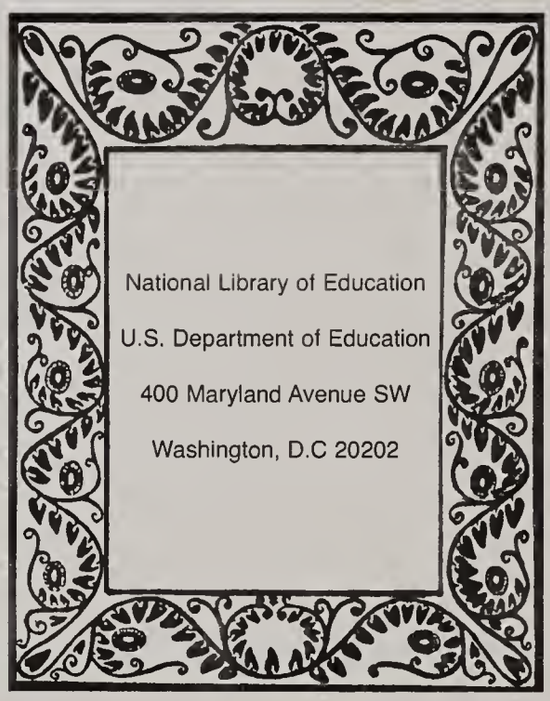

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HART HOUSE, THE RECREATION CENTER FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
DELEGATES TO THE CONFERENCE OF THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS ENJOYED ITS FACILITIES

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SCHOOL LIFE

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General Guidance Responsibilities of the Secondary School

The School Must Now Supplement the Home in Directing Development of Capacities of Individual Pupils. Teacher Must Establish Proper Environment for Effective School Study. Permanent Intellectual and Aesthetic Interests Should be Developed. Capacity to Evaluate Worthy Forms of Leisure are Enlarged by Secondary-School Experience. Formation of Proper Civic Attitudes Requires Attention

By WILLIAM C. REAVIS

School of Education, University of Chicago

EXTENSION of compulsory education into the age regions of the secondary school and the growing interest of all classes of people in general education have created problems of educational administration which were seldom encountered a generation ago. Then the decision to send or not to send a child to high school was made by the family. The individual who presented himself for admission to a secondary school usually knew what he was seeking. Such matters as the opportunities offered by the secondary school, the use the individual would make of his opportunities, the sacrifice entailed by the family that the individual member might have the advantages provided, were usually discussed in family council before an individual was permitted to enter upon his secondary-school career.

After admission, the individual was primarily responsible for his own failure or success. He knew in advance what the school offered, and earnestness of purpose was assumed. If he failed to meet the requirements of the school, he either tried again or voluntarily withdrew. It was taken for granted by the individual that the family sacrifice should not be in vain and that the school was not maintained for those who could not profit from the work which it provided.

Changed Personnel Has Caused Marked Adjustments

To-day the situation described in the preceding paragraphs has been greatly changed. In some States pupils are required to attend school until 14, 16, or 18 years of age. In many communities public sentiment for secondary education is so strong that parents insist on their children remaining in school irrespective of the personal value received. As a result the secondary school has undergone marked adjustments in an attempt to meet the needs of its changed personnel. Instead of a required curriculum designed to prepare chiefly for admission to college, many curriculums are now offered from which the pupils may select. Instead of placing the responsibility for accomplishment solely on the pupil the school now undertakes to guide and direct the development of the capacities which its individual pupils possess.

Needs of Pupils for Guidance

The adjustment of pupils of high-school age to the complex environment in which they live is no simple matter. The individual's world to-day is vastly larger and more complex than it was a generation ago. Science and scientific methods have greatly extended the local environment of the youth everywhere. As a result he is virtually overwhelmed with experience which he can not fully understand or clearly interpret for want of an adequate experiential basis.

