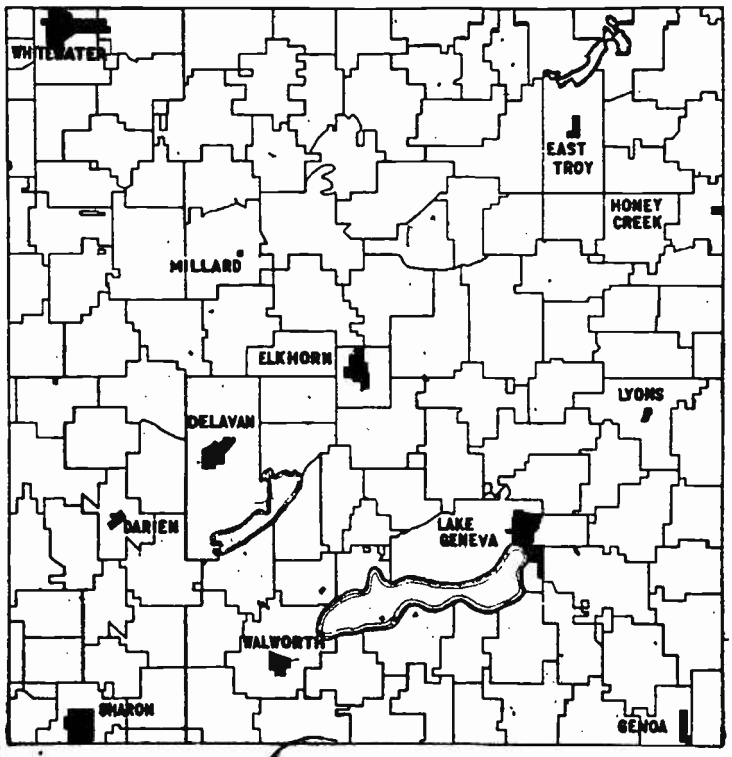


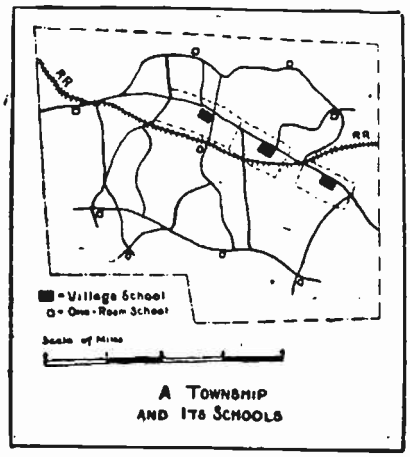
FIG. 2.—Shows the school districts in the county. If the school districts corresponded to the natural districts, the number could be reduced to the number of village centers.

within a radius of 2½ miles; while 55 per cent have from 1 to 3 one-teacher schools, and 41 per cent have 4 or more one-teacher schools within that radius. The following table, compiled from replies by village school principals to a questionnaire shows the per cent of villages in several States having within a radius of 2½ miles of the village no one-teacher shool, one to three, and four or more such schools.

Per cent of villages having no 1-room schools, 1 to 3, and 4 or more within 2½ miles.

States.	None.	1 to 3.	4 or more.	States.	None.	1 to 3.	4 or more.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*		*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
North Dakota	70	30	0	Indiana	35	55	10
Colorado	68	28	4	Iowa	33	44	23
Florida	65	35	0	Maine	33	64	3
North Carolina	57	31	12	Wisconsin	22	59	19
Idaho	50	50	0	New York	15	52	33
New Jersey	47	47	6	Illinois	9	66	25
Oklahoma	44	53	3	Pennsylvania	4	55	41
Maryland	36	48	16				

The following map shows conditions in one township where the villages in the township have an independent school organization:



A TOWNSHIP AND ITS SCHOOLS

It may be noted that there are 9 one-room schools within a few miles of one or another of the three villages. Two of the villages are contiguous. There is a high school in each of the three villages, one having a four-year course and the other two a two-year course. The school board in the township has to pay tuition to the village high school that the children living in the township attend. There are four school boards within the township lines. Other examples of like nature could be given.

Another reason why the village has not been more used as the consolidation center is that the country people hesitate to send their children to the village school for fear that they will be lured away from the farm, because the village schools do not teach subjects related to country life. It may be said that neither do the country schools, especially the one-room schools, teach subjects related to country life. The objection to the village as a consolidation point

on the ground that the course of study is not suited to rural needs can be and should be overcome, not only for the sake of the country child but for the sake of the village child. If, however, the village schools are independent of the township or the country, the introduction of such courses is not an easy matter, for the village school authorities too often look upon the city schools as models for the village to imitate.

Value of consolidated country and village schools.—It is evident that consolidation with the village would not make school conditions worse than they now are in many communities where there are 4 or 5, or even more, one-room schools within a few miles of the village. These one-room schools can not minister fully to the social and intellectual needs of the entire community, since a community as a rule is larger than the district served by the one-room school; neither do they tend to hold children on the farm; rather, they tend to drive them away. The course of study in the one-room country school can not be vitalized to any great extent, while the village school course can be.

If all the schools of a community are consolidated at the center of practical everyday life, the children of the entire community, village children as well as country children, may be brought together. In consequence their vision would become broader. As it now is, with country children attending poor one-room schools and village children attending a better school, there is an enmity between them. The rural children frequently refer to the town children as "stuck-ups," and the village children speak of the country children as "Rubes." The village child would no longer be pitted against the country child if it were understood that each belongs to the same community and that both have the same interests.

Before there can be a reorganization and upbuilding of country life the villager and the countryman must cooperate. Neither can shut himself off from the other. The village must become a part of the community or it will become decadent, as have some villages that have tried to ape city ways instead of attempting to serve and work with the community upon which their prosperity depends. The lack of cooperation, however, can not be attributed entirely to the villager. The farmer and the villager have in too many instances not thought together; each has been for himself. The signs of the times, however, point toward better cooperation. Rural life conferences in every State are bringing town and country in closer touch with those things common to the lives of both. One way to bring about cooperation is to think together. One school for the entire community will help bring about community thinking; that is, if there be developed the type of school which meets the needs of the entire com-

munity, and if the school be made the center of all community activities of a recreational, social, and educational nature.

Instead of the weak one-room school and the village school, which are usually doing nothing more than attempting to teach the three R's, there should be a village community school with a course of study based upon rural life. If the country schools form a consolidation group by themselves and do not include the village, there will still be a line of demarcation between the village and the surrounding country, although they should be one.

Before it is possible for some States to have village community schools, the plan of having the village schools independent of the rest of the community must be abandoned and a town or county system substituted, thus making it possible for school boards to consolidate the schools of a community at or near its business center.

An illustration of a village as a consolidation point.—The consolidated school at Five Points, Chambers County, Ala., is an illustration of what a community school may do, not only for the village, but for the entire community as well. Before the establishment of the consolidated school at Five Points the village and the surrounding country were dead; there was but little interest in farming. There was no intellectual or social life. The entire community was becoming "deader" each year. Finally, through the influence of a few men and women, a consolidated school was organized at Five Points, a village of 300 population. What was a dead village with a few stores became alive.

Before consolidation, the most unattractive building at Five Points was the school building. It was weather-beaten and dingy, consisting of two classrooms—a large one with a stage, and a small one—and a dark and narrow hall. It was poorly equipped with uncomfortable homemade desks, and it had painted walls for blackboards. The absence of windowpanes reenforced the usual free ventilation of such an old building. It was uncomfortable, insanitary, and uninviting; yet the children, the most precious product of the village and its most valuable asset, were compelled to spend seven hours each day, five days a week, and seven months each year, in this makeshift of a school building. The children living in the country fared even worse, since they attended one or two teacher schools even poorer than the one at the village of Five Points.

Now the village children and country children living 6 or 7 miles from Five Points attend the same school, in a modern school building on 11 acres of land located about one-third of a mile from the center of the village.

There are four classrooms, four cloak rooms, a principal's office, and hallways on the first floor; and two classrooms and an auditorium seating several hundred people on the second floor. The base-

ment is divided into two parts. One part is subdivided into three apartments—a furnace room, a manual training room, and sanitary toilets for boys. The other part contains a room for domestic science and sanitary toilets for girls. There is sufficient room left for a playroom for primary children, which is used on rainy days. Every modern convenience is enjoyed by the teachers and pupil of the school. Electric lights, steam heat, and sanitary toilets make the building modern and in sharp contrast to the old building and to the dilapidated houses formerly attended by the country children.

The 11-acre tract of ground upon which the school is located is sufficiently large for a lawn, a garden, a demonstration plat, a playground for the little children, and athletic grounds for the older ones. Playgrounds have already been laid off, and plans have been outlined for practical work in agriculture.

One of the State school officials says:

> In the early spring of 1916 I visited the country schools, afterward consolidated with those at Five Points. The day was a fair one, and each teacher reported an attendance for that day to be about the average for the session. By school count there were 44 pupils in attendance at Five Points, 28 at one of the country schools, 26 at another, and 14 at another, making a total of 112 for all the schools in the consolidation. On the day of my visit one year later I found 190 pupils, or an increased attendance of 78. Four transportation wagons conveyed 90 children to school that day.
>
> The term of schools under the old plan was seven months, and five teachers were doing the work in four different schools. Under the consolidated school plan the term is nine months, and the work is done by six teachers [the increased enrollment making more teachers necessary].

Before consolidation the high-school enrollment was 13; now it is 52. The increase in enrollment in the elementary grades has been 68 per cent, and in the high schools 300 per cent, while the expense of conducting the school has increased only 50 per cent.

The increased enrollment and better attendance are due to the fact that older pupils who had lost interest in school because of the inefficiency of the one-teacher schools have again enrolled. Under the old plan only a year or two of high-school work was offered. Now the course is four years.

The location of the consolidated school at Five Points has proved a blessing not only to the children, but to the adults. The whole community, country and town, has been organized into the Five Points Community Association, in which young and old alike are eligible to membership. This organization holds meetings biweekly at the school building. The people do not meet merely for the sake of holding a meeting, but to discuss community problems and current topics. The work of the community association is carried on by committees. A good idea of it may be had from the following outline:

1. *A committee on public schools.*—The duty of this committee is to improve and beautify school premises; to increase the supply of school apparatus; to build up a library; to provide playground equipment: to encourage school attendance; to provide instruction for the illiterate and others desiring a common-school education, but who are unable to attend the day school; and to encourage school visitation by patrons.

2. *A committee on health and community sanitation.*—It is the duty of this committee to obtain united effort of the community to maintain sanitary conditions; to combat epidemics; to exterminate germ-carrying insects; to provide for the distribution of health bulletins; and to invite speakers from time to time to discuss health problems before the association.

3. *A committee on literary, musical, and social culture.*—This committee provides occasional literary and musical entertainments and social gatherings; has charge of the magazine exchange; arranges educational games; organizes and conducts a story-tellers' league and a reading circle.

4. *A committee on agriculture and home economics.*—This important committee cooperates with the county demonstration agent and other agencies established for the upbuilding of agricultural interests; improves home-life facilities in the community; arranges for farmers' educational meetings from time to time; plans the organization of pig, poultry, and canning clubs; and introduces approved systems of cooperative industries.

5. *A committee on finances.*—This committee considers the needs of every department of work and proposes quarterly budgets for the intelligent guidance of the association in making appropriations. It devises ways and means of securing funds for the prosecution of the association's work.

The biweekly meetings are usually begun with a short business session, after which the association separates into departments, conferences, and study classes. There is a class in current events, another for story telling and child training, and a farmers' round table conference. The members of the association naturally group themselves in certain classes. However, they are at liberty to attend any group meeting which they may desire.

After the departmental meetings, the entire association assembles in the school auditorium for literary and musical entertainment and for general conference or a social hour. This part of the program is varied from time to time.

These meetings occupy about two and a half hours. The average attendance since the organization of the association has been about 200 persons.

When there were several schools within a few miles of Five Points the community was divided. Now it works together, to the advantage of the village and of country people alike.

This one illustration shows how a decadent village community may be made alive by consolidating rural and village schools.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL BOARD.

Size.—In villages having an independent school system the number of school board members varies, but not to the same extent as in city school systems. Three or five members usually constitute a village school board. The experience of city school systems has demonstrated that the small board is preferable to the large one, and the tendency has been to reduce the sizes of city boards of education to not more than nine members. A village school system being simple, no one would advocate a board of more than five members. Many village schools are efficiently administered by a board of three members. In a small board responsibility can be definitely placed. The board can act as a committee of the whole and not through standing committees and discuss matters informally. The principal can sit at the table with the board and present and explain his plans to three or five members better than he can to a large board.

