Public Education in Hawaii

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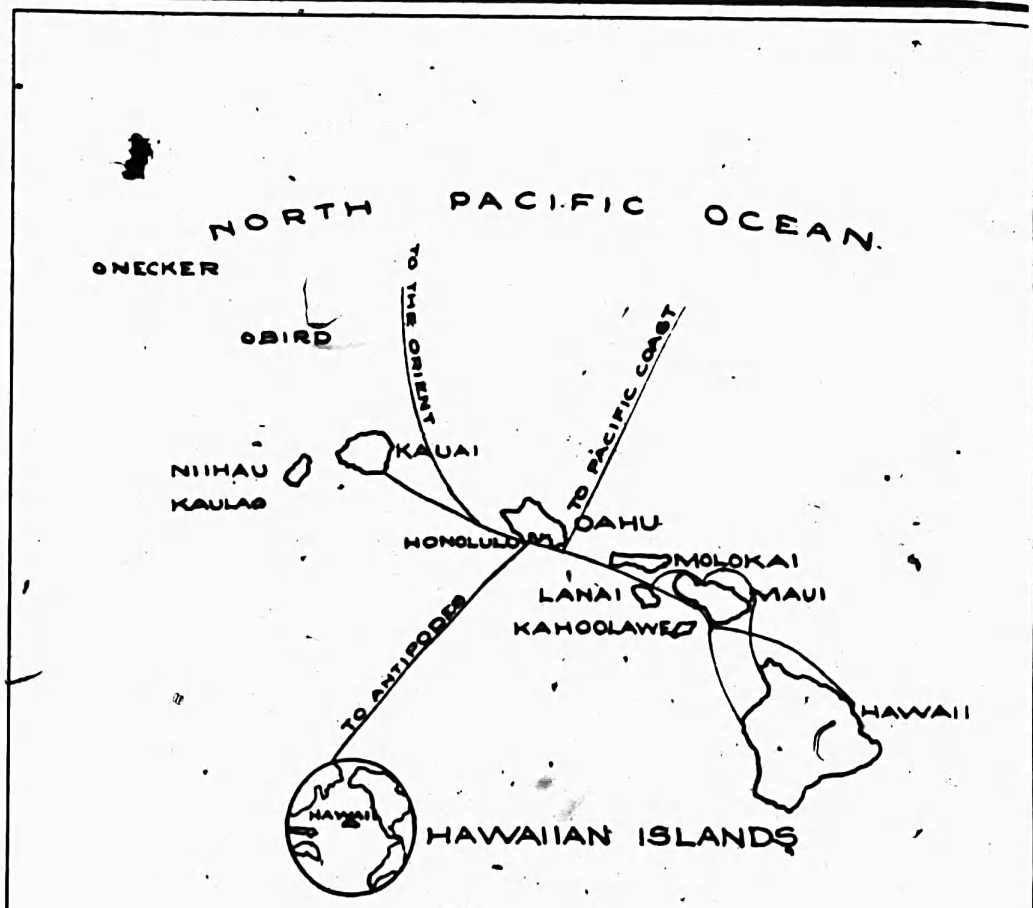
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FOREWORD

WITH the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands as a Territory in 1898, the people of the United States assumed responsibility for leadership of the Hawaiian people toward social and economic goals, as well as for the establishment and maintenance of democratic government. In a democracy education is the chief means of promoting stability of government and social welfare. Therefore, the type of school system set up to achieve the purposes indicated, its administration and support, the methods through which desired educational objectives are to be attained, and progress toward their attainment are of continuing interest in continental United States. This interest is due in part to the necessity of fulfilling the obligations assumed with annexation. Of equal importance, however, is the possibility that in the regular order of things Hawaii may eventually take its place as a full-fledged member of the family of States.

In pursuance of the functions assigned to it by the Congress the United States Office of Education assumes the same responsibility for the promotion of education and for disseminating information concerning it in Hawaii as in the States on the continent. While Hawaiians have been citizens of the United States since 1898 and while Hawaii territorially has the same civil status as did the majority of the States until their admission into the Union, its relative isolation from the continent mitigates against general familiarity with its educational progress. This bulletin has been prepared as a step in the direction of wider acquaintance on the continent with public education in Hawaii. It is one of a series designed eventually to include a brief description of educational progress in each of our outlying parts.

Grateful acknowledgement is expressed to the Division of Territories and Island Possessions, to the Director of Education of the Hawaiian Islands, and to the Pan Pacific Press Bureau for the use of prints and photographs reproduced in this Bulletin.

HAWAII AND ITS PEOPLE

Location and Characteristics

OF ALL our outlying parts Hawaii is probably the best known and the oftenest visited by travelers from the mainland, due in part to its picturesque and interesting population, to its scenic beauties, and perhaps even more, to its easy, even luxurious, accessibility. Nor is this cordial familiarity confined wholly to mainlanders. Hawaiians know continental United States, our people, and our ideals, especially of education and of government, as well as we know Hawaii. Long before it became an integral part of the United States through annexation, Hawaii had become Americanized in a very real sense and in a variety of ways, and had looked toward its nearest powerful neighbor for governmental and economic standards and ideals.

Hawaii, like Alaska, has the civil status of a Territory of the United States. It lies approximately 2,000 miles southwest of San Francisco and is made up of a chain of islands about 400 miles[1] long if one travels from one to the other by boat or plane. The chain extends generally from the southwest to the northeast in the very midst of the Pacific Ocean; literally, as popularly expressed, at its crossroads. The Hawaiian group is made up of five large and important islands and several small ones, some of which are uninhabited. The five principal islands each constitute a county of the Territory. They are Hawaii, the largest

[1] Du Puy, William Atherton. Hawaii and its race problem. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1932.

and farthest south: Maui, lying just northwest of Hawaii: Molakai, Oahu, and Kauai, extending on in the same direction, all lying in the form of a crescent, separated from each other by wide ocean channels. Interisland communication by boats which run with reasonable frequency is adequate and convenient.

The Islands are of volcanic origin and possess a number of active volcanoes notable for beauty and accessibility. The climate is exceptional for the Tropics, since the heat normally expected is modified by trade winds and ocean currents from the northeast. It is, therefore, rarely unpleasantly warm; there are no distinct seasons and the temperature at sea level rarely falls below 65° nor rises above 85°. The mountain sections are, of course, much cooler. Contrasts in climate as between them and the lowland regions are sharp.

The area of the Hawaiian group is 6,400 square miles, an area somewhat greater than that of the two States, Connecticut and Rhode Island, combined. The population is nearly 370,000, approximately that of each of half a dozen or more cities on the mainland including Kansas City, Mo.; Newark, N. J., and Seattle, Wash. The capital, Honolulu, also the metropolis, on the island of Oahu, is a modern city and has 120,000 inhabitants. The bulk of the people live in rural and village, many in plantation communities; but many—too many for Hawaii's best interests, which are agricultural—like the mainlanders, look toward a future in urban centers.

Hawaii's Chief Industries

Hawaii's resources are in its productive soil, its warm climate, and its abundant rainfall. It is primarily agricultural, and many varieties of fruits and vegetables thrive under these favorable conditions. Science, it is said, has been applied more extensively to improving and increasing production than in most agricultural areas and Hawaii is noted for abundant yields from its cultivated acreage. Irrigation and fertilization of the soil, through the use of commercial fertilizers, are carried on widely.

Hawaii's rich soil is devoted largely to the cultivation of two productive crops, sugar and pineapples. The growing, harvesting, and milling of sugar cane, together make up the principal

industry. More than 50,000 persons are employed in some form of the sugar industry and the plantations furnish homes as well as wages to thousands of families. The labor supply for sugar cane has, as is well known, shifted many times during its history; from dependence on Hawaii, the original source, to subsequent reliance on China, Japan, Portugal, Spain, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. The present tendency is to depend on the Philippine Islands for the labor supply when additions are needed, though, as will be pointed out later, it is hoped that the labor problem may be solved in the future without further large-scale importation.

Sugar-cane raising is characterized in a recent report of the Department of Labor [2] as "factorized" agriculture. Piece and contract work is general on the plantations and processes are specialized to make this method of labor remuneratively possible and attractive. Long-term contracts prevail.

In general, plantation owners furnish employees with a house and with fuel, light, and water. Hospital and medical care are provided without charge. Some companies maintain hospitals of their own; others depend on the fine hospital maintained by the Hawaiian Sugar Planters Association at Honolulu.

While housing conditions are not, according to the Department of Labor,[3] always satisfactory, the character of the houses has improved appreciably during recent years. "Practically all managers realize" that good housing conditions make more efficient workers, that sanitary conditions mean fewer days lost from sickness, and that the better the home conditions the less the labor turn-over.

As to income of laborers, it should not, as Dr. Crawford reminds us,[4] be judged wholly in terms of wages paid or by comparison with mainland conditions, though as he states also, the wage compares favorably with that paid farm laborers in the States. Of approximately 50,000 employees on the pay rolls of 41 sugar plantations studied by the Department of Labor [5] in 1930, the

[2] Labor Conditions in the Territory of Hawaii, 1929–30. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931. (Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 534.)

[3] Ibid.

[4] Crawford, David L. Paradox in Hawaii. Boston, Stratford Company, 1933.

[5] Op. cit.

average wage was $1.82 per day; per month with bonus, $48.32. This amount, according to the report, was in excess of rental of sanitary and comfortable 3- to 5-room houses, fuel, water, medical and hospital service, which were furnished free to all employees and their families. The estimated cost of such services totaled $28 per month.