The home no longer provides the basis needed for the interpretation of many of the experiences encountered by the youth. The vocational specialization of parents and the marked changes in the modes of family life have restricted the influence of the home as an integrating institution. Unless the school assumes the function formerly discharged by the home, the pupil is apt to flounder for want of guidance and may fail to find himself with respect to his interests and capacities or to take full advantage of the opportunities which the school and community provide for his growth and development.

Changes Often Baffle Student's Understanding

The needs of the youth of high-school age for guidance are both many and varied. He is undergoing marked physical, mental, and social development. With inner changes taking place which at times baffle his understanding and outer experiences being thrust upon him which defy interpretation, the youth frequently becomes maladjusted with respect to family, school, and community. At the time in the individual's life when guidance is most needed the youth frequently neither understands himself nor is understood by those on whom he would depend.

It should not be inferred from what has been said that the secondary school must act *in loco parentis* to the pupil. However, the schools must supplement the home in helping the pupil properly to integrate himself with respect to school and community life. It can not perform its new responsibility by applying tests which will eliminate all of its pupils save a given type. It must diagnose the needs of the pupil material received and supply the kinds of guidance which the pupils as individuals require. In addition to assistance in the choice of high-school subjects or courses, in the selection of college, in the investigation of vocational opportunities and aptitudes, and in the development of personal traits and qualities,

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every individual should receive guidance from the secondary school in the following ways:

1. Guidance in the Efficient Use of School Time

One of the most important lessons for a pupil to learn in the secondary school is an effieient method of using his time. As a rule this lesson is only partly learned for the reason that the responsibility for acquiring it is left largely to the pupil himself. Tasks are assigned by the school and the performance is evaluated. The methods of performance are often unguided and unknown. The school unwittingly encourages its pupils to establish habits of "getting-by" through its practices (1) of assigning work to be done without supervision; (2) of employing the greater portion of the class period in the evaluation of lessons learned outside the classroom; (3) of accepting from pupils as actual learning what has been in reality only partly learned; and (4) of failing to assume direct responsibility for guiding its pupils in the development of efficient methods of work and study.

The lesson-hearing practice of the school rests on a false assumption, namely, that the pupil through his own efforts without skilled guidance and supervision will make the correct interpretations, acquire the intelligent attitudes, and make the proper adaptations which his lesson material requires. Teaching involves more than the mere evaluation of lesson assignments. It requires understanding of the pupils as individuals, knowledge of their personal needs, and guidance in the development of the skills or abilities desired.

It can not be assumed by a teacher that a pupil will acquire efficient methods of employing his working time unless the processes as well as the performance are supervised and evaluated. The teacher must establish the proper environmental conditions for effective study and must regulate the factors involved to insure the development of efficient habits. The pupil must be made conscious of the task to be accomplished; a motive for study must be aroused; guidance must be given in the use of the type of learning to be employed; the pupil must be led to evaluate the character of his own performance; constructive criticism and reteaching must be resorted to until satisfactory results are obtained, if possible.

Through the failure of the school to assume responsibility for guidance in the formation of efficient methods of study on the part of its pupils inefficient and harmful habits are often formed. The pupil does not learn how to listen attentively, to read understandingly, to analyze carefully, to evaluate critically, to organize coherently, and to express his ideas clearly. Studying at home and reciting at school will not insure the development of the habits enumerated in the foregoing sentence. Much of the actual studying as well as the testing must take place in the classroom under the direction and supervision of the teacher.

It is not the intention of the writer to discourage and dispense with home study. On the eontrary, it is believed that the best way to insure efficient, independent study on the part of any individual is to teach him how to study effectively. The school can not expect its pupils solely through trial and error procedure to learn how to make the most effective use of their time. It has a guidance responsibility, and to the extent that it fails to assume its responsibility to that extent it becomes a party to the miseducation of its pupils.

2. Guidance in the Development of Intellectual and Æsthetic Interests

The secondary school fails to render any large service to the youth if it merely requires him to learn lesson material to the satisfaction of his instructors. It must seek to develop in its pupils through the contacts with the major fields of knowledge permanent intellectual and esthetic interests and tastes.