Term of office.—In many village school districts a majority of the school board is elected each year. In some districts all members of the board are elected at the same time every two or three years. A short term is not conducive to good schools; neither is complete renewal at the expiration of a term, no matter what its length. If the term is short, an entirely new board may be elected every few years, which tends to unsettle the policy of conducting the schools. When a new man is elected to board membership it takes him some months to learn conditions and the best way of meeting them. If there is an entirely new board, which is possible with entire renewal at the end of a term, there is no one to guide the new members, except possibly the principal of schools. There may, however, be a new principal; in which case there will be no experienced leadership. If a board is composed almost entirely of new members, the principal who has worked to educate his board so that certain reforms may be brought about may find that he has to begin all over again.

Method of choosing.—Practically all village school boards are elected by popular vote. In a few instances the mayor appoints the board members. The prevailing opinion is that school boards should be elected. If the territory included in the village school district

is larger than that of the village corporation, no other method should be considered. If the people vote directly for school-board members, the school question is brought directly to the attention of the public, while if the mayor or some of the village officials appoint the school board, the schools may be forgotten when the municipal officers are elected. If the mayor appoints the school board, it may listen to him in the management of the schools.

Board members should be elected at a special election held in the schoolhouse. By this method school-board members are more likely to be elected without regard to political parties. If elected at a regular election, partisan politics often enters into the choice of school boards. At a special election the voters exercise more care in voting for a candidate than at the regular election where village, county, and State officials are given more consideration than school officials.

Officers.—School boards usually organize with a president and a secretary from their own number. Where it is permissible for the board to elect a treasurer, he is generally chosen from their own number.

The only officer that should be chosen from the school-board membership is the president. If the county, township, or municipal treasurer is not custodian of the school funds, a trust company or a bank should be made the treasurer.

The village school principal may well be the clerk of the board. In large cities the secretary or clerk of the board is not a board member, but one skilled in accounts. He, with a clerical force, devotes all his time to the business affairs of the board. In the smaller cities school boards are beginning to make the superintendent's clerk the secretary of the board. In the village the principal can easily be the board's secretary. In the larger villages the stipend usually paid the clerk of the board should be used to employ, on part time, stenographic and clerical assistance for the principal. The clerk to the principal could keep the books of the board and assist in keeping other school records.

Function.—The function of the village school board is practically the same as that of the city school board. It represents the people in the management of their schools somewhat as a board of directors of a private corporation represents the stockholders.

In doing this the board legislates, decides upon policies of expansion, etc., and turns the technical execution of the work over to an expert manager or superintendent, who, in turn, names the other experts needed.

Since the dividends of a school system are not tangible, as are the dividends of a private corporation, school boards often do not use business methods in the administration of the schools. They go

along in a hit-or-miss fashion, each member considering himself fully qualified to give advice as to the execution of the policies adopted by the board.

The first duty of a village school board is to employ a superintendent or principal of schools and hold him responsible for the management of the schools. If a superintendent or principal refuses to assume such responsibility, he should be requested to resign, so that some one with more courage may be employed.

In order that there may be a clear understanding regarding the duties of the principal and other employees of the school board, a few rules should be adopted and a general scheme of organization adhered to.

The following rules regarding the duties of the principal are suggested:

1. The principal of schools shall be the executive officer of the board of education and shall have oversight of the work of all other employees of the school board.

2. He shall recommend teachers and other employees. No teacher, supervisor, or janitor shall be elected by the board who is not recommended by the principal.

3. He shall have full responsibility for the promotion, assignment, and transfer of teachers.

4. He shall be held responsible for the general efficiency of the school system, for the development of the teaching force, and for the growth and welfare of the pupils.

5. He shall be responsible for all rules and regulations governing the admission, transfer, classification, and promotion of pupils.

6. He shall prepare, distribute, and collect all blanks and reports required by law and such other blanks and reports as he shall deem necessary for the intelligent and systematic conduct of the schools.

7. He shall select and recommend suitable textbooks (if the State or county adoption system does not prevail) and supplementary books. No book or apparatus shall be adopted by the board which is not recommended by the principal.

8. He shall prepare and recommend to the board for adoption the course of study for the elementary and the high school (provided there is not a mandatory State or county course of study).

9. He shall make monthly and annual reports to the board relative to conditions in the schools, and shall make recommendations for their increased efficiency.

10. He shall be responsible for the methods of instruction and management used by the teachers and shall have authority to hold such meetings of teachers as he deems necessary for their instruction and guidance.

11. He shall at least once each term report to the board upon the general condition of the teaching and supervisory forces, and especially with reference to those teachers or supervisors whose services are not proving satisfactory.

12. He shall first pass upon all complaints of parents and others who may appeal from his decision to the school board.

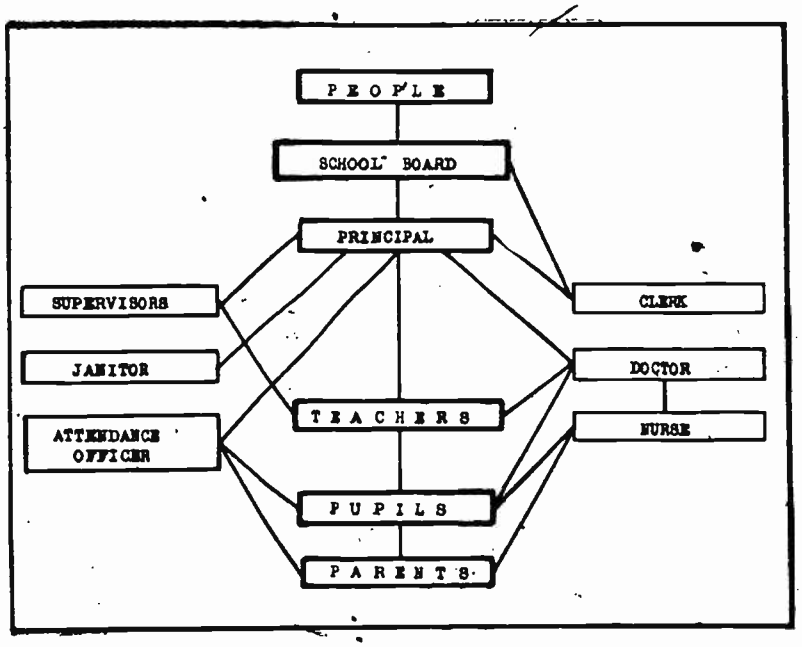
13. He shall have general oversight of the school property and report to the board what repairs are needed.

14. He shall have supervision of janitor work.

15. In order that the principal may comply with the foregoing rules, he should teach only part time in schools of fewer than 8 or 10 rooms, and in larger schools he should have practically all his time free for supervision.

Rules similar to the above help make clear the duties of the principal, but a principal who does nothing more than obey the rules laid down by a school board is a failure.

The proper relationship in a village school system may be illustrated as follows:



A further discussion of the relation of the principal and the school board in villages independent of the township may be found on page 24.

Business.—One of the weak points in the administration of many village schools is that business principles are often wholly ignored, school accounts are kept in a haphazard fashion, and public funds wastefully expended. No matter how small the school system, the clerk of the school board should keep a set of books showing amounts appropriated from different sources and to whom and for what purpose every dollar and cent has been paid. Public accounting requires as much care as private accounting.

Bookkeeping blanks based on the classification of expenditures following may be had from several publishing houses, or they may be printed by a local printer.

CLERK'S FINANCIAL RECORD.

EXPENSES INCURRED FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING ..... 19.... I. GENERAL CONTROL.

Warrant.		To whom issued.	Amount.	Board of Education. Clerk's Office.	School election. School census.	Educational administration.	Other expenses.	Total.	Supervision.
No.	Date.								

II. INSTRUCTION.					III AUXILIARY AGENCIES.		
Salaries of teachers.	Supplies used in instruction.	Text books.	Other expenditures of instruction.	Total.	Library.	Lectures and other auxiliary agencies.	Transportation.	Total.

IV. OPERATION OF PLANT.					V. MAINTENANCE OF PLANT.				
Janitor wages and supplies.	Fuel.	Water, light, power.	Other expenses of operation.	Total.	Repair and upkeep of buildings and grounds.	Repair and upkeep of equipment.	Insurance.	Other expenses.	Total.

Grand total current disbursements.	VI.		VII. CAPITAL OUTLAY.				PAYMENTS OF INDEBTEDNESS.		
	Depreciation of plant (estimated).	Final grand total current disbursements.	Land.	New building.	Additional equipment, alterations, etc.	Total.	Short time notes.	Bonded principal.	Debt interest.
	Red ink	Red ink							

By distributing expenses under the different headings, as teachers' salaries, textbooks, etc., it is possible to ascertain the proportion of funds expended for these purposes. Data can also be compiled showing cost per pupil enrolled and in average daily attendance for instruction, operation of plant, etc. Just what proportion of funds should be expended for each item is not definitely known, but a fair estimate based upon practice in small cities would be as follows. and probably would not vary much from this for villages: Teaching and supervision, 70 to 75 per cent of the total current disbursements; supervision alone, 7 to 10 per cent; teaching alone, 60 to 68 per cent; janitors' salaries, 5 to 7 per cent; textbooks and supplies, 4 to 6 per cent; fuel, 5 to 7 per cent; repairs, 3 to 5 per cent.

Many school boards waste public funds by purchasing maps, charts, and apparatus that are not used or that have no educational

value. Maps, charts, and apparatus are necessary, but it is unnecessary to pay exorbitant prices. No apparatus should be purchased without first being recommended by the principal of schools. If school boards would adhere to this practice, more money would be available for teachers' salaries, and apparatus suitable for school needs would be purchased.

THE VILLAGE SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL AND HIS WORK.

A supervising principal is one who does not teach or who teaches less than half time. Any principal who teaches most or all of the day should be classed as a teacher; probably head teacher or teaching principal would be the correct term.

No other school position carries with it a greater diversity of work than the supervising principalship of a village school. In a large or medium sized city school system the work of the superintendent is somewhat specialized, since he devotes most of his time to the larger problems of administration and organization. He supervises indirectly through his assistant superintendents, supervisors, and principals. In a small system of schools the principal must do a score or more of things. He must be an administrator, an organizer, and a supervisor. He must be an investigator, a school surveyor, a school-efficiency expert, a playground director, and a general utility man. He must write letters, usually without the aid of a stenographer; he must meet people with grievances and keep his temper; he must settle difficulties that arise between teacher and pupil, between pupil and pupil, and between teacher and parent; he must be the leader of educational thought in his community, educating school boards, teachers, and taxpayers as to the educational needs of the village. Thus one might continue to enumerate almost indefinitely the many things that require the direct attention of the supervising principal of a village school.

QUALIFICATIONS.

Since the duties of a village school principal are so multifarious, he should be a person of broad education. In general, he should be a college graduate who has had several courses in a school of education. School boards should not consider a young college graduate for a village school principalship who has not elected courses in education; yet comparatively few of the young men and women just out of college and applying for the principalship of village schools have made any extended study of school administration and supervision, especially of the administration and supervision of village schools.

The preparation necessary for the principalship of a village school should include a study of such school rather than a study of city schools. He should not only make a study of the village school but of the village community. Probably more young village school principals fail because they do not understand village habits and customs than for any other reason.

Since the scheme of organization of the village school is exceedingly simple, the principal deals directly with teachers and parents. He is also close to the pupils, knowing most of them by name and where they live in the village. Thus the administration of a village school system becomes largely a personal matter. The principal should for this reason know village life, its psychology and its sociology. He should know what forces are at work and how they can be manipulated and directed in the administration of the schools and in the socialization of the village community.

RELATION TO SCHOOL BOARD.

In villages having school boards of their own the school principal should stand in practically the same relation to the school board as does the superintendent of a city school system. He should nominate teachers; select textbooks if in a State where there is local adoption; prepare courses of study, if there is not a county or State course that he must follow; and even then he must elaborate and work out in detail such course. He must be free to assign teachers to the grades for which they are best suited. He should also prepare the annual budget for the consideration of the school board. These are some of the administrative duties of a village principal, and unless the school board requires them of him, it is wasting public funds by employing a principal. If, for instance, the teachers are not nominated by the principal but by the members of the school board, the teaching corps may not yield to supervision, owing allegiance to the school-board member who nominated them. If the school-board members are inclined to meddle in matters of school discipline and instruction, the teachers naturally look to them and ignore the principal.

The relation of a village school board to the principal of schools does not differ materially from the relation that a board of bank directors sustains to the cashier or the president of the bank, or that the board of directors of any private corporation sustains to the superintendent that it employs. The stockholders in a private corporation elect a board of directors to look after their interests in the conduct of the enterprise. These directors know but little about the technical details of the business they are empowered to administer. Few, if any, could do the work of one of the clerks or

mechanics, much less supervise it: so they employ a superintendent to do this and hold him responsible for results. As another illustration, the relation of the board of directors of a hospital and the superintendent of the hospital may be mentioned. This board may be composed of laymen or of laymen and physicians, who appoint a superintendent of the hospital. None of the board members would think of interfering with the superintendent in his assignment of nurses, in administering medicine, and in other matters that are purely professional. If, in the opinion of the board, the superintendent is not skillful in his supervision, he is requested to resign and another is employed.