The pineapple industry, growing and canning, is second to sugar in number of wage earners, in amount paid in wages, and in the value of its products. The pineapple plantations, like the sugar plantations, house their employees and their families. Approximately 10,000 workers are employed in the pineapple industry. The average full-time earnings per week are reported as $13.50.[6]

Small farming is carried on, though not, of course, as extensively as farming of the specialized crops mentioned. About one-tenth of the total area under cultivation is in small farms. They produce a variety of crops—sugar-cane, coffee, rice, citrus fruits, bananas, avocados, forage, are among the important ones. The average small farm contains about 50 acres.

Of the total cultivated area of the Hawaiian Islands, estimated at 400,000 acres, or approximately one-tenth of the total area of the Islands, 250,000 acres are in sugar-cane, 75,000 in pineapples, and 75,000 in varied crops. More than 1,000,000 acres are used for pasturage and much of the Islands' area is covered with tropical forests. The value of the sugar, Hawaii's chief crop, exported to the United States in 1930 was more than $55,000,000. The United States is, of course, the chief customer.

The tourist trade yields a large income to Hawaii. The estimated expenditure of tourists over a 10-year period, according to the Governor's report in 1930, was $75,000,000. In 1932 the income from the tourist trade fell somewhat below the average indicated but still yielded about $5,000,000.

Racial Constitution of the Population

It is in the constitution of its population that Hawaii's uniqueness lies, however. Made up, as the population is, of many races alien to each other as well as to the people of the continent, there

[6] Ibid.

is a diversity of cultural backgrounds, languages, and traditions not found, according to students of the subject, in juxtaposition elsewhere the world over. Educational problems as well as economic and social ones have their roots in this unique and interesting situation.

The situation according to racial distribution of the population is shown in the following table:

Table 1 ★ Population of the Territory of Hawaii in 1930, by Racial Groups, Based on June 30, 1929, Estimate [1]

Racial group	Estimated population June 30, 1929		Number in 1930 based on June 30, 1929, estimate
	Number	Percent	
Hawaiian	20,479	5.73	21,106
Caucasian-Hawaiian	16,687	4.66	17,164
Asiatic-Hawaiian	10,598	2.96	10,903
Portuguese	29,717	8.31	30,609
Puerto Rican	6,923	1.93	7,109
Spanish	1,851	.52	1,915
Other Caucasian	38,006	10.63	39,154
Chinese	25,211	7.05	25,968
Japanese	137,407	38.42	141,515
Korean	6,393	1.79	6,593
Filipino	63,869	17.86	65,785
Other	508	.14	515
Total	357,649	100.00	368,336

[1] *Labor Conditions in the Territory of Hawaii, 1929-30. Bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 534. p. 2.*

Diversity of races and cultures is, of course, not unknown in continental United States, long considered a melting pot of nations. The difference lies in the situation. In continental United States, with its larger territory and population, absorption of people of

diverse nationalities is relatively simple. By and large, representatives of races with radically different social backgrounds—Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, for example, as well as immigrants from the European nations so commonly found in our larger cities—Italians, for example, segregate themselves in communities, perhaps for a time immediately following their immigration. Differences in dress, in customs, and the like, attract little attention

These six university girls represent Hawaii's varied racial make-up: Chinese, Anglo-Saxon, Hawaiian-Scandinavian-Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Spanish.

In our public schools the rising generation of children from these communities rapidly adopts the customs and speaks the language of the adopted land, and with its maturity, absorption is well under way, if not practically complete. But in Hawaii the situation is different. The native race, the Hawaiian, constitutes a relatively small percentage of the total population. There is no dominant culture in the same sense as on the continent into which migrating races or nationalities become absorbed. In Hawaii there are at

least four races, radically different in characteristics and cultures from each other and from the Hawaiians, each of which outnumbers the native race. Amalgamation rather than absorption, based on varied racial mixtures, seems to be on the way. This situation in Hawaii is not duplicated elsewhere. It is giving rise to problems of absorbing interest and significance to the country of which Hawaii has so recently become a part. Education, especially public education, is recognized as the basic means through which racial understandings must be developed eventually and the many different peoples learn to live together with common ideals and purposes.

Early History and Development

Preceding discovery of the Western World by Captain Cook and the beginning of western civilization, Hawaii was discovered and settled by Polynesians who came from the vicinity of Tahiti, in primitive crafts, at an unknown date estimated as at least 1,000 years before rediscovery by Europeans. Through successive voyages the original population was replenished from time to time from other Polynesian areas. Probably it was from these numerous and varied localities that many of the plants and animals which were found in Hawaii by early western explorers were introduced. Farming of a limited number of essential food crops, simple in technique but at least adequate to the limited wants of the people, fishing in the ocean and by pond culture were well developed before the advent of Europeans. There was little exchange of goods though barter was carried on. Large land ownership, the accumulation of worldly goods, and similar objectives of western civilized life were unknown.

The Hawaiians, Captain Cook found, were a peaceful, friendly, hospitable people whose culture was built on a basis of "wood and stone, though more advanced than that statement signifies, since they were acquainted with the use of iron but had no means of securing a supply of it."[7] Their social organization was feudal in character. There were kings and chiefs to whom the common people were subject. The most powerful chief of each island owned the land, which he divided among his lesser

[7] Crawford. Op. cit.

chiefs and followers, requiring tribute in the form of services and produce. The prevailing laws were based on a series of restrictions and prohibitions commonly called "taboos", either enforced by the chiefs because of the power they had acquired or followed because they were of religious significance to the people. Life was communal in character. The people, while subservient to the various rulers, were said to maintain "a wholesome attitude of respect rather than servitude" toward them. This characteristic attitude of independence was retained during the later history of the Islands when the new commercialism began to take root and accounts perhaps for the fact that the common people did not adjust themselves as readily nor as profitably to the new regime as did the kings and chiefs.

With the discovery of the Islands by Captain Cook in 1778 the fundamental changes began which later led to their complete westernization. There is apparently very general agreement that New England missionaries, who established themselves in the Islands in 1820, should be credited with implanting many American ideas, including that of education, as the right of every individual. They organized schools, reduced the Hawaiian language to writing and laid the foundation for the development of a permanent literature. The schools developed rapidly with the help and direction of native teachers, trained at the missions. Hundreds of schoolhouses where adults and children learned the fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic were established within a relatively short period of time, distributed throughout the Islands. By 1835 a compulsory education law was promulgated by at least one chief for his island. A secondary school for training teachers was established on Maui in 1881 offering a somewhat limited curriculum compared with present-day programs, but a forerunner of the more wide-spread and more liberal facilities that the coming years were destined to bring. In organization and offerings it followed the pattern of secondary schools on the continent which were then in the early stages of progress.

For many years schools were under the control of missionaries of different denominations, while the idea of education under government control gradually developed. The first schools to be taken over as government schools were the common or elementary

Hawaii's symbol of hospitality—Aloha Tower.

schools. Later government control was extended gradually to the schools of secondary grade. When constitutional government was established, a department of schools was created with a minister of education holding a cabinet position under the king in charge. Teaching in the common schools was in the beginning in the Hawaiian language and in charge of native Hawaiians. A growing demand for instruction in English led to the establishment of select schools on tuition basis in which English was taught.

These increased in number as the need for a knowledge of English became more and more urgent and recognized. Moreover, the practical purpose they aimed to achieve led to instruction of a higher quality than that which generally prevailed; in consequence of these advantages the "select" gradually replaced the common schools and like them became tuition free and conducted under government control.

Even before annexation, then, it appears that a public-school system, in which English was the language of instruction and with many of the ideals concerned with school standards prevalent on the continent, was well established. Teachers from the mainland as well as Hawaiians were employed. A normal school had been established replacing the private secondary schools which trained the early teachers and compulsory education laws had been enacted. The census of 1890 showed a "population of school age little in excess of the number attending schools." Annexation brought with it no great problems of adjustment so far as the education system was concerned. From its very inception, we are told by Dr. David L. Crawford, it was "virtually American in all respects", essentially like that in the States but with adaptations to Hawaiian conditions.

The situation in Hawaii, so far as education is concerned, was thus materially different at annexation from that which confronted the United States in other outlying parts at the advent of American occupation. Democratic ideals of free universal education, English as the basic language of instruction, a complete public-school system organized much as were such systems on the continent—were all well established. No serious edueation problems had developed; Hawaiians were still in the majority so far as school population is concerned, and racial problems had not become acute at the close of the nineteenth century. There were 140 public schools and 55 private schools. The enrollment was approximately 12,000 in the public schools, which were being conducted at an expense of about $250,000 annually, an amount not particularly burdensome to a population of 100,000, especially in view of the growing resources of the Islands.

With the development of Hawaii along modern lines, toward democracy in government and in education, toward commercial and economic prosperity, and toward complete adjustment to western civilization with which the people were becoming more

and more closely associated, there developed a situation which later was to give rise to some of Hawaii's most serious social and educational problems. Industrialized agriculture, then as now the chief economic resource, requires unskilled and therefore cheap labor on a large scale. The rapid development of, first, sugar plantations, then pineapple and coffee plantations, soon created

McKinley High School.

demands which outstripped the possibilities of the local labor supply and it became necessary to import plantation laborers in constantly increasing numbers. As early as 1852 a shipmaster was employed to bring a shipload of 180 Chinese coolies into the Islands on a 5-year labor contract.[8] Before Chinese immigration was restricted, as it was later when Hawaii became a part of the United States, at least 21,000 had been brought in. The experiment proved successful so far as the desired objective was concerned. The importation of laborers from the world's cheapest markets became an accepted policy. Portuguese laborers as well

[8] Bunker, Frank F. Hawaii and the Philippines; *also* the Islands of the South Seas. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1928. 207 p.

as laborers from Korea, Japan, the Philippine Islands, and Puerto Rico have since come in large numbers as plantation workers. The position of Hawaii at the crossing of important ocean highways, and these continuing efforts to secure satisfactory plantation labor have combined to make of it a "racial and national melting pot with an assortment of human beings not found elsewhere in the world and has resulted in Hawaiian-born people with ancestry of unusual and varied combinations."