Interests and tastes usually develop as by-products of learning or else they are acquired through guidance and sharing on the part of those who possess such interests and states. It is doubtful whether they are ever acquired through the ordinary procedures of the classroom. They are an outgrowth of the development of a favorable attitude on the part of the pupil toward the values which the intellectual or æsthetic materials possess.

The techniques by which the results are accomplished vary according to the types of learning involved. In materials which require assimilation and rationalization intellectual interest is usually an outgrowth of thorough understanding. It seldom, if ever, results from partial learning or learning for the occasion as much of the classroom work demands. In learning which requires a change in attitude on the part of the learner the instructor is eoncerned with the recognition and appreciation by the pupil of the values which the subject material possesses.

The real test of the development of intellectual and æsthetic interests, tastes, and appreciation are (1) the voluntary use which the pupil makes of intellectual and æsthetic materials and (2) revelation of the desire to share with others the experiences which the individual in question has come to value and enjoy. The classroom should provide occasions which will encourage the pupil to express his developing interests and tastes in creative effort and to share the values which he has come to recognize with those who are working with him for common ends.

3. Guidance in the Worthy Use of Leisure Time

One of the serious problems which confronts the high-school pupil, particularly in urban and suburban communities, is that of finding wholesome means for employing leisure hours. The challenges which both the school and the home make on leisure time are ineffective. Heavy assignments of home work by the school serve as feeble stimuli for leisure-time activities, and home responsibilities as a rule are too meager and artificial to command much of the youth's time.

The school may attack the problem directly by making its plant the social center of community life for out-of-school as well as in-school hours. It may seek to provide and direct activities which will enlist the participation of its pupils during leisure as well as working hours. On the other hand, it may strive for indirect results through the development of interests and tastes in eurriculum and extracurriculum work which will dominate the activities of pupils during leisure hours.

It is in the latter field that the secondary school of the future will probably find its greatest service to the American youth. As the economic prosperity of one generation exceeds that of another the problem of the worthy use of leisure time will become increasingly difficult, unless both the capacity to use leisure time wisely is increased proportionately to the time available for leisure and the standards for evaluating the means of utilizing leisure time are developed in proportion to the means at hand. In either event there is little hope of increasing an individual's capacity to enjoy or to evaluate worthy forms of leisure unless his education is continued well into the secondary period. The possibility of ereating interests and of forming tastes without contacts with the experiences of the secondary school is relatively small. The elementary school does not carry the individual far enough for him to form an acquaintance with the great fields of knowledge in which satisfying interests are to be found. That is the particular task of the secondary school. It must provide the broadening and finding experiences, must guide the development of interests and tastes, and must form the habits and ideals which the individual will need for the worthy use of his leisure as well as his working time.

4. Guidance in the Formation of Worthy Citizenship Attitudes and Practices

The secondary school must supply a long-recognized need in the development of wholesome civic attitudes and in the

formation of worthy practices of citizenship. It has overemphasized in the past the intellectual aspects of citizenship almost to the exclusion of attitudes and practices. As a result supposedly well-trained citizens are often derelict in the performance of civic duties and in the discharge of civic functions. In order to avert a similar condition on the part of the pupils now being trained in the secondary schools, attention must be given to the development of civic attitudes and the formation of worthy civic practices with the idea of properly relating them to the theoretical aspects of citizenship treated in the work of the classrooms.

The sort of guidance desired can not be given through the stereotyped procedures of the traditional school. The school must be conceived as a laboratory in which young people learn through doing and thereby develop right and wholesome attitudes toward the activities performed. Through participation in the social and civic life of the school the pupil develops the attitude of mind of a responsible school citizen. Civic initiative is challenged and personal responsibility is experienced. Under sponsorship and guidance the individual acquires experience as a functioning citizen in a school community and learns to adjust himself to the kind of social and civic controls which will be encountered in his adult life.