Some school board members are inclined to meddle in strictly professional matters, as school discipline, methods of instruction, promotion of pupils. Partly for this reason many village schools have remained on a low plane. If the directors of a business corporation attempt to dictate regarding matters upon which they are uninformed, or if the superintendent appointed by the board of directors of a private corporation is a figurehead, the corporation fails. The result is direct and the failure is known to all. If the principal of a village school is a figurehead only, the school fails; but the fact may not be known by the public, which often does not recognize what the duties of the school board and of the principal are and what a school should be. In brief, no board of directors, whether of a public or a private corporation, should attempt to do the work which it is paying an expert to do.

In county and township school systems, where the county or township school board administers the village schools, the principal should be subordinate to the county or township superintendent. He should have no direct relation to the school board, the board holding him responsible for results through the county or township superintendent. In other words, the village school principal in a county or township organization should have the same relation to the school board and the superintendent as the principal of a building or ward school in a city system has to the city school board and the city superintendent of schools.

SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION.

Notwithstanding the fact that there are a hundred and one matters that require the attention of a village school principal, he should give most of his attention to the supervision of instruction. Much of the poor teaching one finds in the village schools throughout the country is due largely to a lack of supervision or to the wrong kind. Of course, an exception must be made of those villages where politics, church membership, nepotism, and such things play a part in the selection of teachers, but in a village where the principal

selects his own teachers and exercises due care in their selection something is wrong if many fail. There is a lack of supervision, or poor methods are employed. If many pupils fail under the same teacher year after year, the principal is not slow to declare that the teaching is poor. It may be asserted with equal emphasis that if many teachers fail year after year suspicion should point strongly toward the principal. A village school principal is responsible for the success or failure of the school system. Since success or failure depends largely upon the kind of teaching, he must see to it that teachers are employing good methods. This he can not do unless he devotes much of his time to classroom visitation, to an analysis of results, and to conference with teachers.

The methods of supervision employed by two village school principals illustrate the difference between good and poor methods. Each of these villages employs about 20 teachers; the academic and the professional preparation of the teachers in each village are practically the same. During the year the principal in one of these villages visits each classroom about 15 times, averaging 15 minutes each visit. Thus, approximately, 75 hours, or 12 school days out of 180, are devoted to visiting teachers for the purpose of supervising instruction. In contrast the other principal visits each classroom 25 times a year, averaging an hour at each visit, a total of 83 school days. In the former school the principal is not at all familiar with the methods employed by the different teachers nor with the results obtained; in the latter school the principal knows what each teacher is doing and how she is doing it. In the one village the object of the school is defeated to a large extent because the teaching is poor, chiefly on account of a lack of supervision. The principal is tied to his desk or is looking after details. In the other village the principal does not neglect necessary details, but he makes them subordinate to the larger matter of supervision of instruction, attending to details before and after school hours and on Saturday mornings.

In many villages salaries are so low that well-qualified teachers can not be obtained, the median salary for village school teachers being between $500 and $600. Young inexperienced girls who have had little or no academic or professional preparation must be employed. These must be trained in service. Even normal school and college graduates, though they may have had the best instruction, need to be broken into real school life situations. They need to be shown how to apply their theories.

Before a principal can help his teachers he must diagnose classroom procedure and methods of instruction. He must observe the teaching to see whether it conforms to certain standards. At the outset a principal should inform the teachers of the standards by which he is going to judge their instruction. He may, for example, judge classroom instruction by the standards set up by Dr. Frank

McMurry, namely, (1) motive on the part of the pupils; (2) consideration of values by pupils; (3) attention to organization by pupils; (4) initiative by pupils. The principal may, when visiting a classroom, ask himself the following questions: Has the teacher reduced routine, as the passing of papers, leaving the room at recess periods, etc., to habit, so that there may be no waste of time? Is she supplementing and illustrating the text, or is she bound down to textbook questions and answers? Is she arousing interest in the class to such an extent that the pupils ask questions? Does she make careful and definite assignments of lessons?

A principal who desires a more detailed method of judging the efficiency of teachers may find the following efficiency record card, prepared by the department of education of the University of Chicago, helpful:

EFFICIENCY RECORD.

DETAILED RATINGS		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								
	15. Academic preparation								
	16. Professional preparation								
	17. Grasp of subject matter								
	18. Understanding of children								
	19. Interest in the life of the school								
II. *Social and professional equipment*—	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.

Some such standards would make it clear to teachers what is expected of them. It has happened that teachers have failed of reelection and have not known why. If the principal would establish certain standards, it would be comparatively easy to point out wherein a teacher has failed. If there are no standards, the teacher can easily defend herself by saying, "I did not know that I was expected to do this."

Besides subjective standards there should be objective ones, a number of which have been prepared and are in common use. By using such tests a principal has a measure for comparing results within his school system and with other school systems in arithmetic, spelling, penmanship, and a few other subjects. If, for instance, the pupils of one teacher fall below the standard score in an arithmetic test and fail to make the progress that they should in a definite period, the principal is forced to the conclusion that something is wrong, that the course of study is not suited to the age and grade of the pupils or that the teaching is inferior. Such test will help the principal diagnose. In a recent school survey it was found that the score made in spelling was below standard in practically every grade. The cause of the poor showing was found to be in the method of selecting the words for study rather than in the methods of teaching, which were considered good. Unusual instead of common words were as a rule selected by the teachers, with the result that the children failed on a list of words in common use.

Results of standard tests.—Several principals and others who believe in much drill in arithmetic and other subjects say that standard tests have been eye openers, in that they have proved that drill in abstract work beyond a certain point is not only futile, but that it actually reduces accuracy, and that much drill in the tables and combinations, while it gives a higher speed, affects accuracy but slightly and is pretty sure to be fatal to a proper growth of reasoning. These tests have helped to show that good results in learning number combinations, acquiring skill in penmanship, and other mechanical subjects depend more upon the method of drill than upon the amount. Such tests should be used only as a means of diagnosing.

The value of such tests may be summarized as follows:

1. Pupils, teachers, and principals are enabled to see how far each pupil has progressed and where he is with regard to grade standard.

2. Individual differences of pupils in the same grade may be strikingly portrayed.

3. The particular weaknesses and strengths of individual pupils may be discovered.

4. A teacher learns where to economize in drill and the best methods to use in drill.

5. Principals and teachers may see how their schools compare with others.

Having made a study of classroom instruction by means of observation and by standard tests, the principal is then ready to prescribe. Supervision is more than inspection, more than diagnosis. A principal who gets no further than this may be likened to a physician who diagnoses a case and then fails to prescribe, which is as bad as prescribing without diagnosing. If teachers are using poor methods, if results fall below standard, a remedy must be prescribed. There must be constructive not destructive criticism; do, not don't. In fact often the least said about the faults of a teacher, the better. To mention a fault may make a teacher self-conscious and cause her to think first of how not to do, instead of how to do. That supervision is not effective "which observes only the faults, sets them down in a notebook, learns them by rote, and then casts them into the teacher's teeth." Pupils do not learn to spell by seeing words incorrectly spelled or by first thinking of an incorrect spelling. So it is with teachers in using methods of teaching. A fault is best eradicated by substitution, by substituting a good method for a poor one. To lead a teacher to do this is the difficult part, yet the absolutely necessary part in supervision.

Several methods by which a principal can help teachers may be suggested. The private conference to discuss the teacher's own particular problems is without doubt one of the best methods. If a supervisor has made careful note of her methods of instruction, he can without mere faultfinding lead her to do some thinking. Many of the foolish practices in teaching are due to the fact that the teacher does not have any guiding principles, or else does not apply them when face to face with a class of real boys and girls. If a principal will make use of the teacher's problems, he can help her grow. He might tell her what to do in a particular case, but to have her grow in power he should lead her to discover what to do, to discover guiding principles in teaching and classroom management.

Besides the private conference there should be the grade meeting, but in a small school system there are so few teachers teaching the same grade that such meetings would in many instances be nothing more than private conferences. Teachers of two or three grades should, however, be called together from time to time so that the third-grade teacher, say, would have an opportunity of becoming familiar with the aims of the first, second, and fourth grades, and so that the second-grade teacher might become acquainted with what the first and third grades are doing. Such meetings tend to make a teacher more than merely a teacher of a first or second grade. She

realizes more clearly that her work is only a part of the general scheme and in order to teach intelligently she should know what the whole scheme is. Without such meetings a third grade teacher, for example, is not likely to know what her children read in the first and second grades nor the amount or kind of number work done. If she has these facts, she can better observe the dictum: "Proceed from the known to the related unknown."

The teachers' meeting, where all the teachers assemble, has a place in every school system, and especially in the smaller systems, where there are no building or ward principals. At such meetings topics bearing upon general classroom management, general principles of teaching, and new movements in education should be discussed by the principal and teachers, by the principal from another village, by the county superintendent, or by a normal-school principal or teacher, or by a college professor of education. It is a good plan to have some teacher review a school-magazine article or a book on education. The general meeting can profitably be made a seminar, with the principal in charge.

Another type of meeting may be suggested—the nonprofessional—which adds variety and tends to have the teacher look away from his work to other interests. At such meetings topics of the day may be discussed. Some one—as the doctor, the lawyer, the banker, the merchant—may be invited to talk of his profession or business. A musical and literary program adds interest. There may be a social hour over the teacups. Teachers' meetings should not be confined wholly to "shop talk."

Too much emphasis can not be placed upon these types of conferences or teachers' meetings as a means of improving teaching practice, provided they have a high aim and emphasize principles rather than devices, though a discussion of devices has a place if the underlying principle is discovered.

A principal should give much time to preparing for a teachers' meeting. He should try to formulate the aims to be attained. If he does not make such preparation and comes to a meeting without having given it any thought, it will do harm rather than good. There will be no interest. Teachers' meetings can be made inspiring instead of stultifying, depending upon the amount of thought and planning expended upon them.

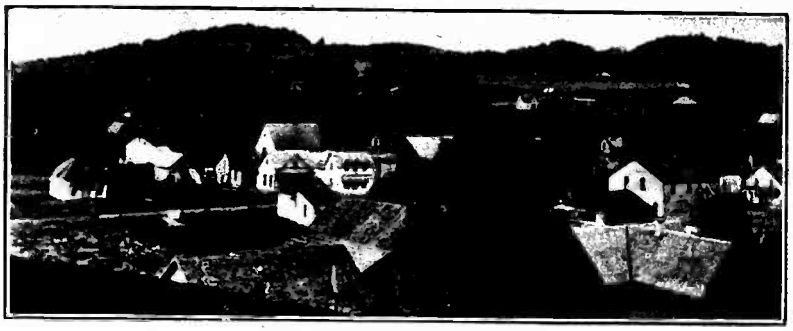
Another means of improving the quality of instruction is a carefully planned course of study. If there is no county or State course, the principal, with the assistance of his teachers, should work out a course. If there is a county or State course, it is usually very general and somewhat lacking in necessary detail. Such courses, however, usually afford a good basis upon which a principal may build. A course of study worked out in considerable detail is as necessary for

the guidance of a teacher as a blue print is for a mechanic. If such course is provided, it will promote good teaching in many ways, among which may be mentioned the following: By giving as explicit direction as possible regarding the aim and purposes of teaching the several subjects; by organizing the subject matter around topics selected by specialists in the several subjects as of greatest importance, in order that teachers may not waste time in nonessentials, and in order that time may be saved by correlation whenever possible; by including suggestive lessons illustrating the fundamental principles in the methods suggested; by indicating materials available for supplementing and illustrating the text; by including suggestive outlines for teaching such subjects as geography and history.

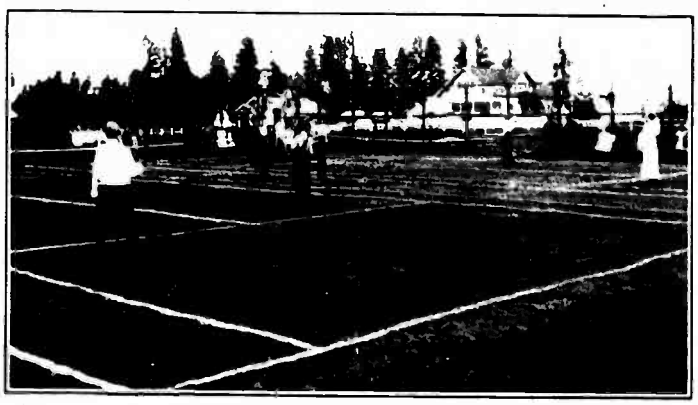
In a small school system such course can be planned with the assistance of all the teachers. No better seminar topic could be suggested for a year's work in teachers' meetings than that of "working out a course of study," or syllabus. Nothing else would tend more to give the teachers a broader vision of their work. Much reading would be necessary. This would afford a motive for reading educational literature. The principal should, of course, direct the lines of study in preparing a course of study in which all the teachers take part, and at its completion his would be the last word. A caution is necessary. After a course of study has been prepared, it should not be considered final or good for all time. No sooner has a course of study been formulated than it must be revised. In other words, the course of study should be changing as our knowledge of the child becomes more nearly perfect and as the economic and social conditions of the community and of the country change.