Since 1900, the approximate time of annexation, the percentage of Hawaiians in the total population has been decreasing. Changes, and to some extent trends in population by race are shown in table 2, which gives the percentage of each of the several races making up the population by 10-year intervals since 1900.

Table 2 ★ Race Percentages of the Total Population: 1930, 1920, 1910, and 1900 [1]

Race	Percent of total population			
	1930	1920	1910	1900
Hawaiian	6.1	9.3	13.6	19.3
Caucasian Hawaiian	4.2	4.3	4.6	5.1
Asiatic Hawaiian	3.4	2.7	1.9	
Portuguese	7.5	10.6	11.6	18.7
Puerto Rican	1.8	2.2	2.5	
Spanish	.3	1.0	1.0	
Other Caucasian	12.2	7.7	7.7	
Chinese	7.4	9.2	11.3	16.7
Japanese	37.9	42.7	41.5	39.7
Korean	1.8	1.9	2.4	.....
Filipino	17.1	8.2	1.2	.....
All others	.3	.3	.6	.5

[1] *Livesay, Thayne M. A study of public education in Hawaii. Honolulu, Hawaii, University of Hawaii, 1932. p. 30. (University of Hawaii Research publications, no. 7.)*

A Territory of the United States

Beginning with the discovery of the Islands by Captain Cook and due in large part to their strategic position commercially, events moved rapidly toward modernization. In 1795 the old tribal government which had long prevailed gave way and the different islands, each under its own chief, were united into a monarchy by the noted Hawaiian leader Kamehameha I. This type of government continued until 1893 when it was replaced by a republic with an Hawaiian-born, American as President. When Hawaii sought annexation in 1898, it was as an independent republic with a long history of independence as a background and a citizenship influenced significantly by the social ideals and customs which prevailed in the United States.

Annexation actually came about through a joint congressional resolution approved July 7, 1898; the formal cession was completed on August 12.[9] By the Organic Act of 1900 which, with amendments, is still the fundamental law, Hawaii was organized as a Territory of the United States and a Territorial government was established. Its position at the present time is essentially the same as was that of New Mexico or Arizona or any other State on the continent before admission into the Union as a State. Citizens of Hawaii became citizens of the United States by virtue of its annexation, and from 1900 children born in Hawaii are by virtue of that fact citizens exactly as if born in New York or California or any other of the United States.

Under the terms of the Organic Act the constitution and laws of the Republic of Hawaii became the fundamental laws of the Territory of Hawaii except, of course, as changes were made by Congress or by Territorial legislation as provided in the act. Changes were less sweeping and less sudden than so fundamental a shift in the civil and social situation might lead one to expect due to the type of government which had existed in Hawaii preceding annexation and to the long years of American influence.

During the years preceding annexation the United States had befriended the Islands in several ways. The Government of the

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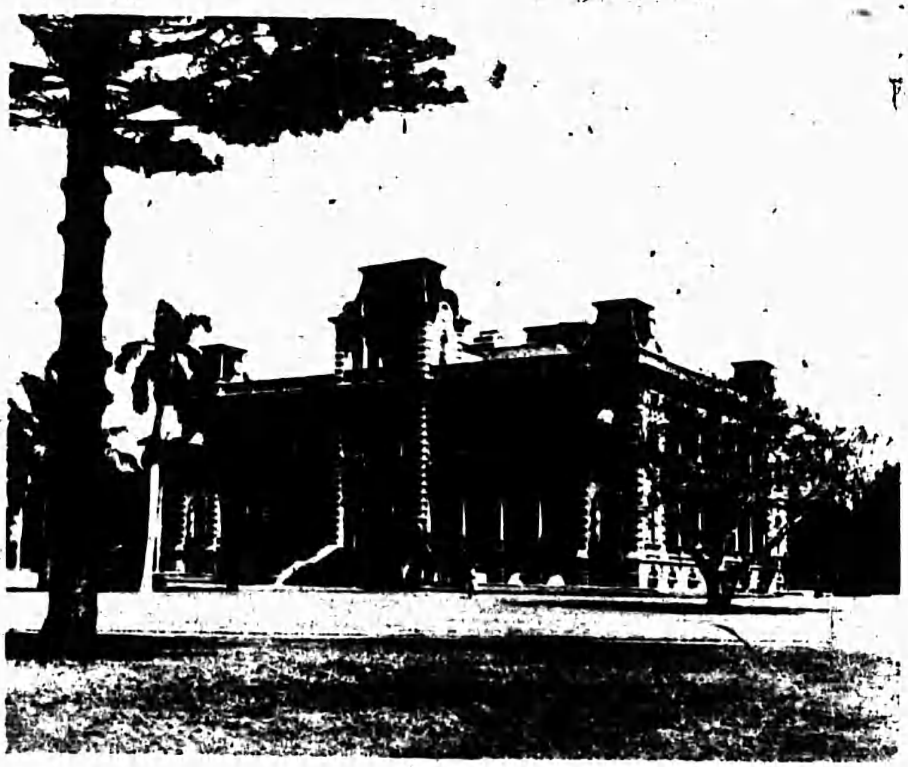
[9] Kettleborough, Charles. The State constitutions and the Federal constitution and organic laws of the Territories and other colonial dependencies of the United States of America. Indianapolis, Ind., B. F. Bowen & Company, 1918.

United States had induced other nations to recognize Hawaiian independence when it was threatened; had provided by treaty for certain Hawaiian products, including sugar, to enter the United States without duty, thereby helping materially in the development of the sugar industry; and had advised with Hawaiian officials on important matters of state. In return for the favorable tariff consideration, Hawaii granted to the United



Iolani Palace in Honolulu, the capitol for the Territory.

States the exclusive right to enter the harbor of Pearl River and to maintain a coaling and repair station there for United States vessels, a privilege which was not, however, used until after annexation. Since then Pearl Harbor has, as is well known, become a splendidly equipped naval station.

The Organic Act provided for administrative, legislative, and judicial branches of the government. The executive authority is centered in a governor who is appointed by the President of the United States with the advice and consent of the Senate. The judiciary, consisting of a chief justice, 2 assistant justices, and 2

circuit judges, is appointed in the same manner. The legislative branch consists of 2 houses, the Senate composed of 15 members and the House of Representatives of 30 members who are elected by the people. The legislative system resembles in form that established in each of the States.

Specific provisions of the Organic Act concern the superintendent of public instruction rather than education, provisions for which are left chiefly with the Territorial legislature. They stipulate that he shall have the powers and perform the duties which had been conferred upon and required of the minister of public instruction by the laws of Hawaii except as amended by the act and subject to modification by the legislature. The Governor nominates, and by and with the consent of the Senate of the Territory, appoints the superintendent of public instruction and the school commissioners, whose powers and duties, except as indicated above for the superintendent of public instruction, derive from Territorial legislative provisions. There are 8 school commissioners representing the 4 principal islands, 2 from each of the larger islands, 1 from Maui, 1 from Kauai, 1 at large, with the superintendent as ex-officio member on full parity with the other members. The term is 4 years. The executive department is known as the department of public instruction; the superintendent of public instruction is its administrative officer. He is the presiding officer at all sessions of the commissioners. The superintendent receives an annual salary of $5,700; the commissioners receive no salary, but are allowed expenses for attendance at meetings of the board.