Civic guidance on the part of the school should be extended into the community environment. The youth should be led to experience a sense of oneness with the community in which he lives and to feel the thrill of pride in the civic accomplishments of his community in which he has had a share and the humiliation of shame for civic derelictions of any kind. Civic attitudes of the type described do not necessarily result from the mere classroom intellectualization of civic matters. They are much more likely to result from actual participation in the affairs of school and community life, and the responsibility for providing the guidance required rests very largely with the secondary school.

Conclusion

The secondary-school period is the appropriate time for the proper guidance of the youth in the formation of the individual habits, interests, tastes, attitudes, and practices described in the foregoing paragraphs. The needs are urgent. They can not be met unless the school accepts responsibilities which in the past it has generally failed to assume. It must prepare itself to provide the types of service which present-day conditions require. Guidance responsibilities of the kind which this article describes are entirely within the ability of the school to provide. They are designed to encourage and direct self-discovery and self-development on the part of the individual. If they help the individual properly to integrate himself with respect to his responsibilities as a worthy member of social groups and enable him to acquire an understanding of and insight into the motives of his fellows and the forces which make for genuine happiness and stability in the world in which he lives, the result is more important than for the school to prepare a pupil for admission to a given college or to fit him for a vocational mold.

Industrial Concerns Finance Student Excursion

The School of Machine Engineering and Electrical Engineering at Czechoslovak Polytechnics of Prague will make a journey to Germany, Switzerland, and France. The excursion will be made by students of last two years of the named faculty with their professors as guides and it will be completed in 14 days. The students will visit great manufactories of engines and great electrical plants at Nuremberg, Heidenheim, Ravensburg, Zurich, Oerlikon, Baden, Winterthur, and the electrical power-generating house at Wäggital. In this manner they will be acquainted with the greatest engineering establishments of central Europe. The excursion was made possible by great gifts of Czechoslovak industrial establishments of metallurgy, sugar manufactories, and unions of electrical power-generating centers in southwest and east Bohemia.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

English Youths Make Desirable Settlers for Canada

About 1,500 boys and girls between 14 and 17 years of age leave England each year to settle in Canada, according to announcement of the British Overseas Settlement Committee. Grants for traveling expenses are made, under provisions of the Empire settlement act, by the British and Canadian Governments, and the young emigrants are sent out under the direction of recognized voluntary societies interested in child emigration. To promote settlement in western Canada and offset the tendency to locate in eastern and maritime Provinces, the grant has recently been increased from £16 to £20. Reports from the Dominion commend the quality of boys and girls sent out and their happy adjustment to conditions in the new home.

Land-Grant College Executives Welcome Pending Survey

Resolved, That the executive committee of the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities hereby expresses its satisfaction at the provision made by Congress for a thorough survey of the work of the land-grant institutions. The desirability of such a survey has been recognized by the association for several years, but until this action by Congress there seemed to be no procedure available which would guarantee a study that would be both comprehensive and sympathetic with the traditions and objectives of such institutions.

Charged as they are by Federal and State laws and by the conditions which led to their establishment with a special and vital type of public service, they have evolved objectives and methods peculiar to themselves. Because we believe that a clear and full understanding of the history and spirit of these institutions will be of major value in this study and because of the fundamental and vital interest of the member institutions in this phase of the matter, we respectfully offer to the Bureau of Education the fullest cooperation of this association in the prosecution of the survey.

We are looking hopefully to the results of this study to aid these institutions in adjusting their procedure to the demands of contemporary times without violation of their fundamental purposes and objectives.—*Adopted at the meeting of April 29, 1927.*

The Kind of Experience That Counts

The beginning teacher often finds himself handicapped in getting a position by the fact that employing boards as a rule insist on securing teachers who have had wide experience in their particular line.

This required experience is too often rated according to the number of years the applicant has been employed as a teacher. It is apparently never considered that one teacher may gain as much experience, so far as the real meaning of the word is concerned, in one year as another might gain in two.