Another means of improving instruction is for the principal to prepare a few questions for an occasional examination of the pupils. The term examination is no longer popular, from the fact that examinations have too often been the sole mode of judging whether a pupil should be promoted. The chief function of an examination question list is to help give direction to the teaching.

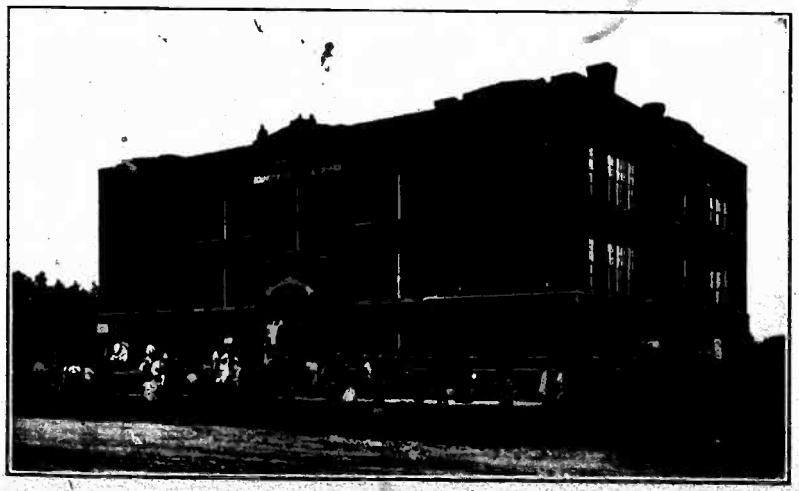
If the teacher makes the teaching of geography and history a mere mechanical process by asking the pupils to commit to memory numerous facts without bringing out their relation, a properly prepared set of questions will awaken the teacher to the fact that her pupils know nothing about the subject. As soon as a teacher discovers the type of question that the principal asks she will begin to use the same type in her teaching. Many teachers who are teaching unrelated facts are doing so because their principal asks for such in all the examination questions. If he would frame his questions so as to call for an organization of the facts or to call for some application it would not be long until the teachers would give up the habit of asking for detached facts. In this connection it must be empha-



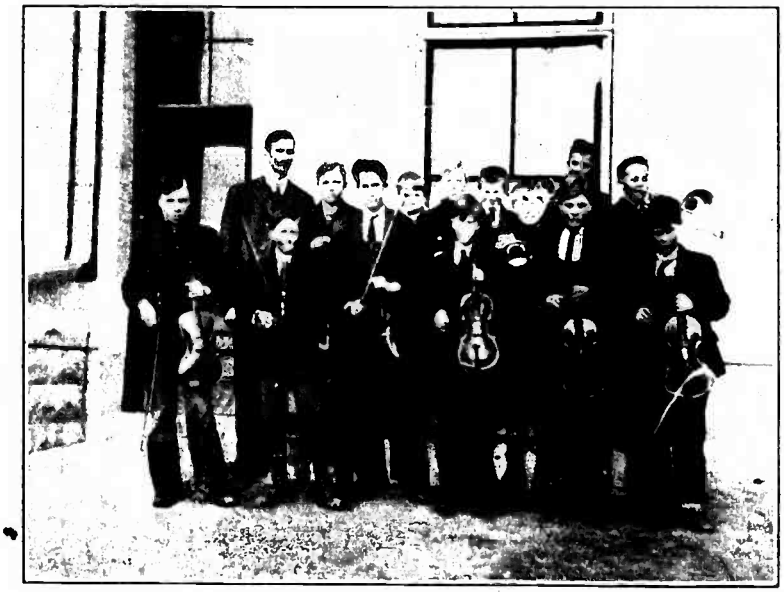
A. A COUNTRY VILLAGE.



B. VILLAGE SCHOOL PLAYGROUND.

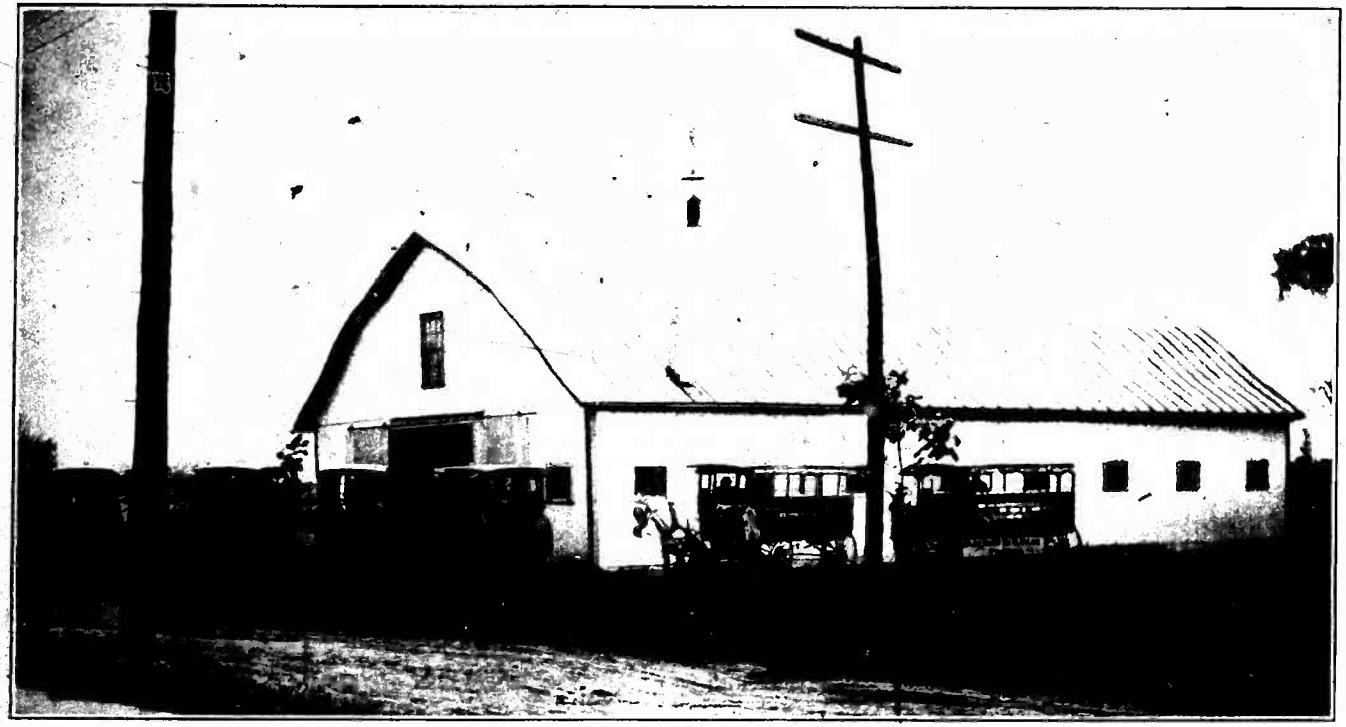


C. VILLAGE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL.



A. THE VILLAGE SCHOOL ORCHESTRA.

B. HOME ECONOMICS CLASS.



SCHOOL BARN AT VILLAGE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL.

HAULING COUNTRY CHILDREN TO THE TOWN SCHOOL.

sized that a principal should not give these examinations as tests for the promotion of pupils. They may in a general way be taken into consideration but not as counting entirely, or as a half or a fourth.

Still another method of improving teachers in service is for the principal and teachers to make a survey of the schools and of the community. One of the reasons many teachers fail is because they do not understand the community in which they are teaching. In another section suggestions are presented regarding the making of school and community surveys.

In general a principal may aid his teachers by holding private conferences with teachers by grade meetings, by general teachers' meetings, by working out a course of study with the assistance of the teachers, by giving an occasional test made up of questions that involve the use of the facts learned, and by making a survey of the schools and the community with the cooperation of the teacher. The principal can thus help his teachers if he does not rank her along with the factory girl who feeds pieces of metal into a machine and sees only one small part of the finished product. They should be considered just as capable of grasping general principles of teaching and of applying them to specific problems as the supervisor himself. When a principal views in this way his work of supervising teachers, he has made a good beginning.

INTERESTING THE COMMUNITY.

In reply to a letter addressed to principals of village schools asking for a list of problems they most often meet nearly every principal said that one of his great problems is, "How to interest the community in its schools." It is evident that, unless a community takes an interest in its schools, the stream of revenue does not flow freely, teachers are poorly paid, the teaching is of poor quality, discipline is difficult, attendance is poor, and so on.

In order to have a village interested in its schools the principal must be awake. He must take an active part in all community affairs and be a leader of educational thought.

One of the important functions of the village school principal is to be a leader in the improvement of educational conditions. In too many instances he is content to close the school building after the day's work and then to drift along with the sluggish current of village thought in educational and other subjects. Village community life is simple, but in most instances the members do not work together. An organizer and director of social and educational life is needed. The principal of the village school district,

whether it embraces the village proper or the entire community, should be more than a pedagogue. He should be an educator in every sense of the term, a community leader, not a follower, a guide setting up ideals of accomplishment.

A word of caution is needed, however. Some village school principals in attempting to be leaders try to do everything themselves. A good leader has others do the work. If he does not, he will soon be broken down under a mass of detail. If, for instance, the principal wishes to have community meetings, it is not necessary that he be president of the community organization. The best plan is to have some member made president. The more persons that can be set to work, the better. Then, too, if the principal attempts to do everything himself, self-reliance on the part of the community is not developed. If the principal should leave the community, no leaders would have been developed. The work of the community leader is to develop leaders.

The business man is the first person that the village school principal should attempt to interest. There are very few business men who will not gladly support the schools if they are shown why more money should be expended. Many principals fail because they do not take the time or think it necessary to interest business men in the schools by means of school facts. One principal reports that he interested the business men in his village by asking them to make suggestions for the improvement of the schools. He invited them to send him a full statement on the following points:

In what respect do you find the pupils employed by you to be deficient? State fully and frankly the weaknesses of the public-school product. What suggestion can you give to help us in our work? According to the report of that principal, considerable interest was manifested by the business men, who are now speaking with approval of the work of the schools.

A village principal should be a member of the business man's club from the fact that he is in charge of the principal business in the village, the management of its schools. In a rural community the principal should affiliate himself with farmers' organizations and take part in farmers' institutes and other meetings of the farmers.

Another method of interesting a community in its schools is publicity. A principal who is managing a village system of schools need not fear to turn on the searchlight in regard to school expenditures. The sentiment is growing that the public should know how its money is expended and what the results are. There is no other way in a democracy.

Few village school principals publish school reports in pamphlet form for distribution among the taxpayers of the community. Such

reports would be helpful. If, however, it is not possible to publish an annual report, the facts that would be embodied in such report should be published in the local and county newspapers. Even if a report is published, the newspaper should be used to give wider publicity to the facts in the report. Some of the facts that should be embodied in a village school report are listed on page 37.

A principal misses a great opportunity if he does not use the local and county newspapers to keep his schools before the public. Several principals have cooperated with editors of the local newspapers in an occasional educational issue. Many newspapers are glad to publish the names of the pupils who were not absent from school during the month. All school entertainments and community activities of the schools should be noted. The gist of papers presented at teachers' meetings should be published. If a school man from another village, the county superintendent, a college president, or a normal school principal visits the schools, the fact should be noted and if he addresses the teachers or pupils the important points should be given to the press. If any teachers are pursuing university extension courses or attending summer schools, the fact should be made known. This will show the public that the teachers are progressive. By publishing a list of teachers taking advanced work in academic or professional subjects and by commending them for this, some of those who have been inclined to stand still may feel that they, too, should become more progressive.

Some principals, however, object to using the newspapers on the ground that they are advertising themselves. A principal who was complaining about lack of interest among the parents of his town, when asked whether he reported the progress and needs of the schools through the local paper replied that he did not believe in advertising himself. He failed to grasp the idea that school news is not for the purpose of boosting a principal, but to keep the schools before the public and to call attention to their needs so that they may become more efficient.

In at least one school the principal addresses a monthly mimeographed letter to the parents. In these letters he discusses, among other things, the necessity of punctuality, regular attendance, and methods of preventing diseases among school children.

That the schools can work to advantage through women's civic improvement clubs and through parent-teacher associations has been thoroughly demonstrated. Such clubs are often instrumental in helping to broaden the scope of village school work, as in the introduction of courses in manual training and home economics.

Special visiting days for parents and school exhibits may be mentioned as other means of helping arouse interest in the schools.

THE SELF-SURVEY.

Previous mention has been made of the necessity of keeping the public informed regarding the condition and needs of the schools.