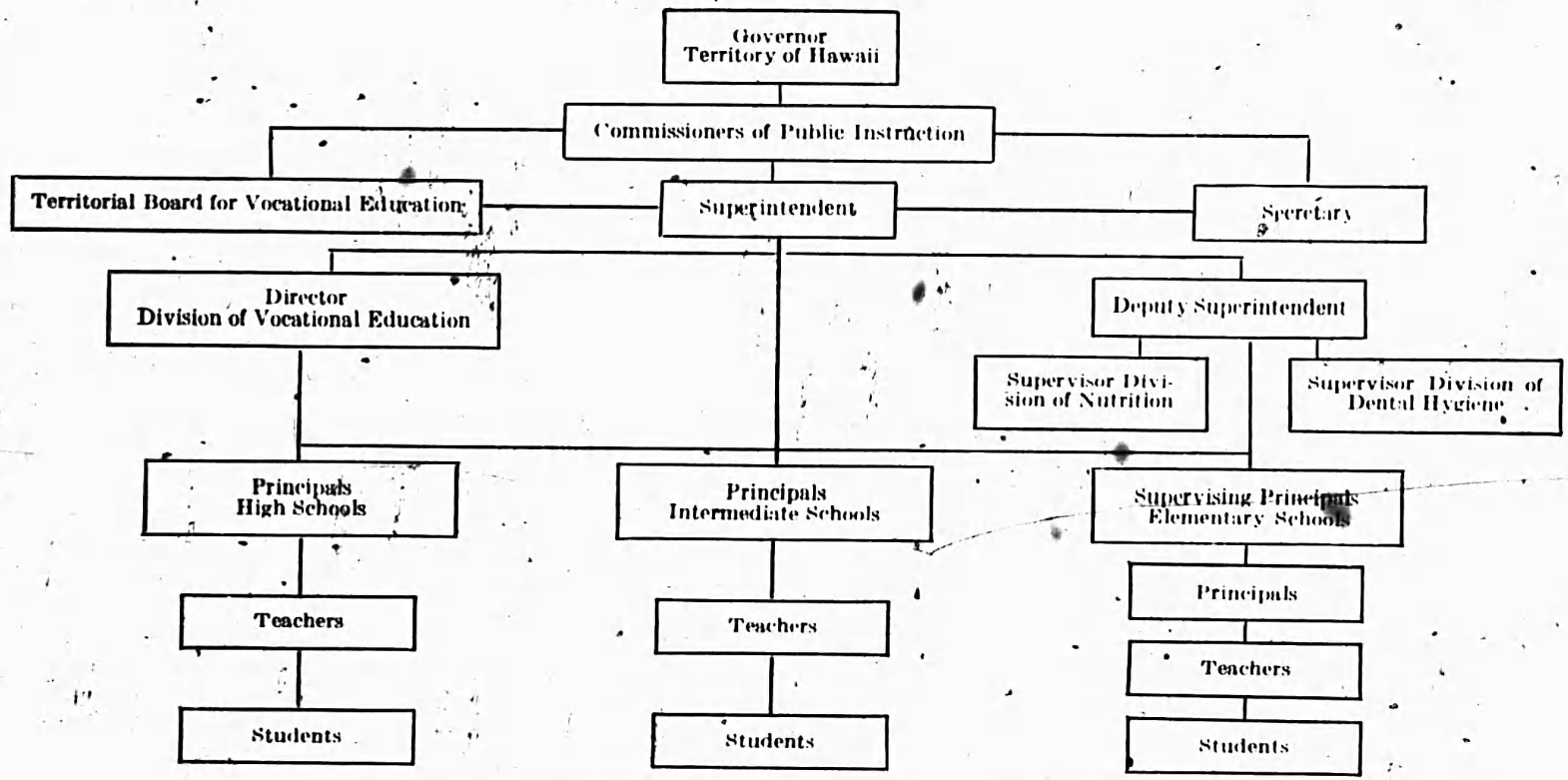
The commissioners have authority and responsibility for the administration of the Department of Public Instruction and all matters pertaining thereto. According to the School Code published by the Department of Public Instruction for 1935, they "shall state the policy or policies of education in the Territory, fix the curriculum for all schools under their control", and prescribe the duties of the superintendent. Women are eligible for appointment, but the law provides that "not more than three shall hold commissions at any one time."

PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM

The Administrative Organization

THE administrative organization for the management of the school system is highly centralized. Full responsibility for public education is centered in a Territorial department of education in charge of the school commissioners, whose executive officer is the superintendent of public instruction. In respect to the administrative organization Hawaii is more nearly comparable to a city school organization than to that of the average State on the mainland. It differs, of course, in many particulars from either. The high degree of centralization which prevails is probably a carry-over from the government which was in effect in Hawaii preceding annexation. The continuance of the characteristics of the old order provided an easier transition to the new than would an immediate establishment of a local control system resembling more nearly systems prevalent in the majority of the States. Under the Hawaiian plan the type of school organization set up, the supervision of instruction, the adoption of textbooks and curricula, the selection and placement of teachers, principals, and supervisors, and, in general, responsibility for all matters concerned with the management and control of public education are directly the responsibility of the department of public instruction.

The Territorial department staff includes, besides the superintendent of public instruction, a deputy superintendent; a director of vocational education; a supervisor of home economics; a supervisor of agriculture; a director of health education; a



Administrative Organization, Public-School System, Territory of Hawaii.

[From a Study of Public Education in Hawaii, by Thayne M. Livesay.]

supervisor; dental hygiene division; a secretary and office manager; and a clerical and stenographic force of 15 persons in the main office at Honolulu. The staff includes also eight supervising principals in charge of as many districts into which the five main islands are divided for school purposes. The supervising principals are resident in the respective districts of which they have charge.[10]

In general the duties of the several school officials named are indicated by their titles. The deputy superintendent, however, in addition to the usual assignments and to acting as head of the department in the absence of the superintendent, serves as chairman of the board of examiners in charge of teacher certification; acts as a member of the several committees on the course of study; is the department budget officer in charge of the purchase and distribution of supplies and equipment; has charge of the school for the deaf and blind; and attends to private school matters. The supervisors of nutrition and dental hygiene report directly to the deputy superintendent.[11]

A unique feature of the Hawaiian system, probably designed to afford some opportunity for the exercise of local responsibility in the management and control of the public schools, is the assignment, by legislative enactment, of considerable authority concerned with school buildings and equipment to county boards of supervisors. Each of the five counties which make up the Territory has such a board. Supervisors are local civil officials elected by the people of the respective counties. These boards have charge of the funds set aside for new school buildings, and for repairs, building maintenance, and equipment in their respective counties.

Local administration and supervision are carried on by the eight supervisory principals who have charge of the schools in their respective districts. Their duties include, besides supervision of classroom activities, considerable clerical and routine work. Formerly special supervisors employed by the Territorial Department of Education assumed considerable responsibility for

[10] Biennial report of the department of public instruction of the Territory of Hawaii, 1931–32.

[11] Livesay, Thayne M. A study of public education in Hawaii; with special reference to the pupil population. Honolulu, Hawaii, University of Hawaii, 1932. 120 p.

classroom supervision, especially in the elementary grades. Their services were, however, discontinued as a result of depression economies.

The supervisory principals are the officers primarily responsible for supervision. Some idea of the extent of their responsibility in terms of number of schools, number of teachers, and school enrollment is indicated in the following table.[13]

Table 3 ★ Number of Schools, Number of Teachers, and School Enrollment, by Territorial District

Territorial district	Number of supervisory districts	Number of schools	Number of teachers	Enrollment	Average teachers per supervising principal
Central Hawaii Eastern Hawaii Western Hawaii	3	60	561	16, 629	187
Kauai	1	20	259	7, 548	259
Honolulu	1	142	1, 039	32, 247	1, 039
Rural Oahu	1	22	365	11, 585	365
East Maui West Maui	2	40	411	12, 465	205
Total	8	184	2, 635	80, 474	.....

The Territorial school system is financed by means of biennial appropriations by the legislature commencing January 1 of the even-numbered years. The annual expenditures are around $5,000,000, and more than 2,500 persons are employed under the direction of the department of public instruction.[14]

The appropriations are grouped chiefly under the following three heads: (1) The general school fund; (2) teachers' salary fund; and (3) the special school fund. General administration and classroom supplies are items of the general school fund as

[13] Based on data from Biennial report, 1931-32. Op. cit.

[14] Survey of schools and industry in Hawaii. By the Governor's Advisory Committee on Education, 1931. Honolulu, Hawaii, The Printshop Company, Ltd., 1931.

budgeted in the biennial reports of the department of public instruction. Tables 4 and 5 show school costs for the purposes indicated for 1932 and average per capita costs per year, respectively, as given in the 1931–32 biennial report of the department of public instruction.

Table 4 ★ School Costs for 1932, Territory of Hawaii [1]

[Costs reduced in 1933–34]

Item	Elementary	Intermediate	High School	Total
General administration (general school fund)	$125,481.55	$9,969.09	$6,783.90	$142,234.54
Teachers' salaries (teachers' salaries fund)	3,160,661.67	758,769.15	581,765.18	4,501,196.00
Classroom supplies (general school fund)	39,405.12	31,302.25	24,129.52	94,836.89
Maintenance, repairs, and equipment (special school fund)	438,401.16	76,066.29	44,432.55	558,900.00
Total current expenses	3,763,949.50	876,106.78	657,111.15	5,297,167.43
CAPITAL OUTLAY: New buildings, land, and land improvements (special school fund)	248,674.41	43,147.10	25,203.49	317,025.00
Grand total	4,012,623.91	919,253.88	682,314.64	5,614,192.43

[1] *Biennial report, department of public instruction, 1931–32, p. 102.*

Table 5 ★ Teachers, Enrollment, and Per Capita Costs of Certain School Services Based on Enrollment [1]

	Elementary	Intermediate	High school	Total
Number of teachers	1,910	429	258	2,610
Number of pupils	62,825	10,906	6,366	80,097
General administration	$2.00	$0.92	$1.07	$1.78
Teachers' salaries	50.31	69.57	91.39	56.20
Classroom supplies	.63	2.87	3.79	1.18
Maintenance, repairs, and equipment	6.97	6.97	6.97	6.97
Total current expense	59.91	80.33	103.22	66.13

[1] *Biennial report, department of public instruction, 1931–32, p. 102.*

The Elementary and Secondary Schools

In organization and program the public-school system provided for Hawaii's more than 100,000 children of school age resembles in all fundamental ways school systems in the United States. The organization provides for 12 years of work—6 years or grades of elementary school work, 3 of intermediate grade, and 3 of senior high school grade. The particular type of organization varies slightly among schools, however. Schools are designated as elementary, intermediate, and high.

Of a total of 184 schools the department of public instruction lists 9 as regular high schools, 2 as vocational high schools, 17 as intermediate, and the remaining 156 as elementary schools. Enrollments are as follows: In regular high schools, 6,036; in vocational high schools, 269; in intermediate schools, 11,031; in elementary schools, 63,138; a total of 80,474 pupils in all schools.[15]

The figures indicate the importance of the elementary school in Hawaii's school program. Approximately three-fourths of all the children enrolled in school are in the first six grades. They

[15] Biennial report. Op. cit.

indicate, too, certain inevitable and quite definite problems which confront the schools concerned with retention of children in school and with the adaptation of the school program to the particular needs of the peculiar racial and economic situation. That these problems are recognized and are being intelligently attacked is shown in the following pages.

The Roosevelt High School embodies modern ideas in school architecture.