Experience, according to Webster, is "The actual living through an event or events." For any person, therefore, to avail himself of his experiences in any line of achievement, he must of necessity, put his whole soul and body into his work. We do not gain experience by virtue of the number of years employed, but only to the extent are we experienced that we have put ourselves unselfishly to the task.—*Franklin Young Harper, Ozark, Ill.*

Toronto Meeting of World Federation of Education Associations

Second Biennial Conference Marked by International Amity and Good Will. Nineteen Departments offer Opportunity for Intimate Discussion of Specific Questions. Features of Education in Half the Countries of the Globe Described by Persons Who Spoke from Experience. Practical Problems of Everyday Life of School Emphasized Rather than Administrative Problems

By JAMES F. ABEL

Associate Specialist in Foreign Education, Bureau of Education

"I AM LOATH to close this conference. We seem like a family," said President Thomas, as he was about to adjourn the final meeting of the Second Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations at Toronto. His audience was one with him in the thought. The week had been spent on the beautiful campus of the University of Toronto and in the splendid college buildings at a series of meetings attended by more than 7,000 persons from 50 countries. The Government of Ontario, the city of Toronto, the Canadian Teachers' Federation, the Canadian National Exhibition management, and other organizations, public and private, working with the Canadian committee of arrangements, had combined to welcome the visitors and provide for them a wealth of unusual entertainment in the pageant "The Heart of the World," a trip to Niagara Falls, a visit to the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, and an evening of national and folk songs sung by the National Exhibition chorus of 2,000 voices. The university had billeted many of the guests in its residences and given them their meals at Hart House, one of the finest students' recreational centers in America. The program had been a full and properly elastic one with ample provision for all to express their views. The federation had adopted articles of incorporation, a long step toward opportunity for greater usefulness. The final plenary session had taken on much of the character of pleasant, fireside conversation, and the delegates turned away reluctant to leave a gathering that had held in it so much of good will and wholesome comradeship.

Teachers are Prophets of High Calling

In the spirit "that the confines of knowledge may be ever enlarged," the conference opened on Sunday afternoon with a vesper service. The Rev. Canon H. J. Cody, in his address on "The international aspect of religion," welcomed the teachers as prophets and priests of a high calling, peculiarly favored in that the more they give of their riches the more they have of them. He sketched the dominant world movements before the war as: The growth of Europe in world influence; the rise of democracy in general; the industrial revolution; and the wide expansion of the Christian religion through missionary effort. He held the new movements following the war to include the growth of national feeling as expressed in the founding of new nations; the increase of internationalism; the clash of the races, with the domination of the white race passing; the restlessness of youth; the industrialization of the Orient; the open-

Memorial Tower, dedicated to the memory of 600 students of the University of Toronto who lost their lives in the World War

ing of Africa and South America to immigration; and the further separation of church and state. Of these later movements the speaker chose to emphasize internationalism of a kind which he would have "aseptic with the salt of intelligence" and based on a sound, sane nationalism. Quoting an Italian author that "God has written one line of his thought on each people," he affirmed his belief that a strong internationalism, free of weak sentiment, can be developed only through

General meetings of the conference were held in Convocation Hall, University of Toronto

a rational nationalism. Naming many of the leaders of the world as teachers, he asked those present to be worthy "the great and glorious succession in which they stand."

The purposes of the World Federation furnish ample scope for a wide and continuing program in that they are to promote the cause of education and elevate the character of teaching throughout the world; to secure international cooperation in educational enterprises; to foster the dissemination of information concerning the progress of education in all its forms among nations and peoples; to advise and promote suitable and effective means to bring into closer coordination the various agencies in every civilized country which have to do with education; to cultivate international good will, and to promote the interests of world peace. "The service contemplated," says the Toronto Mail and Empire, "is no less than the underpinning of civilization by a system of education designed to support the whole social fabric and raise humanity throughout to higher planes of good."