In order to present these facts the principal must make a thorough study of every phase of his schools and of the community. Many of the city and State school systems have been surveyed by persons employed especially for the purpose. Since few villages have funds available to pay for the services or even the expenses of a committee of experts, there have been few surveys of village schools. The fact that no funds are available for such work need not prevent a village school principal from making a survey of his school system. Every principal should himself conduct a continuous survey to discover the weakness and the strength of his school, and to invent means for strengthening the weak points and for enlarging the scope of the schools to meet community needs. Possibly principals in several villages could form a group, and by cooperating render one another much valuable assistance. If, for instance, 10 principals were to cooperate in making a study of classroom achievements, school attendance, retardation, unit costs, etc., norms could be established for these 10 villages. It would be an excellent plan for a group of principals to make a survey of these schools with the advice and cooperation of the school of education of the State university or of some other university. When the survey is completed, it would be possible for each principal to see how his school varies from the norm in unit costs, etc., and to discover ways of improving his school. The teachers in the village should be enlisted in a self-survey of the schools so that they may become better acquainted with conditions and not be mere teachers of a certain grade.

Several illustrations of self-surveys in small school systems may be given. The report of the principal of schools at Curwensville, Pa., shows what is possible for a principal in a small town to do to present to the public evidence of what the schools are doing and of their needs. The principal, in his report, explains as follows why he made a survey of his schools:

> Due to the severe criticism thrust into the ears of school officials, both as to our own as well as to schools generally, we were very much interested to learn the true condition in Curwensville. We firmly believe in surveys, but in a small city school system it is almost beyond the financial grasp to hire an expert. So we determined to conduct an investigation and deal with problems as best we could.

Among the points investigated and reported upon were age distribution of pupils, promotion, medical inspection, achievements of pupils as determined by standard tests, junior and senior high schools, and costs.

An interesting example of an effort of a small public-school system to "survey" itself is found in "A Study: The Dansville (N. Y.) High School," by the supervising principal. This investigation consumed about 16 months of the principal's spare time and grew out of his feeling that the high school was not doing its proper work in comparison with the high schools in neighboring villages about the size of Dansville. When the work, which was aided to some extent by the teachers in the school, was completed it was presented to the board of education, by whose order it was published, so that it might be presented to the public.

The study led to 11 conclusions, which were offered not as "a program for immediate" action, but as "a sort of guide for the future." These conclusions pointed out the need of increasing the salary scale of teachers; a good library in or near the school building to supplement the work in the grades, and particularly that in the junior and senior high schools; the addition of a teacher trained in giving tests for mental deficiency; the addition of a department of agriculture and horticulture, and in home making; readjustment of the curriculum; the appointment of supervisors of play; more active concern about medical inspection; frequent parents' meetings; the organization of a group of mothers of children in the lower grades; a wider use of the school plant by broadening the work of the night school; and enlarging the district so as to increase the school revenue.

If every principal were to make a similar study of his school system it would be possible for him to formulate a plan for the development of his schools.

Outline for self-survey.—A principal undertaking to make a survey of his schools will find the following outline helpful. Part I suggests points to be studied in connection with the school itself and Part II the points to be studied regarding the community:

PART I. THE SCHOOLS.

I. *Efficiency of the Schools.*

1. How the school holds pupils.

a. Number of children 14 to 18 years of age in village and per cent in school.

b. Number of children 6 to 14 years of age in village and per cent in school.

c. Ratio of pupils above compulsory age limit to those below it. How this ratio has changed during the past five years.

d. Number of pupils for each 100 beginners dropping out of school, at each age, at each grade; number of those leaving to enter school elsewhere; number for other causes.

e. Per cent of those entering the first grade who complete the elementary-school course; the high-school course.

I. *Efficiency of the Schools*—Continued.

1. How the school holds pupils—Continued.

f. Per cent of those completing the elementary schools to enter high school.

g. Per cent of those entering high school to complete the course.

h. Per cent of high-school graduates who enter college; standing in college.

i. Regularity of attendance. Average daily attendance based on number belonging; average daily attendance based on enrollment; average daily attendance based on school population.

j. How school has improved during past five years in holding children in school.

2. Progress of pupils through the school.

a. Per cent of children of normal age for grade.

b. Per cent of children over age for grade.

c. Per cent of children under age for grade.

d. Per cent who fail of promotion in first grade, second grade, etc.

e. Per cent of failures in the different subjects.

f. Number of years it takes each pupil to complete the course of study.

g. Kind of work done by pupils repeating a grade in subjects in which they failed and in subjects passed.

h. Causes of failures: Irregular attendance, frequent changes of schools, etc.

i. How to lessen retardation.

j. How much retardation has been reduced during past five years.

3. How instruction in the schools reacts upon the home and lives of the pupils, especially instruction in music, art, literature, manual training, and domestic science.

4. What those who have graduated from the high school within the past 5 or 10 years are doing; those who have graduated from the grammar school; those who left the grades without graduating; those who left high school without graduating.

5. Ability of pupils in different subjects as determined by standard tests.

6. Strong and weak points in teaching as determined by classroom visitation.

7. How pupil's time is economized through course of study and through classroom methods.

8. What the school is doing to direct pupils toward vocations. What more can it do?

9. Provisions for exceptional children.

II. *Administration and Supervision.*

1. Cost per pupil in elementary school and high school. Compare with cost in other villages.

2. Cost per pupil recitation in high school, in the elementary school.

3. Amount of real wealth in village for every dollar spent for school maintenance. Compare with other villages.

4. Assessed valuation is what part of actual valuation? Compare with other villages.

5. Present tax rate for schools.

6. Bonded indebtedness for schools and for other purposes.

7. Amount of local school tax paid by owners of real estate whose assessed valuation is $5,000 or more.

8. Per cent of total school moneys received from State, county, and village.

II. *Administration and Supervision*—Continued.

9. Per cent of school moneys paid by business not owned principally by citizens—as railroads and industrial, mining, and commercial enterprises.
10. Possibility and feasibility of extending village school district so that small country schools may be consolidated with village schools.
11. Authority and duties of principal. List of things principal does in course of a week.

III. *Teachers:*

1. Academic preparation.
2. Professional preparation.
3. Number of years of experience within system; in other systems.
4. Ways in which teachers are improving themselves. What principal can do to help them improve.
5. Per cent of teachers leaving the school system each year and cause for leaving.
6. Salary schedule: How it tends to make teachers progressive. How salary schedules compare with those in other villages.

IV. *Buildings.*[1]

1. Heating and ventilation.
2. Lighting.
3. Seating.
4. Equipment.
5. How adapted to community use.
6. Janitorial service.

V. *Hygiene and Sanitation.*

1. Are hygienic and sanitary conditions standard?
2. The schools' responsibility for the health of children.
3. Medical inspection and school-nurse service.

PART II.—THE COMMUNITY.

I. *The People.*

1. Racial and national elements.
2. What the people do for a living. List of occupations and number engaged in each.
   a. Education and training required for occupations in the community.
   b. How much of this is provided by the school.
3. Social and recreational life.
   a. Of young children.
   b. Of high-school boys and girls.
   c. Of young men and women no longer in school.
   d. Of adults.
   e. Amount spent on amusements, moving-picture shows, etc. Compare with amount spent on schools.
   f. Provision for recreational activities through public library, lecture courses, clubs, Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, community music, dramatics.

II. *Extent of Village Community.*

1. Population within village corporation.
2. Population outside corporate limits using village as trading center, church center, school center.

[1] This outline for a building survey is very general. The person making a study of the school building should provide himself with a Standard Building Score Card.

The principal who makes a study of some or all of the points suggested in the foregoing outline will have something concrete to present to his school board and to the public. If, for instance, the school is now holding pupils better than it has been, the fact should be shown. Unless the principal collects such data and tabulates them, he does not know whether the holding power of his school is improving.

Tables and graphs should be presented to help impress the facts upon the minds of the school board and of the public.

Tables for a school report or self-survey.—The following illustrates the type of table that a principal may well include in his annual report.

A table and a graph showing the distribution of attendance is much better than a statement showing what per cent the attendance is of the enrollment. The table may be arranged as follows:

Distribution of attendance.

Period of attendance.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Per cent of whole number.
Attending less than 10 days				
10 to 19 days				
20 to 29 days				
30 to 39 days				
(And so on for the remainder of the term.)				
Total (equal enrollment for term)				

Comparison should be made with attendance of previous years.

In many schools few teachers know what per cent of the pupils fail by grades in the different subjects. A knowledge of these facts would assist in formulating a course of study. If, for instance, 20 per cent of the children in the second grade fail in arithmetic and 5 per cent in reading, it is evident that something is wrong. The promotion rate for the school should be known. If on an average 90 per cent of the pupils are promoted, only 478 out of 1,000 children entering the first grade would go through the eight grades without failing.

The table may be arranged as follows:

Per cent failures, by studies and grades.

Pupils.	Reading.	Spelling.	Language.	Arithmetic.	History.	Geography.
FIFTH GRADE.[1]						
B Boys						
B Girls						
B Total						
A Boys						
A Girls						
A Total						
Per cent of failures on enrollment for term						

[1] The same form may be used for other grades.

A similar table should be prepared to show per cent of failures in the several high-school subjects.

Another table showing nonpromotion by grades and causes should be prepared thus:

Nonpromotion, by grades and causes.

Pupils.	Irregular attendance.	Physical defects.	Personal illness.	Mental incapacity.	Indifference.
..... GRADE [1]					
B { Boys					
B { Girls					
B { Total					
A { Boys					
A { Girls					
A { Total					
Grand total { Boys					
Grand total { Girls					
Grand total { Total					
Per cent of total					

[1] Same form for each grade.

In compiling the age-grade data, children of the first grade 6 and 7 years of age are considered normal; all 8 years of age and over, over age. In the second grade, children under 7 years of age are considered under age; all 7 and 8 years of age, normal; and all 9 or more years of age, over age; and so on throughout the grades. A table should be prepared showing the per cent under age, normal, and over age; also a table showing the number and per cent of children over age in two and three or more years. These data should be compared with like data for several years previous to see to what extent retardation has been reduced.

The following are forms for tabulating other data regarding a village school system:

Enrollment, promotions, nonpromotion, by grades.

Pupils.	..... grade.[1] B.	A.	Total.	Total, all grades.
Enrollment for term:				
In division for first time				
Previously in division				
Leaving school				
Enrollment at date of this report				
Per cent enrollment at date on enrollment for term				
Promotions:				
Per cent on enrollment at date				
Per cent on enrollment for term				
Nonpromotions:				
From in division first time				
From previously in division				
Per cent nonpromotions on enrollment at date				
Per cent nonpromotions on enrollment for term				

[1] Similar columns to be inserted for all other grades.

Distribution of enrollment at date of this report, by ages and grades.[1]

Ages.	Grades.																							
	First.			Second.			Third.			Fourth.			Fifth.			Sixth.			Seventh.			Eighth.			Total.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
6 years																										
7 years																										
8 years																										
9 years																										
10 years																										
11 years																										
12 years																										
13 years																										
14 years																										
15 years																										
16 years																										
17 years																										
18 years																										
19 years																										
20 years																										
Total by grades																										
Below normal age																										
Normal age																										
Above normal age																										

[1] Give age Sept. 1.

A permanent record card should be on file showing certain facts regarding each pupil. The following form is suggested:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD SYSTEM—PROMOTION RECORD.

This card is to pass from teacher to teacher or from school to school as the pupil is promoted or transferred. It is to be filled out and sent to the principal's office when any change is made requiring a change in the office records. It is then to be sent to the teacher who has the pupil.

(a) School.	(b) Date of admission	(c) Age Sept. 1 Yrs.	(c) Age Sept. 1 Mos.	(d) Grade.	(e) Room.	(f) Days present.	(g) Health.	(h) Conduct.	(i) Scholarship

(1) L. Last name..... (2) First name and initial.....

(3) Place of birth..... (4) Date of birth. (5) Vaccinated.

(6) Name of parent or guardian. (7) Occupation of parent or guardian.

.....

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD SYSTEM—ADMISSION, DISCHARGE, AND PROMOTION CARD.

To be kept for every pupil and sent with the pupil when he is transferred to any school, either public or private, in the city or outside the city. Great care should be used to have the names complete and correct.

Write all dates as follows: 1912-9-25.

(8) Residence. (Use one column at a time. Give new residence when pupil is transferred.)		(9) Date of discharge.	(10) Age. Yrs.	Mos.

When a pupil is permanently discharged to work, to remain at home, or because of death, permanent illness, or commitment to an institution, this card is to be returned to the principal's office and a full statement of the cause of the pupil's discharge is to be made in the blank space remaining above.

Among the uses to which the card may be put are:

1. Amount of attendance of individual pupils for each year.
2. Classification of pupils by age and grade.
3. Number of times child has been retained in a grade.
4. Foreign birth as affecting progress.
5. Absence as affecting progress.