Many of Hawaii's elementary- and intermediate-school problems began with and have their roots in the phenomenal increase in enrollment which set in about 1900 and continued as the children of the flood of plantation laborers which had been flowing in in ever-increasing numbers during the preceding decades reached school age. Many young men who had come in earlier as unmarried laborers, young Japanese men in particular, had by that time acquired picture brides and rapidly increasing families. Demands for schoolrooms and teachers taxed the resources of the Territory beyond their possibilities. The enrollment figures for six 10-year periods, from 1880 to 1930, and for

1932 in the table following give some idea of the responsibility the schools were trying to meet.

Table 6 ★ Enrollment for Dates Indicated from 1880 to 1932 [1]

[Public and private schools for 1880 to 1900; public schools only for 1910, 1920, 1930, and 1932]

1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1932
7,164	10,076	15,537	20,245	41,350	76,734	80,474

[1] *Biennial report, department of public instruction, 1931-32.*

In 1919, when the Survey of Education in Hawaii [16] was conducted, excessive teaching loads prevailed in the elementary classrooms. The report of the survey calls attention to this condition and to the fact that the inevitable result of classes numbering 50 to 60 children is a formal type of instruction. This type of instruction was at that time, 1919, all too common in the schools.

Dr. David Livingston Crawford, president of the University of Hawaii, speaks of this mounting school enrollment and the tax it involved on the Territorial resources as follows:[17]

> By the time the first decade of the new century had passed it was realized with alarm that a problem confronted the people. They could not keep up with the demands for new buildings and additional teachers to take care of the steadily increasing numbers of children. To make the burden on the taxpayers not too heavy a policy was adopted of putting up cheap buildings even though they were flimsy and not at all what might be desired from the standpoint of esthetic satisfaction. It was the best they could do and even then they could not keep up with the requirements. Numbers of pupils in each classroom mounted up from 30 to 35, the theoretical ideal, to 50 or 60 or even 70, making the task of effective teaching doubly hard. * * * The burden of costs began to mount up alarmingly and to enhance the difficulty the parents of this rising tide of children were not visibly taxpayers, being for the most part humble field laborers with small wages and no property and only indirectly paying taxes through their purchases of food and clothing.

Even after the physical difficulties of inadequate facilities and overcrowded classrooms have been successfully met in a school

[16] Survey of education in Hawaii. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1920. 408 p. (U. S. Bureau of education, Bulletin, 1920, No. 16.)

[17] Crawford. Op. cit.

system, their educational effects are apt to be reflected in the schools for an extended period. Apparently this is the case in the schools of Hawaii as the information which follows concerning the large number of children who leave school before completing the grades, the excessive amount of retardation, and the unsatisfactory progress children make through the grades, indicates. It appears, too, that the teaching staff, rapidly recruited, is still somewhat below the standards now set up in academic and professional qualifications.

In ability to enroll children of school age, Hawaii ranks well with the States on the continent. Approximately 82 percent of all children of school age were in school, either public or private, in 1932.[18] In regularity of attendance also the record is reasonably favorable; only about 5.6 percent of the school term is reported as not utilized the same year.[19]

In ability to keep children in school after the age limit of the compulsory attendance law has passed and to keep children moving through the grades at the normal rate the system is somewhat less successful. In 1932 the department of public instruction reported that three-fourths of the total enrollment was in grades 1 to 6; one-fifth in grades 7, 8 and 9; and 6.6 percent in grades 10, 11, and 12; that dropping out of school began at about 13 years of age and was "quite marked" at 14, and that at least one-third of all children of the Territory were out of school at 15, and one-half at 16 years of age.

In the Territory as a whole 36½ percent of the pupils in the system were reported retarded one or more years in 1932, approximately 62 percent normal as to grade placement and 1.6 percent accelerated.[20] Comparable data are not available since there are no other school situations exactly paralleling that in Hawaii; however, the percentage of retardation is higher than similar studies on the mainland usually show, and the percentage of acceleration considerably lower.

The school housing problems and that of adjustment of pupil-teacher load to which reference was made earlier seemed on the

[18] Statistics of State school systems, 1931–32. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1933. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, no. 2, ch. I.)

[19] Ibid.

[20] Livesay. Op. cit.

way to solution in 1932. However, owing to depression economies, these expectations were not fully realized. School buildings, already inadequate, were still further taxed during the biennium 1933–34 by an increase in school enrollment of approximately 5,300 children. The situation is remedied in part by renting buildings when available. However, classrooms in 1935 were

A Lei Day in Honolulu—Modern Chinese children observe an old Hawaiian Custom.

still overcrowded to the extent that according to the Territorial Superintendent "the best educational results cannot be obtained." Four new schools and additions to existing buildings to the extent of 156 classrooms, 7 cafeterias and pavilions, and 4 assembly rooms or gymnasiums were provided during the biennium 1931–32. One defect referred to, not yet remedied, is the lack of lighting control, though certain hygienic and sanitary conditions, such as drinking fountains, toilet and washing facilities, playground areas, are below standard in a high percentage of the buildings. [21]

[21] Biennial report, 1931–32. Op. cit.

The pupil-teacher load reported in 1932 at the reasonable level of 36 in the elementary and 25 in the intermediate and high-school grades has been affected adversely (though probably temporarily) by depression economies. The Department's biennial report for 1933–34 indicates that an enrollment of 45 pupils per teacher is not uncommon.

Better physical conditions and a modern conception of the school's place in the social order are facilitating progress in other directions designed eventually to solve the retention and grade progress problems. Obviously final solution is concerned with social and economic as well as with school conditions, which only a long-time program of broad scope can adequately meet. However, the school system is making substantial progress in a number of ways toward improving immediately the conditions indicated. Important among them are a changed policy in grade placement and promotion; significant revisions of the curricula offered, designed to adapt school work more nearly to the abilities and needs of the pupils as well as to the economic situation and future occupational possibilities in the Islands; and a grade organization designed to facilitate both. The changed policy in grade placement in elementary schools is based upon the "fact that the children develop best when placed in groups of about their own age and social maturity. Promotion is not automatic and universal but is considered from the standpoint of its bearing upon all-round child development."

Efforts to provide a school program adapted to the social and economic situation have been under way over a period of years. Courses of study formerly provided for each of the school subjects were replaced some years ago by an "activity program." Subject matter, drawn from "the enterprises being carried on in the community",[22] was organized on an activity basis and distributed to the schools from the central department.

The present plan (1936) for redirecting the curriculum is decentralized. Responsibility rests largely with local school principals and teachers, in order that the needs and capacities of individual pupils as well as local environment may receive consideration. The general plan of revision is directed by the assistant superintendent of public instruction. There are a

[22] Ibid.

number of working committees, including a general curriculum committee; a committee on elementary curriculum revision committees on intermediate and secondary curricula, respectively; and a joint health committee. Promising experiments are under way in a number of schools.

The school system has participated in Federal funds for vocational education since 1925. The Federal allotment in 1935 amounted to nearly $46,000. In common with the curriculum as a whole, the vocational offerings are undergoing adjustment to changing conditions. Continuation classes conducted in cooperation with plantation managers are among recent developments.

Prevocational work is offered also in the intermediate grades in home economics, gardening, elementary agriculture, and shop work. School gardens are featured in many schools. They stimulate the development of home gardens and supply vegetables for school cafeterias.

Health phases of the school program in Hawaii are of special interest and significance. In the revised curricula to which reference has been made, health education is given an important place. A new position, that of director of health education, was recently established in the department of public instruction. Under this new leadership a unified health program is being developed with the following aims: (*a*) Correlating all health service and activities in the public schools; (*b*) coordinating the work of the department of public instruction and the Territorial bureau of health in matters pertaining to health service and health education; and (*c*) stimulating and directing the efforts of principals and teachers in the field of health education.[23]

The health program is furthered, too, through a division of dental hygiene in the department of public instruction which employs 25 dental hygienists and which is designed to reach practically all schools. The hygienists have the status of special teachers and are appointed by districts for service to schools within their respective borders. They give prophylactic treatments to children in the first 4 grades and instruction in dental health, general health habits, and nutrition to all the children in the schools to which they are assigned. Five full-time dentists and one part-time dentist are employed also in the division,

[23] Ibid.

which is directed by a supervisor. The dentists schedule their time among schools according to enrollment. They are able to visit each school once a year or once in 1½ years, according to local conditions. In addition to these publicly supported services there are self-supporting dental health units in a number of schools while the children in the schools of Honolulu are cared for by a privately financed dental clinic.

Health is an important subject in the curriculum. These children are enrolled in the Kauluwela School.

The intermediate schools, of which there are 17, are making definite adjustments to practical needs through a type of organization which can be best described as a modified 6–3–3 plan, and through a revised curriculum corresponding to and following up in principles and practices the activity program of the first 6 elementary grades. Grade organization differs somewhat among these schools; 3 schools are organized to include 6 elementary, 3 junior high, and 3 senior high school grades; 4 schools to include 6 grades on the elementary and 4 on the secondary level; 2 schools, 6 elementary and 3 secondary grades, and 8 schools either grades 7 to 9 or 7 to 12, inclusive, on the secondary level.[31] Of the

[31] Ibid.

"intermediate" schools, 9 include the 6 elementary as well as the intermediate grades in the same school plant, and at least 4 offer some courses on the senior high school level.