To carry out its purposes the second conference was divided into 19 departments or divisions, each of which met for discussion in the forenoons, while the afternoons were given over to two sections of general sessions. The range of subjects was such as to offer a wide appeal to any one interested in education. They included health, illiteracy, education of the behavior-problem child and the adolescent elementary, secondary, and adult education, moving pictures, international correspondence of school children, library service, kindergarten and preschool education, geography, the country youth and the country school, social adjustment, handicapped children, humane education, colleges and universities, international educational exchange, moral and religious education, and the work of parent-teacher and home-and-school associations.

Most of the major political divisions of the world were represented by one or more delegates. The federation now includes 21 associations in its full membership and 12 more as associate members. Such strong organizations as the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, the Japanese Education Association, the All-India Teachers' Federation, the Bund Entschiedener Schulreformer of Germany, and other equally vigorous professional bodies have joined in its activities and all sent representatives to take part in the program and to aid in formulating policies for the future conduct of the federation. One group of 113 came from England and Wales.

Delegates Were Persons of Distinction

The list of delegates reads like an international "Who's who." Educators from China, one of them a bobbed-haired girl, were there to tell of that country's new national spirit, how it is being developed through education, the great mass movement for the reduction of illiteracy, and the change from the classical to the commonly spoken language for written communication. Others came from Mexico to sketch the work of its Secretariat of Education and the strong efforts being made to help the indigenous citizenry. The splendid results achieved by using Urdu, instead of English, as the medium

University College is the oldest college of the University of Toronto

of instruction in the Osmania University, India, were recounted by the headmistress of a near-by institution. One after another the best features of the educational systems of over half the countries of the globe were outlined to the conference by men and women who had worked in them and spoke from experience. The published report of their statements will be a fair review of the progress of world education in the past decade.

International amity and good will, tolerance, and respect for others was the prevailing tone of the meetings. Sir Robert Falconer, president of the University of Toronto, expressed it in his welcoming address when he said, "We are not a young people, we Canadians. We are an old people, inheritors of two of the richest civilizations of the world. The bringing together of these two civilizations constitutes our problem—to bring unity out of diversity." And he went on to tell how the English, with their Anglo-Saxon civilization, and the French with the best traditions of a Latin civilization, each group speaking its own language and having its own ideals, had learned to respect and value the other. They live together in the Dominion and maintain a commonwealth stronger than it would be if there were only the one language and the one form of culture.

Interdependence of Nations a Major Topic

Very frequently the example of continued peace between the United States and the Dominion was mentioned. Proposals for the general observance of education week and good-will day both commanded the attention of the delegates. The universality of learning, the spirit that science knows no national boundaries, that the sick and the uneducated are a menace not only to themselves but to all mankind, and the growing interdependence of nations ran as major threads of discussion throughout the sessions.

This world conference concerned itself to an unusual degree with the practical problems affecting the everyday lives of the school children, the teachers, and the homes. The mechanics and the administration of education were not greatly stressed. It is significant that the health education section held more and longer sessions than any other division, and that physicians, nurses, school superintendents, members of ministries of education, and directors of children's organizations were all there to join in the effort to give every child his proper heritage—a sound, well-nourished body.

Vital Themes of Child Life

The section on the education of the behavior-problem child, that on the relation of the school to the community, and the one dealing with parent-teacher and home-and-school associations drew larger and more interested audiences than those meetings which had for their themes subjects less closely related to the vital, fundamental things of child life and child training. The commonplace language of children, of home, and of school, and the folk music were plainly the things that appealed strongest to this large group of professional people from many countries and of many tongues and creeds.

Wednesday of the week was set apart as a day of recreation. The official and overseas delegates were the guests of the prime minister and the Province of Ontario in an excursion to Niagara Falls. Another party of 250 or more visited the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph. The college, founded in 1874, is the oldest of its kind in the Dominion. Organized on much the same plan as the other agricultural colleges of America, it carries on the usual teaching, agricultural extension, and research activities. It ranks among the first in research and plant breeding. Eighty of the 700 acres in the campus are given over to experiments in plant improvement through selection and breeding. The visitors were shown over the entire plant and later assembled for an informal meeting in the hall erected as a memorial to students that lost their lives in the war.