By referring to the permanent record cards of the children completing the eighth grade, a principal may ascertain how many years it has taken each pupil to complete the course. He may also discover how many children who entered the first grade eight years previous have remained in school. All these data help the principal analyze conditions. If few children complete the course in eight years, it is evidently too difficult or the teaching is not efficient. From the card record the following table may be prepared:

Graduates of elementary school, years in school.

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Taking 6 years			
Taking 6½ years			
Taking 7 years			
Taking 7½ years			
Taking 8 years			
Taking 8½ years			
Taking 9 years			
Taking 9½ years			
Taking 10 years			
Total			

The following table illustrates another use that can be made of the record card:

Effect of irregular attendance upon promotion.

Number of days present.	Number promoted more than twice.	Promoted twice.	Promoted once.	Not promoted at all.
180 days or more				
170 and less than 180				
160 and less than 170				
150 and less than 160				
140 and less than 150				
130 and less than 140				
And so on.				
Total				

Graphs for self-survey.—A few graphs are presented merely as suggestions. The reader is referred to the various school-survey reports of the United States Bureau of Education and of other agencies, to "School Statistics and Publicity" (Silver Burdett & Co.), and to "Standards for Local School Surveys" (D. C. Heath & Co.) for other suggestions.

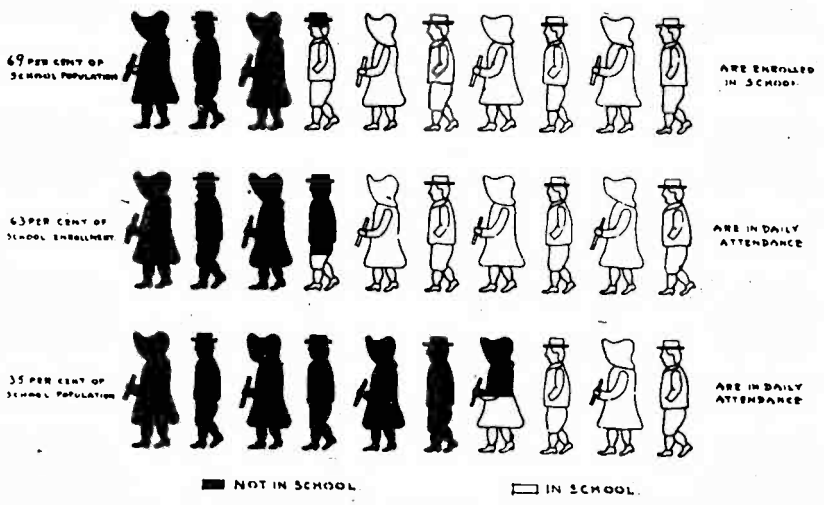


FIG. 5.—School population, enrollment, and attendance, 1918.*

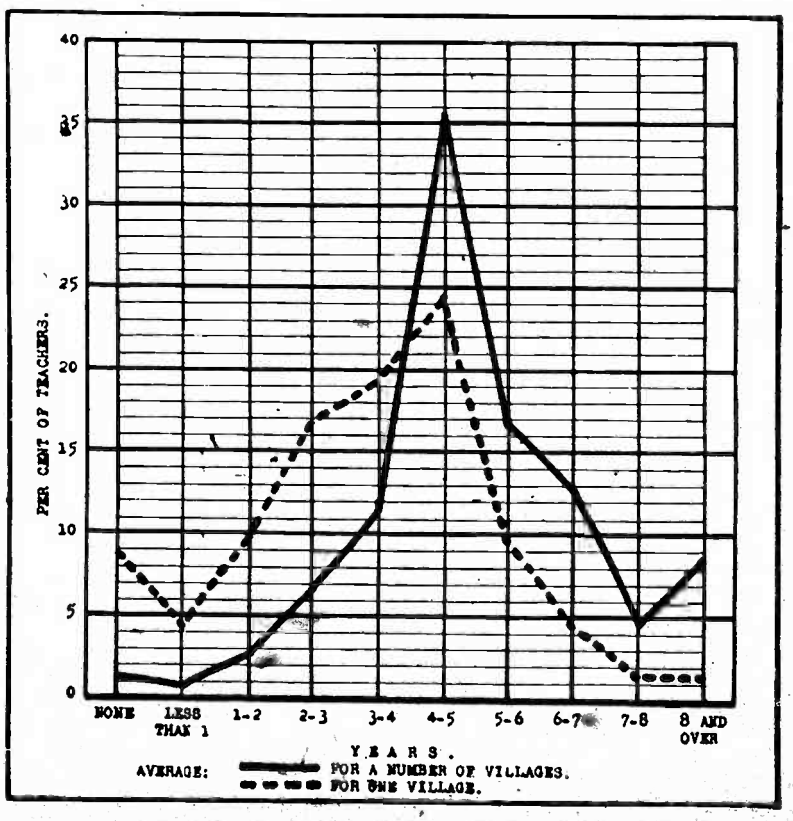


FIG. 6.—Number of years teachers have attended school beyond eighth grade.

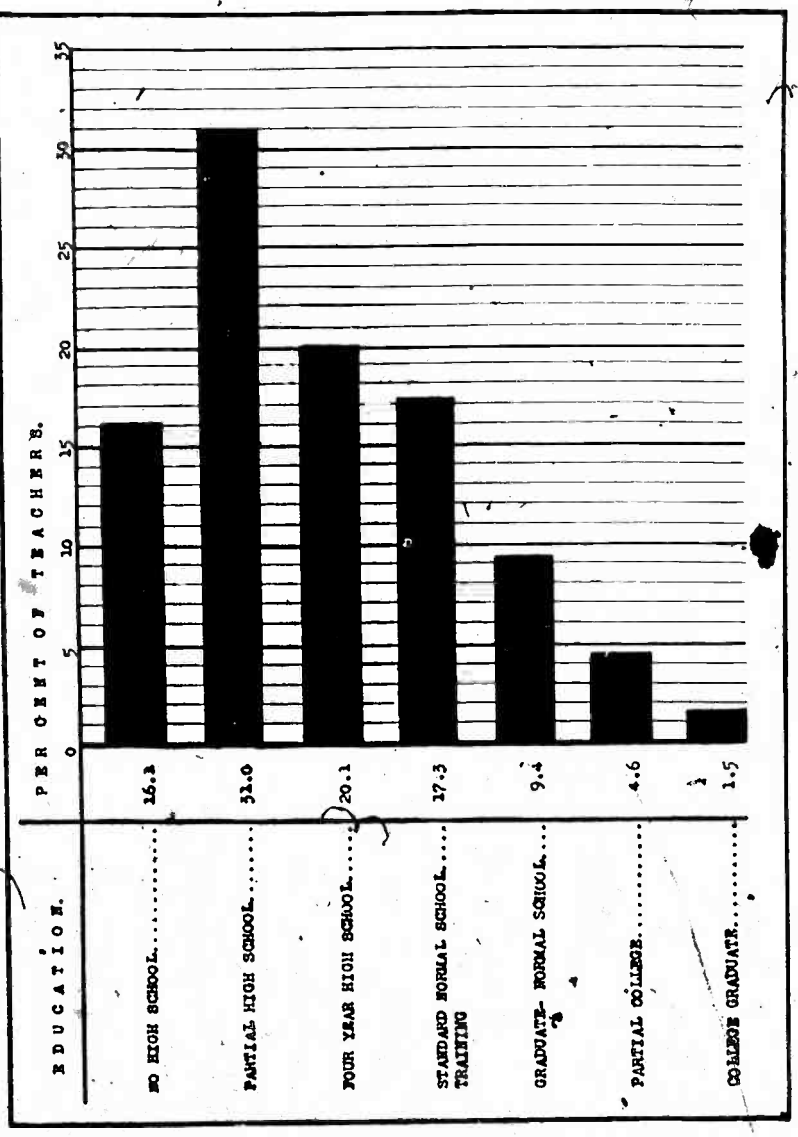


FIG. 7.—Education of teachers.

COURSE OF STUDY.

As it is.—Whether children take an interest in their own community depends partly upon what they study at school. But one finds the same facts taught and the same illustrations used in the agricultural town school that one finds in city schools. The elementary school course of study in village schools as carried out in practice is more bookish than that in the large city schools, where children are taught more about their environment. The village child is taught about city life through the several subjects of the elementary school course. Arithmetic, for instance, is not given a rural application, most of the problems solved being of the counting-house instead of the farm. The language lessons are based upon topics remote from the life and experience of the child instead of upon what is near, on the farm or in the village. Geography is begun, not at home, but at some distant point. Civics consists of an analysis of the national constitution instead of a first-hand study of the government of the village, the township, and the county. Nature study has a very subordinate place and is mostly bookish. Music, manual training, home economics, and physical training have found a place in comparatively few village schools.

The usual village high-school course is as formal or even more so than that of the elementary school. The subjects are English, Latin, algebra, geometry, ancient history, a science or two, usually with rather poor laboratory equipment, and possibly a modern foreign language. The subjects of agriculture and home economics are gradually working their way into the village school; but, strange to say, many farmers and housewives prefer that their children study Latin, mathematics, and other purely academic subjects instead of subjects vitally related to the community.

As it should be.—One of the fundamental principles in education is that instruction should begin with that which is familiar and simple and work out to that which is more remote and complex. To know things at home is to know the world. A farm-life course of study would prepare country children just as effectively to live anywhere as would a course made up of foreign language, mathematics, and other purely academic subjects. The village school should make use of home geography, of problems in arithmetic related to village life, of local history, of community civics; in fact, there is no subject in the elementary school course that can not be related to village life.

Agriculture may be taught in a practical way. Ground suitable for demonstration purposes may be had in or near almost every village. Boys living on farms may, by means of home projects, apply the principles of agriculture learned in the classroom and on the school demonstration plat. Science teaching may have rural appli-

cation. Practical application of chemistry in an analysis of soils is possible. Botany may also be given a practical application in the study of the useful and useless plants of the region and of the best way of eradicating the noxious ones.

Then there is home gardening directed by the school. In many villages there are unsightly back yards and vacant lots that could be made attractive and productive if they were planted into gardens. It is true that many children living in villages cultivate gardens at home, but their efforts are undirected. If the work were supervised by the schools, many correlations of gardening with arithmetic, language, drawing, manual training, cooking, nature study, and other subjects would be possible.

The six-six plan.—The plan of organizing the course of study with six years in the elementary grades and six years in the high school can be easily applied to village schools. The high-school course of study should be divided into two parts of three years each, the first three years being generally known as the junior high school and the last three years as the senior high school. Not all villages should attempt to have both junior and senior high schools. In fact, some of the very small places should not attempt more than the six elementary grades, and three years of junior high school, especially if there is a senior high school not far away. Township and county boards of education that have jurisdiction over the village schools should seriously consider whether it is advisable to organize junior and senior high schools in every village in the township or in the county.

As it is, many villages are attempting to do 12 grades of work when there are only a few pupils in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. A few villages in each county should be selected for senior high schools. The density of population and other factors, of course, would determine the number of senior high schools.

What should be taught in the junior and senior high schools.—If villages were to adopt the six-six plan of organization, most of the subjects in the junior high school should be required. The subjects in this type of school might be the following: Three years of English; two of general mathematics; three years of history, including European beginnings and advanced American history; one year of community civics; one year of geography and elementary science; three years of physical education; one year of hygiene and sanitation; and three years each of music, art, current events, industrial arts, agriculture, and home economics. Not all of the required or of the elective subjects should be offered five times a week, once or twice a week being sufficient time for some.

The senior high-school course should continue the vocational and academic subjects begun in the junior high school with a higher

degree of specialization in view. More electives can be offered. The number will depend upon the size of the school. The electives should not be so many that there are only three or four pupils in a class. If the school is small, some subjects can be offered in alternate years. A new and quite different course of study would be necessary in order that this plan may meet its full possibilities. The first six grades should be concerned chiefly with what are known as the fundamentals, or the tools. Topics for teaching purposes should be organized in relation to and from the point of view of the experience and environment of village and rural children. While the emphasis should be placed upon the "tools," the first six grades should not ignore the distinctly modern phases of education. Music, literature, and the fine arts should be taught largely for appreciation and not for technique. Nature study, elementary agriculture, school and home gardening, play, sanitation and hygiene, handwork of different kinds, dramatization and story telling should also have a place in the elementary school.