The intermediate schools are of special importance in Hawaii since they are terminal schools for approximately half the children. Because of this situation the school system has made an earnest effort to " bring the content of the various fields of instruction into

The carpentry and machine shop of the Kauai High School.

the scope of the pupil's understanding." Preparation for citizenship, health, and ability to make good in some type of productive labor are among the immediate objectives of the intermediate schools. These objectives, requiring curriculum adjustments, are in part to harmonize with modern ideas concerning the school's responsibility to the social order; and in part responsive to the particular situation in Hawaii whose industrial system demands unskilled and low-cost workers, almost wholly of the agricultural variety. Schools which offer academic programs largely or chiefly have not proved successful in meeting the problem in Hawaii. Over a period of years labor has been imported from Europe and the Orient while the natives of the Islands, educated

in its school system, have been unable to fit into the prevailing economic scheme. Both industry and education are making significant adjustments in the hope of finding a satisfactory solution to the problem indicated.

The high schools generally include 3 years of work, grades 10 to 12, inclusive. A few carry a 4-year program, however. There are 9 regular high schools with an enrollment of 6,036 pupils and,

Prize winners in the school garden flower contest.

in addition, 2 vocational high schools which offer technical vocational training. The combined enrollment of the 2 vocational schools is 269.

In Hawaii as elsewhere high-school enrollment has increased rapidly in the years since 1920. Between 1921 and 1928 the annual increase in enrollment was continuous, beginning with an increase of 14 percent in 1922 and reaching the peak with an increase of 21 percent in 1928. During the next 4 years the enrollment increased as follows: 1927, 15 percent; 1930, 12.7 percent; 1931, 12 percent; 1932, 4.3 percent. Indications are that the last is

about the normal rate to be expected in the future and that it will not again be necessary to provide for abnormal increases in secondary school enrollment.

Buildings for high-school purposes are reasonably adequate. The offerings are similar to high-school offerings on the mainland. English, the social studies, and physical education are required throughout the high-school course, as is one course in laboratory science before graduation. Electives are offered in vocational and prevocational subjects and in mathematics, languages, music, and the sciences. At least two elective courses must be chosen by each pupil each year.[25]

Education on the secondary level is open to "all youth who have by habits of study, attitudes, and intellectual ability demonstrated their fitness to profit by it, subject to the limits of available facilities." [26] The public high schools are organized primarily for the larger group of children who will not enter the university. However, preparation for admission to the university is provided also. The fundamental objectives of health, character training, and citizenship are stressed in the secondary schools.

In the vocational high schools, courses are offered in carpentry, machine shop, auto mechanics, electricity, dressmaking, weaving,

The Teachers

There are 2,586 teachers in the public schools distributed among the three types of schools as follows: Elementary, 1,92[illegible] intermediate, 406; high school, 258. The more recent reports of the department of public instruction include information on types of certificates held by the teachers rather than on their educational qualifications. According to the latest available data, those for 1930 in the Biennial Report of the Department of Public Instruction for that year, the educational training of 2,652 teachers then in service is shown in the table on page 41.

The present minimum requirement for certification for elementary teachers entering the service is 2 years of training of higher grade; for high-school teachers, 4 years, or graduation

[25] Data in preceding paragraphs according to Biennial Report of the Department of Public Instruction, 1931-32.

[26] Biennial Report. Op. cit. p. 3.

Educational training	Number of teachers	Percent of teachers
Less than high-school training	95	3. 59
High-school graduates	84	3. 17
1 year beyond high school	85	3. 21
Normal graduates:		
Territorial normal	1. 389	52. 37
Mainland normals	252	9. 50
Other normals	1	. 04
2 years beyond high school (not normal)	55	2. 08
3 years beyond high school (not normal)	54	2. 04
College or university graduates:		
University of Hawaii	155	5. 84
Mainland college or university	407	15. 34
Other colleges or universities	5	. 19
One-half year or more graduate work		
1 year or more graduate work		
Holders of masters' degrees	61	2. 30
Holders of doctors' degrees	9	. 33
	2. 652	100. 00

from college. However, the department of public instruction is "now requiring as far as possible" that teachers entering the system as elementary teachers be graduates of a 4-year teachers college course and that incoming intermediate and high-school teachers have a fifth year of training.

In recent years significant efforts have been under way to promote higher qualifications among teachers through requiring higher entrance qualifications, through professional improvement in service, and through provision for teacher participation in the

general administrative program. According to a recent report, from one-half to three-fourths of all the teachers in the school system were enrolled, at the time of its publication, in afternoon and evening classes and in summer sessions. Preceding the salary cuts now operative, each teacher was expected to earn six credits in educational courses during each 3-year period.

Average annual salaries of teachers for 1931–32 were: Elementary, $1,633; intermediate, $1,771; high-school, $2,146. The supervising principals received from $3,920 to $4,110. Reductions in all groups are reported for 1933–34.

Other Educational Provisions

Supplementing the regular public-school system of elementary and secondary schools and under the direction of the department of public instruction the Territory maintains special classes for slow pupils, opportunity classes for subnormal children, and a Territorial school for the deaf and blind.

The special classes for slow pupils are established in the larger elementary and intermediate schools. Practical courses are offered with emphasis on the manual arts, health, oral English, and citizenship. The work is adapted to the development of such capacities as the pupils enrolled possess.

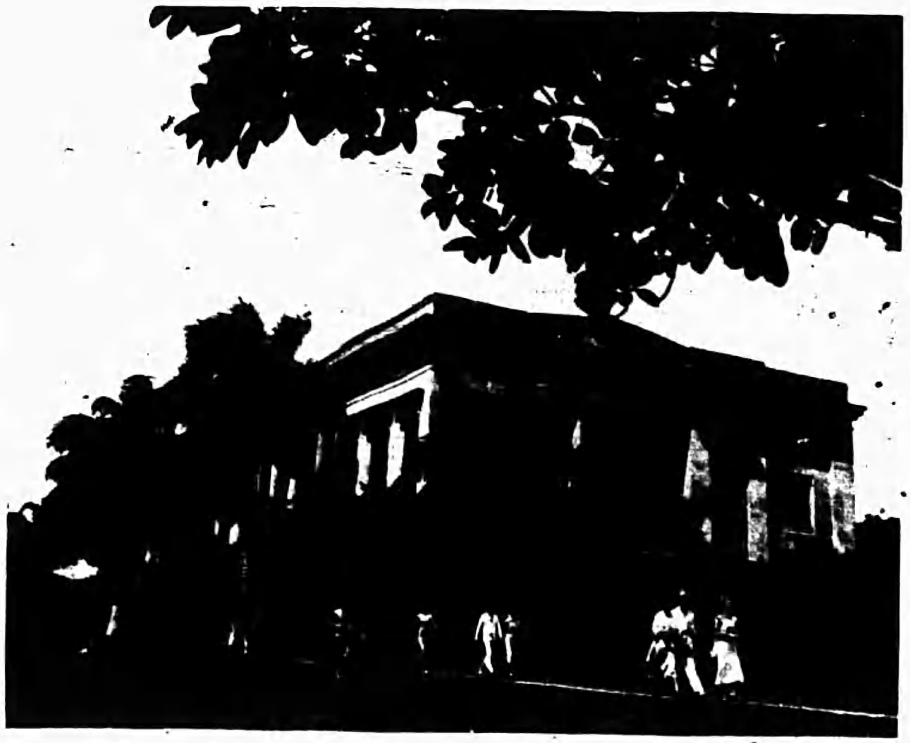
Opportunity classes are organized for subnormal children who remain in the public schools. Small classes in the home districts and one central school are maintained.

The Territorial School for the Deaf and Blind.—Children between the ages of 6 and 16 who are deaf or blind and cannot be cared for in the regular public-school classes must, according to compulsory attendance laws, be sent by parents or guardians to the Territorial School for the Deaf and Blind. This law applies to partially as well as totally deaf or blind persons. They are required to attend throughout the regular school year unless they are excused by the superintendent of public instruction, or a judge of the circuit court, or are receiving skilled private instruction.

A part-time physician and a resident nurse look after the children's health. In 1932, 90 pupils were enrolled of whom 69 were classified as deaf and 21 as blind.

The University of Hawaii

Public higher education in Hawaii dates from 1907 when a federally aided land-grant college was established. It was known as the College of Hawaii and enjoyed from its establishment the benefits of the subsidies under the Morril Act of 1890 and the Nelson amendment. In 1919 the Territorial legislature enacted



The Library, University of Hawaii.

a bill creating the University of Hawaii on the foundation laid by the college. There are no private institutions of higher education in Hawaii and in 1931 the Territorial Normal School was combined with the university as the teachers college of the university offering courses for the preparation of both elementary and secondary teachers. The University of Hawaii presents the unique situation of being the one higher institution in a political subdivision of considerable size and population isolated geographically from the rest of the world by broad ocean waters.

The act creating the university creates a college of arts and sciences and provides for the incorporation into the university

of such other departments as may from time to time be established. The university is governed by a board of regents composed of 7 members of which the president of the university is one. He acts as secretary to the board. Enrollment has increased from approximately 166 in 1920 to 1,092 graduate and undergraduate students and 396 part-time students in 1930-31. The university is supported from Territorial appropriations, Federal funds, and students fees. Total expenditures for 1930-31 from all three sources approximate $667,131.