Extension of kindergarten work.[1]—According to recent statistics of the Bureau of Education, there were, approximately, 600 kindergartens, with 22,000 children enrolled during the school year 1917-18 in towns with under 2,500 population. While these figures are far below what they should be, they show that an increasing number of kindergartens are being opened in towns and villages. Fortunate are the little children who attend these kindergartens, for the town and village offer an ideal environment for kindergarten education. The modern tendency in kindergarten work is to have the children spend as much time as possible out of doors. Where weather and climate permit, there are out-of-door kindergartens, and even if a part of the activities take place within the kindergarten room, the children play their games out of doors. Under the trees are sand boxes, slides, and seesaws. In the city kindergarten too often there is no space available for this out-of-door play. Sometimes there is a roof garden, and weary little feet have to climb flights of stairs to reach the playground. Sometimes the city children are taken for one blissful day into the country, so that they may see pigs and cows and chickens, and experience all the other delights of the farm. But the village child has all this life at his very door, and nature unfolds her wonderful picture book from day to day. The child becomes acquainted with all the little creatures of wood and field. Pictures of birds and squirrels and butterflies are a poor substitute for the real thing. Window boxes and tin cans can never take the place of real gardens with enough space for each child to have his own plat.

[1] Prepared by Miss Julia Wade Abbot, Specialist in Kindergarten Education, U. S. Bureau of Education.

The country child not only has the opportunity to begin nature study by living with nature, but he is in daily contact with simple industrial processes in home and neighborhood. The country child is freed from the intricate organizations of city life; ambulances and police patrols, apartment life and department stores do not crowd upon his consciousness. He lives in a real home with a yard around it. He sees his mother cutting out clothes and making them for different members of the family. He sees her canning and preserving vegetables and fruits, and he is called upon to participate in the home activities which provide him with a wholesome round of duties. Farming country surrounds his village; he follows the work of the farmer through spring and summer and fall, and sees him gather the fruits of his labor. And there is need for a blacksmith's shop in the country, and the child "looks in at the open door," fascinated by the glare of the flaming iron and the primitive force of the hammer. In the village, the fire engine is still drawn by glorious, dashing creatures with long manes and tails, and faithful farm horses pull heavy loads of hay through the village street. The country child rides in the grocer's cart and is permitted to drive the horse; in exchange for which privilege he delivers the packages at every door. The village life provides a whole round of duties and pleasures suited to normal child life.

But the question may be asked, "If the town and village offer such opportunities for the right kind of development, why is it necessary to provide kindergartens for the children of these communities?" The answer to such a question is that education is always needed to show people how to appreciate and make use of the opportunities around them. Children in the country have all out of doors to play in, and yet such an authority as Dr. Thomas Wood declares that country children know little of how and what to play. The country has always been emphasized as the best place in which to bring up children, and yet statistics show that city children are more healthy than country children, because they have more intelligent care.

All children in city or country need the wise direction of their impulses and interests. While the city child needs to have what is wholesome and constructive selected from his too intricate environment, the country child needs to have his eyes opened to the wealth of material about him. And both city and country child need the stimulus of the social group, and the participation that results from working and playing with others.

Whether a small number of children in a community make necessary a kindergarten primary grade or whether a kindergarten is provided, this "beginning room" in the school of the small town should be a happy place where the youngest children enjoy the free-

dom and initiative characteristic of childhood. Only when children are encouraged to express themselves freely do we discover the needs and aptitudes of the individual child. In an article entitled "Mental Hygiene and the Public School," Dr. Arnold Gessell writes:

> If there is, indeed, such a thing as human engineering, nothing could be more unscientific than the unceremonious, indiscriminating, wholesale method with which we admit children into our greatest social institution, the public school. We must supplement the matriculation examination with a period of observation which will not relax during the whole school career of the child, but which will be peculiarly intensive during the first year or first semester. The first year should be an induction year. The kindergarten and first grade then become a vestibule school where the child may be detained under a watchful semiprobationary régime which will discover and record his strength and his weakness.

The formal type of work so often prescribed for children who are beginning school is so machinelike in character that many discouraged ones fall by the way and have to repeat the first grade. The right beginning of school life in the kindergarten has a direct bearing upon the child's physical well-being, his mental alertness, and his social adjustment to the group, and should be a means of rendering more efficient any school system, whether in city, town, or rural community.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL A COMMUNITY CENTER.

It is doubtful whether the social affairs in many villages to-day are on as high a plane and as educative and socializing as were the forms of social amusement once common, as debating societies, singing schools, spelling bees, etc. While it may not be desirable to conduct these old forms of amusements in the same manner as they once were, the fact remains that there must be a certain amount of social life in each community. At present the social life is usually confined to the one or more churches, to several lodges, to a moving-picture house showing films of doubtful value once or twice a week, or to traveling shows. Such forms of social life do not unite the people. There is no unifying element.

If the village school were organized to serve the entire community, it would have a tremendous influence in building up community social and intellectual life. It should be the educational center not only for children, but for young men and women and for older men and women. At the village community school farmers should meet to discuss farm problems and to hear lectures by the county demonstration agents and by professors of agriculture in the State college of agriculture. At such centers lectures on subjects of local, State, National, and international concern, entertainments, community singing, plays, moving pictures, and other activities should have a

place. As it is, village school buildings are seldom open for public meetings. Now and then there is a school entertainment open to the public. Some villages maintain a lyceum course, but other activities are necessary if the school is to serve as a means of bringing the people together.

The village school must teach more than the three R's. It must broaden the lives of everyone in the community. One of the evils of village life is monotony and lack of fellowship. There is too much individualism and not enough cooperation, not enough thinking together. The village school serving as a center of community life for those who naturally congregate at the village for business purposes would tend to break up the isolation, lack of fellowship, and individualism. The school building, instead of the village store, should be the community center. In many villages there are few big topics of conversation. The village gossip and the store-box group are common characters. There is evidently need of some institution to create and conserve common interest. For this purpose there should be a common meeting place where there may be free and open discussion on the great topics of the day. Every village should discuss local improvements, cooperative methods of buying and selling, proposed State and National legislation. If an amendment to the State constitution is proposed, every person should know what the amendment is and what the effect of its adoption will be. No better place than the public-school building could be found to discuss such topics. In fact, the school building is the only logical place for such discussion, the one building in the village dedicated to democracy.

It is a good plan for the people of the community, country, and village to organize a community association. Officers should be elected and committees appointed. A good example of a community association is that at the village consolidated school at Five Points, Ala., described on page 15.

The following points regarding the organization of village communities for the discussion of public questions are suggestive:[1]

I. DIFFICULTIES TO OVERCOME.

1. Lack of social consciousness. Few people think in terms of the social unit. They are intolerant of an opinion differing from their own. Difference of opinion is taken as a personal matter or as dangerous.

2. Diffidence in the presence of an audience. Few can be prevailed upon to speak in public.

3. The inveterate talker who can not be suppressed, but talks every gathering to death.

[1] From paper read by U. J. Hoffman, at Conference on Village Schools, Chicago, Ill.

4. Lack of a leader and a greater lack of followers.

5. In an organization embracing the entire public there is not enough the sense of "ours" to give the necessary cohesion. It soon dies by indifference and falling away of members.

6. An organization just to talk in public dies, for soon all have said their say except the born bore.

II. SUGGESTIONS FOR OVERCOMING THE DIFFICULTIES.

1. Organize a community center to be made up of all the people of the community, and then let this be divided into clubs of about 15 members each. These clubs should consist of people who naturally affiliate and are or can be interested in the same subjects.

2. There should be, even in a small village, four clubs, two of men and two of women. There should then be a federation of these clubs to hold joint meetings once in two months. The clubs should meet every two weeks.

3. These should be study and working clubs; having something to learn and something to do. In Illinois a package of books on any subject may be obtained by paying transportation from the State library extension board.

4. The federation can arrange for the discussion of public questions by speakers of note or by themselves.

5. Little headway can be made in any special social undertaking without refreshments to arouse sociability. The clubs should meet at the homes of members and refreshments should be a feature at least once a month.

6. Much depends upon a capable leader for the federation and for the several clubs.

7. This work will not come by spontaneous generation. The Nation or the State must send out organizers and furnish suggestive plans, programs, courses of reading, etc.

While the foregoing plan may not be ideal, from the fact that it contemplates the breaking up of a community into clubs, it may be the only practical way to solve the problem of having public questions discussed in some communities. The ideal way is for the whole village community to organize, but difficult to put into practical operation, from the fact that there are social lines of cleavage in every village that must be broken down before all will come together as a community.

SUPERVISION OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

In most villages there is but little supervision of the teaching of music, art, and other so-called special subjects. In fact they are not included in many village-school courses of study.

How to provide supervision and expert teaching of these subjects is one of the problems of the village school. Several plans may be suggested.

If there are three or four villages within a few miles of one another, they might jointly employ the special supervisors needed. These could spend a day or two each week in each town, the amount

of time given depending upon the number of teachers at each place. This plan has been found effective and economical.

If the village school is under the control of a county board of education, this board should employ supervisors of music and other subjects. Where this plan is in operation, the supervisors go over the county visiting all schools under the control of the county board. Some townships also have the same plan. If a township is too small to employ special supervisors, several could jointly employ the supervisors needed.

A plan successfully employed is that of departmentalizing the work of the elementary school so that the special subjects may be taught by special teachers. All the pupils report to one teacher for music, to another for art, and so on. Arithmetic, history, geography, and the other subjects not considered special are taught by the regular classroom teacher. The following program for a sixth grade illustrates how the plan may be worked out in practice:

PROGRAM OF GRADE 6.

MORNING.

First 90 minutes. 8.45 to 10.15 a. m.

6B. Regular classroom.
- 8.45– 8.55. Opening exercises—10 minutes.
- 8.55– 9.10. Spelling—15 minutes.
- 9.10– 9.45. Reading—35 minutes.
- 9.45–10.15. Geography—30 minutes.

6A. Special rooms.
- 8.45– 9.30. Home economics, manual training, Monday, Wednesday; physical training, Tuesday, Thursday, Friday.
- 9.30–10.15. Drawing, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday; home economics and manual training, Monday and Wednesday; double periods for home economics and manual training.

Second 90 minutes. 10.15 to 11.45 a. m.

6A. Regular classrooms.
- 10.15–11.45. Spelling, arithmetic, geography, as for 6B.

6B. Special rooms.
- 11.00–11.45. Same as for 6A in first 90-minute period.

AFTERNOON.

First 80 minutes. 1.00 to 2.20.

6B. Regular rooms.
- 1.00–1.40. Arithmetic—40 minutes.
- 1.40–1.55. Writing—15 minutes.
- 1.55–2.20. History—25 minutes.

6A. Special rooms.
- 1.00–1.40. Composition.
- 1.40–2.00. Music.
- 2.00–2.20. Physiology and hygiene.

Second 80 minutes.

6A. Regular rooms.
2.20–3.40. Reading, writing, and history, as for 6B in first period.
6B. Special rooms.
2.15–3.40. Same as for 6A in first period.

A study of this program shows that while the B division of a grade is in the regular classroom during the first 90-minute period, the A division is having work with the special teachers. The program is reversed for the second 90-minute period. Similar programs can be worked out for each of the other grades.

No supervisors are needed if the teachers of the special subjects are skilled. If the county board does not provide supervisors, and if it is not possible for several villages to employ jointly the necessary supervision, the special subjects may be well taught by the departmental plan just outlined.

THE VILLAGE LIBRARY.

Comparatively few villages have libraries accessible to the general public. Mr. Harlan Douglass says:

> The library itself as a public institution is not existent in most of the little towns. There are less than 2,000 in the entire United States, and four-fifths of their readers live in the North Atlantic and North Central States.

In many villages there are a few books in the school building for the use of the pupils, but as a rule these books are inferior, not adapted to the age of the pupils, and they are seldom used. In many village communities the churches formerly had Sunday school libraries, but this plan proved a failure in most instances from the fact that the books were poorly selected. The real depository of the village library is the public school. If the school is to serve the community, there should be a library room full of books not only for children but for adults. There should be children's stories, fiction, history, biography, books of travel, and books on farming and other vocations.

If there is a county library, the village library should be a branch of it. If there is no county library, the local school board or the county board should make appropriations each year for library maintenance.

In some village communities it is almost a hopeless task to introduce a library, because the people have not formed the reading habit. If the teachers interest the children in reading, it will be comparatively easy to have them cooperate in raising funds to purchase

books. Many, in fact the majority, of village school libraries were started with funds raised by entertainments. This plan will no doubt have to be used for some time in many communities. If the school board does not make appropriations, there is no other way except by private donations. The plan of having books donated can not be recommended, since so few persons have books suitable for a school library. The books should be purchased by the principal and teachers, with the advice of some librarian familiar with the needs of a village community.

If the library is to be popular, books in which children and adults are interested must be provided. The first money raised for a library, especially if the amount is small, should be expended for books to read rather than for encyclopædias, compendiums, and books of useful facts. These are necessary, but as a rule they should not be purchased with the first library money. Reference books should be provided out of regular school funds, and most school boards can be induced to purchase such books, while it is rather difficult to persuade them to purchase story books and other reading material that appeal to children.

The village library should be open to adults of the community as many hours in the week as possible. The library room should be a reading room where there are current magazines. One of the teachers could act as librarian during the school year. The library should be open during the vacation period, but if it is not possible to have it open every day, one or two days a week could be designated as library day. If the principal of schools is employed for the entire year, as he should be, he could act as librarian several times a week. If the school board will not provide funds to keep the library open during vacation, it might be possible to have some of the citizens donate funds for this purpose.