Some Special Problems in Education

The unique situations concerned with the population and with the economic resources and conditions which prevail in Hawaii have quite naturally led to unusual problems for the schools to solve. The first serious problem following annexation was one of providing school facilities for a rapidly and quite suddenly increasing school population. While plantation laborers were being brought in in such large numbers, from the Orient especially, to satisfy the pressing demand for labor with which to develop Hawaii's rich agricultural resources, emphasis was on that immediate objective. It was an adult, chiefly male, population, of productive age and for some years involved no immediately pressing problem in education. It was only when the inevitable happened and the children of these large numbers of laborers reached school age, as thousands did at about the same time, and the school system was forced to meet a demand for facilities quite disproportionate to its ability, judged by established precedent, that the significance of the situation which had been developing was recognized and provisions for ultimately meeting it were initiated. As indicated elsewhere in this document the crux of the situation has now passed and the normal increase which may be expected from now on, has set in. In the meantime, however, crowded classrooms and the resulting abnormal pupil-teacher relationship aggravated by a variety of racial and language differences which make teaching difficult even under normal conditions resulted in some serious problems concerned with retardation, retention in school, quality of instruction, etc., from which the system is not yet wholly free.

Social and economic adjustment has offered another source of problems in public education. Even preceding the survey of education in Hawaii made in 1919 it was recognized that occupational needs and opportunities centered about plantation industries, particularly growing and milling of the sugar cane and the growing and canning of pineapples. The need then as now is for unskilled labor, and opportunities for positions congenial to youth who have completed the elementary and secondary

Vocational school, Honolulu.

schools are few. The survey discussed at length these needs and called attention to the occupational opportunities which existed or could be developed. Attention was called to the survey committee's belief that a school program limited to the usual academic subjects would "ignore almost entirely the very heart of the life work of the Islands." Suggestions concerning desirable adaptations in the school program were made in the survey report and differences between the situations and consequent educational needs in Hawaii and on the mainland were pointed out.

In 1930 the acuteness of the situation was recognized by civil as well as education officials and an advisory committee to study education and industry was appointed by the Governor. Assisted

by Dr. Charles A. Prosser, specialist in vocational education, and in cooperation with the legislative committee on education, the committee made an extensive study and reported its findings in a volume of substantial size and practical importance.[27] One of the purposes of the study was to examine into the then existing relationships between schools and industry and to find if possible a means of better coordination between the industrial needs of the Islands and the school program. The committee found a "laudable effort to adapt the curriculum to the abilities of pupils and to direct them into studies and work best suited to them" but reported that "no suitable procedure had been devised for making these efforts effective." They found that parents relied on the hope that their children would reach a higher place socially and a better position economically merely by spending years in school and that the "continuation and extension of the scheme of schooling found would lead great numbers of youth to build up ambitions and aspirations predestined to frustration." This committee made extensive recommendations concerned with reorganization of the administrative set-up of the school system as well as of the school program itself.

The school's responsibility for the acquisition of facility in the use of correct English offers a continuing succession of teaching problems. Language difficulties are not confined to those which teachers meet when children hear and use one foreign language only in their out-of-school hours. Normally expected teaching problems are aggravated and complicated in Hawaii by the diversity of languages and of racial mixtures which prevail, often leading to the use of two different foreign languages in the home, as well as by the more or less common use of pidgin English which children hear and use on the street and on the playground. It is only during school hours that many Hawaiian children have the opportunity to gain facility in English or are encouraged to use it at all. At the present time the schools are seeking increased progress in the direction of improving their pupils' use of English through added efforts and improved methods in school, and through more and better cooperation of the parents and the community in promoting the use of English outside of school hours and off school grounds.

[27] Survey of schools and industry in Hawaii. Op. cit.

The difficulties which are encountered in teaching English in the Hawaiian schools may be judged somewhat by a consideration of the variety of nations and races represented in the school population and the consequent variety of languages used in the homes and elsewhere. Table 7 shows the percentage of children of each nationality or race making up the school population.

Table 7 ★ Race Percentages of the Public-School Population [1]

(First 12 Grades)

Race	Percentage of total distributions						
	Territory	Kauai	Oahu	Maui	Hawaii	Rural Oahu	Honolulu
Hawaiian	4.5	3.6	3.5	6.3	6.1	2.7	3.7
Part Hawaiian	10.3	8.5	10.8	11.6	9.0	5.9	12.5
Portuguese	8.2	10.2	7.3	9.4	8.6	4.8	8.3
Puerto Rican	1.6	2.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.3	1.3
Spanish	.4	.5	.4	.2	.3	.4	.4
Other Caucasian	3.9	1.7	5.9	1.5	1.6	4.9	6.3
Chinese	9.0	3.5	14.2	2.7	3.0	4.5	17.6
Japanese	54.1	59.6	48.3	58.7	63.0	60.0	44.1
Korean	2.4	1.5	3.1	1.3	1.8	4.3	2.7
Filipino	4.6	7.3	4.1	5.7	3.9	10.6	1.8
All others	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	.9	.6	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] *Livesay, Thayne M. A study of public education in Hawaii; with special reference to the pupil population. Honolulu, Hawaii, University of Hawaii, 1932.*

There are, however, many pertinent problems for which the schools seek satisfactory solutions, as well as the language problem, though its significance is not confined to the acquisition of knowledge. The importance of facility in the use of a common tongue as an integrating factor is at least equally significant.

Problems of Equitability and Efficiency

The organization for the administration and support of public schools in Hawaii is designed to promote equitability in educational offerings throughout the Territory. To a marked degree this objective has been realized. Especially has the Territory avoided discrimination based on locality, as between urban and rural, for example, a practice prevalent in so many of our States. Throughout the Territory children, whether in sparsely settled regions or in more favored and more populous centers, enjoy substantial equality in educational offerings. In selection of qualified teachers for specific positions, in salaries paid and qualifications exacted, there is no discrimination. Terms are of the same length, buildings and teaching equipment are equally well provided throughout, curriculum adaptations are as intelligently made, and supervision is in some areas more adequate in rural than urban areas. Basically, therefore, the system itself is democratic.

Developments arising in part from a false idea of economy in school management, in part inherent in realizing democracy in education, in a situation of unusual difficulties, have in some instances thwarted the realization of full equitability which the organization is designed to insure. Certain retrenchments initiated as depression economies are having serious effects on school efficiency and equitability.

In the biennial report of the Department of Public Instruction for 1933–34 attention is called to the growing tendency to place much of the cost of education on individuals rather than on the Territory itself. Tuition charges are exacted in intermediate and high-school grades. The extent to which this policy militates against equitability of educational opportunities among the children of the Territory cannot be stated with the information now available. A study of 232 pupils who had dropped out of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in four selected schools to ascertain the reasons why they dropped out, reported in the 1933–34 biennium, indicates that financial reasons accounted for not returning to school in approximately one-third of the cases studied. No doubt the money necessary to provide for fees, tuition, and book rentals was an important consideration in the financial inability of these children to continue in school. Indi-

vidual pupils and their families furnished approximately 7¼ percent of the total governmental expenditures for schools. The amount collected in the school year 1933–34 from this source was $357,271.[28]

It seems probable that the practice of exacting tuition has an important influence on secondary school enrollment. Data cited in the biennial report of the Department of Public Instruction to which reference is made, show that while slightly over 17 percent of all pupils of high-school age are enrolled for the United States as a whole, 11 percent are enrolled in Hawaii. Three and five-tenths percent of the total population are enrolled in high school in the United States as a whole; 2.2 percent in Hawaii.

Another factor influencing high-school enrollment is found in the policy enforced during recent years of passing on to secondary school selected students only from the eighth and ninth year classes. This particular kind of elimination of an indefinite number of children each year based on "administrative decree"[29] would seem inevitably to result in injustice to and discrimination against many children. The policy is certainly not in accord with principles of modern education nor in line with the growing tendency to provide the type of education suited to the retention of all children in school until they find their places in the economic world. This whole policy and its effects are now under review by the present administration. Its discontinuance seems an early possibility. In regard to this situation the latest report of the Department of Public Instruction makes this statement: "Social well being of the community means that all normal children be permitted to continue in school until such time as they enter regularly upon employment. It is recognized that in many instances the best interests of the child will be served by encouraging him to leave school to go to work. Such cases should be handled on the basis of individual guidance rather than by blanket rule."

While the Territory of Hawaii is reasonably generous in providing equipment and teaching materials, its legislature has not as yet provided free textbooks. Recently there has been installed a

[28] Biennial Report, Department of Public Instruction, Hawaii, 1933–34. Honolulu, Hawaii, The Department.

[29] Ibid.

very successful system of providing books which has many of th advantages that usually accompany provision of free textbook Books in adequate number, text and supplementary, are pur chased with Territorial funds and distributed among schools an classes according to needs. Children throughout the system elementary and secondary, pay a rental fee for the books they use The fee varies among grades according to the number and valu of the books provided. The system is conducted in such a way as to be self-supporting. As a result children throughout the Territory are supplied with an abundance of reading and refer ence material not generally found in schools in which they must annually purchase new books for the grade in which they are enrolled. While the cost is a hardship on some children as com pared with free textbooks, it is said to be considerably less than outright purchase.

The centralized school system results, as would be expected, in a well-organized plan for locating schools on strategically selected sites, and in bringing together children in reasonably large groups from the point of view of social and educational objectives. There are few small schools in the Territory. Of a total of 183 school buildings, only 9 are one-teacher schools; 11, two-teacher, and 6, three-teacher schools. Sixty-seven school buildings, 37 percent of the total number, employ 17 or more teachers and provide a principal who devotes full time to administrative and supervisory duties.

The formation of centralized school attendance units in rural areas in continental United States usually presupposes provision of adequate transportation facilities for the children at public expense. One of the weaknesses of Hawaii's school system is its lack of adequate transportation. Many children must walk long distances to school and spend an unduly long day away from home either at school or on the road to and from school. A recent study, to which attention is called in the 1933–34 biennial report of the Department of Public Instruction, shows that 2,128 elementary and 2,289 high-school pupils, exclusive of those transported at public expense, travel (usually walk) at least 4 miles each way daily to attend school. Many travel 8 or 10 miles.

The lack of transportation accounts in part for the common experience as one travels the roads in rural districts of meeting

children apparently on their way home from school at 5 o'clock or later in the afternoon. Schools in the Territory open at 8 in the morning or earlier. Work in the cane fields begins very early in the morning and many children, especially those whose mothers work, rise as early as 4:30 or 5 [30] o'clock. The long school day, aggravated by the long distances traveled by at least the 4,000 children studied, offers a serious handicap to the health and school progress of many children. Transportation at public expense would relieve the situation though it would not fully solve the problem.

The Language Schools

Oriental language schools have been maintained in Hawaii over a long period of years so far weathering the storm of much criticism and at times definite efforts to abolish them. The enrollment in December 1934, was 44,500, largely children of Japanese parentage. The language schools are tuition schools, offering instruction in both elementary and secondary grades. Their purpose is that of acquainting children with the language, culture, and customs of the homeland. Generally the schools are located near the public schools; children go to them directly after the public schools close for instruction of 1½ hours or longer varying according to subjects studied and age and grade of the children attending.

The effects of attendance at oriental language schools on the children's health and educational progress is a matter of much discussion in Hawaii. One of these effects—the prolongation of the child's school day, may be an adverse one on health, especially the health of young and delicate children. The rest period common in the public schools is probably an outcome of the fact that so high a percentage of the public-school children attend also the language schools. It is one effort to allay the evils of an over-long school day.

Educational implications of attendance at the oriental language schools are concerned chiefly with their effects on the children's

[30] General Practices, Menus, and Recipes for the Cafeterias of the Public Schools. Honolulu, Hawaii, Department of Public Instruction, Division of Vocational Education. January 1936.

ability to acquire a sufficient knowledge of English in the early school years to enable them to progress through the grades of the public schools at the normal rate. Excessive retardation is expensive to the individual concerned, to the school group of which he is a member, and to the school system. There is also a rather prevalent opinion in Hawaii that assimilation into American culture is postponed for the children who attend the language schools.

Ability to use a second language (in this case chiefly Japanese) is a generally acknowledged asset. Questions raised in Hawaii are not concerned so much with the acquisition of the language as with the way in which and the period of the child's life at which it is acquired. The possibility and desirability of teaching the oriental languages as special subjects in the intermediate and secondary grades of the public schools rather than in special-language schools as now organized and conducted have been considered but not tried out. Such a plan would be in line with practice followed in teaching foreign languages in public-school systems elsewhere in the United States. The relative values of the two methods have not been studied. In view of the whole situation involved in the maintenance of the schools and their effects on the children attending and on the public-school programs, a thorough study of the problems involved, results of which could be made widely available, would seem desirable. It might set at rest controversial questions which are disturbing to normal educational progress and which doubtless react to the detriment of the children whose welfare is after all the important consideration.

The language situation has other serious aspects, among them the probability that English-speaking children profit less by the school program than they would normally because of the slower development of their non-English-speaking classmates, and their tendency to acquire habits of incorrect pronunciation and inflection from constant association with the bilingual children who predominate in numbers in the public schools. As one means of mitigating these evils a number of schools known as standard or English standard schools have been established, admission to which is determined on the basis of a test in ability to use the English language. Segregation of schools on a racial basis is

not an accepted policy of the school system. Yet, as would be expected, the practice indicated has some of the implications of segregation and as such offers another criticism for the schools to meet. Perhaps the most hopeful factor in the situation is the expectation which seems to be based on similar experience elsewhere that both types of schools—the oriental language and English standard schools—will eventually become unnecessary and consequently be eliminated naturally as the coming generations become better assimilated into Hawaiian life and questions growing out of language difficulties are less serious.

Education for Social Efficiency

Throughout the United States, training for social efficiency is a fundamental objective of the school program. Generally speaking, it is attacked in public schools on the continent both directly and indirectly. Direct and indirect methods are followed also in Hawaii, where the objective is at least as significant and difficult of achievement. Probably even more definite emphasis on direct instruction as well as more and more varied adjustments in the regular program, all specifically adapted to the Hawaiian situation, are essential. The heterogeneity of the population as a whole and the predominance of young people of oriental background and parentage whose culture and traditions differ widely from those prevailing in the United States, generally aggravated by the fact that the non-American group is as a whole underprivileged economically, have been explained elsewhere in this bulletin, and need only to be referred to here.

Reference has been made also to continuing adjustments in the school curriculum under way; to changes in regulations governing progress through the various school levels; to efforts to solve the language problem; and to emphasis on the "practical", meaning thereby, special provision for consideration in the school program to local conditions and economic needs, all directed toward social ends.

Throughout the system efforts of different kinds were observed to utilize opportunities inherent naturally and regularly in the school program toward the achievement of social objectives. The conduct and management of the school cafeterias offers per-

haps the best example since they are widely distributed throughout the Islands and there is considerable unity among them in general procedures and objectives.

Cafeterias as they function in Hawaiian schools are directed toward the promotion of better standards of living, gradual and natural adjustment to American social usages, improvement in health habits, consciousness of the importance of home and community sanitation, participation and cooperation in common tasks and responsibilities, and the like. These and other general objectives are achieved in real and practical life situations with little apparent imposition of the learning aspects on the children concerned.

The primary purpose of the school cafeterias as stated by the Department of Public Instruction [31] is that of promoting the health of the children through serving attractive well-balanced meals at a price they can afford. The supplementary purposes enumerated in the manual seem of at least equal significance in the school program, such as the development of a sense of responsibility, development of the realization of the need for and satisfaction in rendering service, training in planning and organization for cooperative work, and utilization of opportunities for actual practice in common social usages. "Through the lunch service, when properly and completely carried on, the child of foreign parentage has opportunity for constant practice of simple customs and ordinary social procedures so important in the everyday future life of the child. This is brought about in a natural way, and the child forms basic habits of these common usages by constant practice. Some of these social customs are: (1) Washing hands before eating; (2) sitting at a table or desk and eating slowly and in an orderly manner; (3) engaging in conversation of a pleasant nature during mealtime; (4) proper use of tableware and simple table manners and courtesy at mealtime." [32]

Some unusual features characterize the school cafeterias. The manager is a member of the school faculty paid in part from regular Territorial salary funds and in part from the proceeds of

[31] General Practices, Menus, and Recipes for the Cafeterias of the Public Schools. Honolulu, Hawaii, Department of Public Instruction, Division of Vocational Education. January 1936.

[32] Ibid.

the cafeteria. Foods are served at a low cost, yet menus are attractive, balanced, and nourishing. They include foods which the children like, which are common in local markets, adapted to the taste and financial status of the people of the local community and which are in harmony with the health and education objectives of the school program of which the cafeteria functions as an integral part.

The cafeterias are self-supporting and frequently the proceeds are sufficient to provide luncheons for children who cannot afford to purchase them as well as special equipment not regularly supplied for the cafeteria kitchens or for the dining rooms.

Luncheon consisting of a main dish is served in all schools at a cost of 5 cents or less; supplementary dishes cost 1 cent. These usually include a dish adapted to supplement what some children bring from home, as well as something suitable for a midmorning luncheon for undernourished children or for those who come to school without breakfast. Milk or chocolate are among the 1-cent dishes commonly served.

The 5-cent or lower priced meal is characterized by the Department of Education [33] as the one most satisfactory. This meal "should consist of a substantial main dish, preferably with meat or fish flavor in small quantities, a starchy vegetable, a green succulent vegetable (one-fourth pound daily for each child), a whole slice of bread and butter, and the addition of an occasional fruit or sweet." Health building foods and completely balanced meals are believed essential, especially since in many cases it is the child's major food for the day.[33]

The cafeterias are businesslike in management and the work for which pupils are responsible is well systematized. The children work in groups of three or more depending on the duties assigned and the number of persons to be served. The following committees are suggested as the probable minimum by the Department of Public Instruction: *Group 1, Food Preparation.* Duties are concerned with preparing foods for cooking, tending to the cooking, and helping with the cleaning up later. *Group 2, Service.* Prepare luncheon pavilion and tables and tend to the serving of the luncheon. *Group 3, Sanitation.* This group prepares the cafeteria, sees that floors are clean, washes dishes, and helps with the prep-

[33] Ibid.

aration of the foods. In the larger schools or those in which a greater variety of foods are served, additional groups are suggested such as sandwich groups, salad groups, dessert groups. Each group has a leader responsible for the group assignment. In 1935–36, school cafeterias were in operation in 137 schools—almost three-fourths of the total number. More than 35,000 children were served with "main meals" at 5 cents or less and several thousand "supplementary dishes" were served in addition.

The school organization furnishes other opportunities for social training which are utilized widely in Hawaiian schools. Tasks concerned with school housekeeping such as assuming responsibility for leaving the rooms clean at the close of school; for upkeep and care of the playgrounds and conduct of play periods; for certain assigned community activities, have real possibilities when properly utilized toward achieving objectives of good citizenship training. A number of schools, especially intermediate and secondary schools, have developed student government activities to a marked degree of efficiency. In these schools student councils, class and special purpose groups, assume practically full responsibility for many functions concerned with student conduct and morale; conduct and care of school grounds, including playgrounds; student, school, and community welfare activities; medical care and hospitalization of needy students; and other important functions concerned with school and student government.

The territory-wide school health program to which attention is called elsewhere in this bulletin is supplemented by such special services as the following: Provision for at least one physical examination for all children when they enter school; a vision testing program for all children in the third and fourth grades repeated in the seventh grade; tuberculin tests with X-ray service when necessary with an accompanying tuberculosis education program as a follow-up measure; and wide provision for rest classes.

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