Village school principals and teachers should, however, make it emphatic that the school library is an essential part of a school and should be supported by public funds.

THE SCHOOL TERM.

The usual school term in villages is eight or nine months. In several States the term provided by public funds is insufficient to keep the schools open more than six or seven months, but in many instances a tuition fee and donations are necessary to make it possible to continue the term several months longer. This is a deplorable condition, but true nevertheless.

The village school term should be at least 9 months—11 would be better—and should be the ideal toward which to work. In most villages there is nothing in particular for the children to do during the summer months. This is especially true in mining and manufacturing communities. In the farming sections the older boys and girls assist with farm and house work, but the younger children are idle. In such communities the school term could be extended for the primary grades at least. Gardening under the direction and supervision of the schools would be more practical. More play could be introduced. Field excursions would be feasible. School during the summer months would not necessarily mean that the children would have to sit at their desks six hours a day.

Where summer schools have been conducted the health of the children has not suffered. The schoolrooms are ventilated naturally. There is no artificially heated air. No arguments can be offered against a long term, except that the expense of maintaining a school term of 10 months will be greater than for a term of 8 months.

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS.

There is no distinct type of village school architecture. It frequently happens that village school buildings in design do not compare favorably with some of those in the rural districts of the same county. A majority of the very old buildings are almost hidden by the numerous additions that have been from time to time built about them. Many of these old buildings should have been torn down or abandoned when the first additions were proposed. They now make uncomfortable quarters for the children and are poorly heated, ventilated, and lighted. They are inconvenient for the teacher in her classroom work and are also veritable fire traps that should be condemned by the State authorities.

The farmer who moves into the village from the farm usually objects to the high taxation necessary to maintain the village schools, and for that reason village schools in growing villages have been built to accommodate only the present enrollment, with no outlook for the increased enrollment in the years to come. In any growing village this is poor economy and means trouble for the future boards of education. Every bond issued for the purpose of building a new school building will invariably increase the taxation. Every effort should then be made to consolidate the districts near the village and extend the district lines that the village may become a center of a larger area with an increased valuation, which will

materially reduce the taxation and at the same time provide better buildings for both country and village children. Every village should provide for the construction of a permanent school building, built of strong material, brick, stone, or concrete. This building should be built on the unit plan, and if sufficient ground can be obtained, it should be but one story in height.

Buildings for community use.—Any school building in the village should be built for the use of the entire community and should contain a large auditorium with a specially arranged booth, conforming to the State laws, for moving pictures, a good swimming pool, and a room for the community library. In this building, or in a building especially constructed for the purpose, provision should be made for teaching manual training, domestic science, and agriculture. Where the school building is situated on ground well drained and high, large and convenient basements are useful not only for community use but for playrooms for the pupils during rainy days. However, care must be exercised to keep this basement free from dampness and well ventilated.

School buildings should be attractive.—The style of architecture in the village schools and the driveways or other approaches to the school building should be attractive, at least equal in convenience and beauty to that of the best home in the village. Neat approaches add to the beauty as well as to the convenience of every school building. Town pride should assist in planning a building that would reflect the refined taste and good judgment of an intelligent people.

Ample halls and classrooms.—Narrow, dark, and poorly ventilated halls are not only a menace to health, but sources of great danger in cases of fire. Halls in modern school buildings should serve several definite purposes. They provide for the overflow of crowds when the auditorium is filled. They provide also a place for exercise on rainy days or during the period devoted to calisthenics.

Location of the village school.—In Spanish countries the schools are usually located in the center of the town, in what is called the town square or plaza. This plan has not been followed in laying out the towns in the United States; but, if possible, a central location should be secured, with ample grounds that may be used by the village for a park. If, however, sufficient space in a central place can not be secured, it is much better to have the pupils walk a longer distance if that is necessary in order to provide ample grounds for the building. The adults will not object to going this increased distance for community gatherings of various kinds.

Recreation and playgrounds.—Village boys and girls enjoy all forms of healthy recreation and play. They have a great advantage over children in the sparsely settled communities on account of the

numbers and the opportunities for getting together for a good romp. In every village can be seen around the streets or in the principal street or the public square, if there be one, children meeting and enjoying themselves in some form of healthy exercise. They come in sufficient numbers to permit a team to play basket ball, volley ball, or baseball. Too often they encounter many difficulties from merchants who object to the children playing in front of their stores, and the town marshal has frequently to warn the boys that they must not play on certain busy streets. This is one of the results of a very ancient and mistaken idea that it is not necessary to provide playgrounds in a village.

When land was cheap and every opportunity was offered to secure a central location for parks or playgrounds it was thought very foolish to spend the public money to purchase such a site as would give the children of that generation and future generations an opportunity for good healthy exercise. Yet these parents frequently used to quote a familiar motto that "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." Records show that in our Western States ample sites have frequently been offered to the villages by patriotic citizens if the town council would enter into an obligation of caring for the land, improving it, and using it for a public park. Yet many of these village fathers positively refused to accept these generous offers, because they claimed it was a useless expenditure of the "hard-earned" money of the taxpayers.

To-day children can hardly bless the memory of these dear, departed village councilmen. The school ground, if centrally located, should be the recreation ground for the village. It should have a running track or place sufficiently large to make one. A county meet or township meet should be one of the annual events of the year. The New England States had their "training days"; the central Western States have had their "dicker days." The township fairs have been important features of recreation in these States. To-day more interest is taken in athletics in rural schools and village schools than ever before, and yet in less than 50 per cent of the village schools is sufficient ground provided for these meets and exercises. It is better to locate a school out on the edge of the village, with good, large, ample playground, than to have it centrally located with no opportunity whatever for recreation, and every village school ground should contain at least 5 acres of well-drained, well-graded land. This should be well provided with play apparatus for the pupils—preferably that made by the pupils in the manual-training department.

The following diagram illustrates what village school grounds should be like:

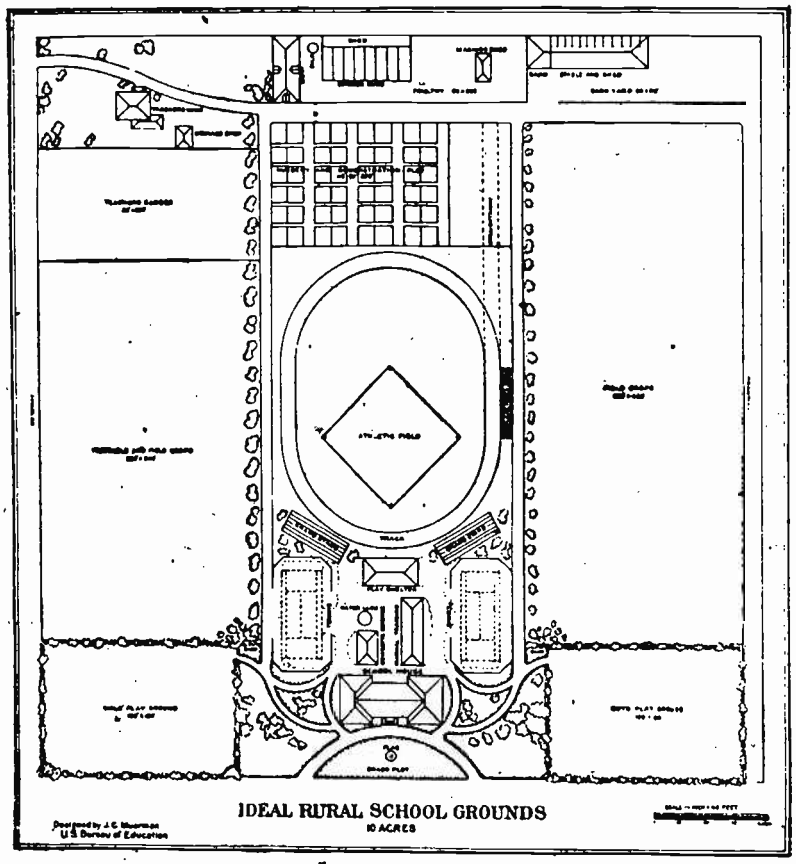


FIG. 8.—Ground plan of an ideal community school, prepared in miniature by the Bureau of Education for the Panama-Pacific Exposition. Provision is made for housing the teacher and in other ways making the school a real center for village community life.

The teacher's home.—Most villages contain a hotel or inn, but very seldom does a teacher care to board at such a place. Much has been said concerning lack of opportunity to find a good boarding place in the rural districts. This same difficulty is encountered by a majority of the teachers of the small villages. As the usual village school has from two to eight teachers, it is often desirable to provide a suitable building as a home for the teachers. While many State laws do not permit the building of a teacher's cottage, there is no objection to a building where domestic science can be taught. The teacher's home may be used for this purpose if built within a short distance from the

school building. It becomes more difficult each year for a teacher to find a suitable boarding place in a good village home.

The village schools should, by all means, have at least one male teacher, and that teacher may be normally expected to be a married man. To provide for him a decent, respectable home would tend to retain his services much longer, and to increase his interest in the community. From reports received by the United States Bureau of Education from villages that provide a home for the teacher, a great majority state emphatically that its effect is beneficial upon the school, that they are able to retain good teachers longer, and that the teacher is a real, integral part of the community, and that his influence outside the school is as great as his influence in the school. If this teacher should be interested in agriculture, he may be employed for the full 12 months of the year to teach agriculture and direct home gardening during the summer months. It is highly desirable, however, that he remain in the district and live upon the school grounds. This offers protection to the school property that otherwise would be open to vandals during vacation periods. More than 300 teacher's homes are now provided in the villages.

HEALTH.

For generations the general health of the village has been the special province of that honored individual, the doctor. His word regarding individual health as well as the general sanitary condition of the village was considered law, and no one disputed it. His fees were nominal, if collected at all, and his advice was freely given upon every occasion. "The village preacher and the village doctor" have been considered the most important men in the village. The day of the village doctor, if not entirely past, is rapidly fading away. His influence is not as great as it was in the years that are gone. Village people, when there is continued illness, generally go to the city, where hospital treatment is offered. The village doctor now refers his serious cases to a specialist in the city.

In a great many villages, very little, if any, provision is made for general sanitary conditions that directly affect the health of the inhabitants. Reports from every State note the frequent neglect of efficient sanitary inspection of the villages. What is everybody's business is nobody's business. No one has authority to order the drainage to be properly made in the smaller villages. Breeding places for flies and injurious insects are allowed to go unnoticed. The water in the wells is not examined, and the well owners themselves seem to think it unnecessary. It is not to be wondered that

frequent epidemics of typhoid, malaria, and other diseases are reported. Officials of the board of health claim that the expense of putting some of the villages in good sanitary condition is too great a burden to be placed upon the taxpayers of the village. If this be true, a portion of this burden might well be borne by the State. Village councilmen should be compelled to enforce any health regulation given them by the State board of public health, and this board should provide adequate inspection for all villages.

The village school can do much to bring about better sanitary conditions. In some villages the principals and teachers have inaugurated "clean-up days" for the entire village, beginning with the school grounds. "Swat-the-fly" campaigns have done much to call the attention of village people to the fact that the housefly is a menace and that garbage and manure heaps in the back yards and alleys are breeding places for the fly.

Community civics should have a place in the program of studies in every village school. Included with this should be studies of community sanitation. Village life being simple, it lends itself especially to a study of such problems.

If there is a high school in the village, the classes in the sciences should make a study of the water supply, the milk, and other foods sold in the village.

In brief, there are many ways by which the principal and teachers in a village school may interest the community in health programs.

Leaflets of the United States Health Department and of the United States Bureau of Education could be distributed to the homes through the village school children. In fact, there are numberless ways by which the principal and teachers may help improve health conditions in the village. They should ask the State and National health departments for suggestions.

SUMMARY.

1. The village, especially in an agricultural region, should be part of the rural community. The village school should, therefore, be a community school serving the farm child as well as the village child.

2. The village school should not be independent of the township or county school system, but should be administered by a township or a county board of education.

3. The village school course of study should be based upon the life of the community. If the village is in a farming region, the course of study should be a country-life course. Music, art, physi-

cal training, home economics, and manual training should have a prominent place in the program of studies.

4. In the smaller villages only elementary and junior high-school work should be attempted. Pupils in these villages belonging to grades 10, 11, and 12 should attend a high school in some larger village or the township or county high school.

5. There should be a kindergarten in every village.

6. The school grounds should be large enough for a school garden, agricultural demonstration plats, play, shrubbery, and trees. Ten acres is not too much. The school grounds could well be the village park.

7. The school buildings should contain, in addition to regular classrooms, an auditorium, library room, laboratories, kitchen, shops, etc.

8. Every village school should contain a library. It should be a branch of the county library, if there be such.

O