The library of the University of Toronto

Federation Has Grown Rapidly

The World Federation is a young organization. This was its second biennial conference; its third general conference. Its foundations were laid at an organization meeting in San Francisco in 1923. The first biennial meeting was held at Edinburgh in 1925. At that time only seven nation-wide educational organizations had joined. The federation has made much progress in the past two years. The membership, associate and full, now includes 33 organizations. Many of the difficulties in the way of incorporation have been overcome and with the adoption of the articles proposed at the Toronto meeting, the way is now open for it soon to become a corporate body. A provision in the school laws of Maine that the State commissioner of education shall have as part of his duties "to obtain information as to the school systems of other States and countries, and the condition and progress of public school education throughout the world" has permitted the State commissioner to devote time to the federation, and much of its success is due to his efforts. The officers of the federation look forward to an endowment of $10,000,000, and now that it is in position to become a corporate entity that may soon be accomplished.

The place of meeting for the conference of 1929 is not yet determined. China, Mexico, and Switzerland were suggested and invitations will probably come from other countries.

With three successful conferences to its credit, it seems fair to say that the federation is well on its way and to predict that it will become a most powerful factor in helping to shape the future education of the world.

More than 200 presidents, deans, registrars, business managers, and other officers, representing 50 institutions in 20 States, attended this summer the institute for administrative officers of institutions of higher education, held at the University of Chicago.

A capital fund of £676,000 has been accumulated by the National Union of Teachers of England.

Salt Lake City's Revised Program is Working Out Smoothly

Reduction of Course from 12 Years to 11 Shortens Time for College Preparation Without Loss. Students who enter Industry May Reach a Higher Level of Instruction. Money Saving is Important, Though not the Prime Consideration

By GEORGE N. CHILD

Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah

A REVISED educational program was put into operation in the Salt Lake City schools in 1925 which will make it possible for the majority of young people who graduate from high school to do so regularly in 11 years above the kindergarten instead of 12 years as under the old plan. Although the change will result in a considerable financial saving, the chief reasons for the curtailment of time in the new program are educational and social.

It is a well-known fact that our traditional 12-year school, so largely adhered to in the northern part of the United States, came to us largely by accident about 100 years ago, and though poorly suited to our democratic ideals and needs at that time, it has continuously become more inconsistent and less suitable as the school year has been lengthened and compulsory attendance laws have become more general and exacting. The surprising thing about it all is that we have for so long continued to rest satisfied with the borrowed plan as though it were a perfected machine. This, too, in spite of the fact that educational leaders have pointed out from time to time its wastefulness and inefficiency.

Economy Through Junior High School

The establishment of junior high schools during recent years is in a sense a protest against our old lock-step 12 year system. It has already done much to remedy some of the major evils of the traditional organization. However, one of the important purposes of the reorganization—economy of time—is in danger of being lost sight of. Unless the junior-high-school movement results in the saving of time in the elementary and high-school program, it is our opinion that it will have failed in one of its most inportant and necessary functions.

An increasing number of high-school graduates go on to college. It is not our purpose here to discuss the advisability of their going to college in such large numbers, but it is our purpose to call attention to the responsibility resting upon a public-school system to get young people ready for college effectively and in the least time reasonably possible. Experience, both in America and abroad, is in favor of giving less time than 12 years to the necessary general preparation.

Students from school systems in America, organized on the 11-year plan, take their places in college on a par with those who come from systems under the 12-year organization, according to the best information avilable. The explanation, which seems reasonable enough, is that all the necessary preparatory work for college can be well mastered by students in 11 years, and therefore that 12 years given to it result in either a slowing up of the learning process or in an encumbering of the courses of study with useless or unsuited material.

Traditional School Organization Causes Delay

European experience, and practices, too, should serve at least to call our attention to the importance of a careful consideration of our longer preparatory courses. Why should German students, for instance, be about two years ahead of American students in completing their professional studies? The explanation is to be found in our traditional school organization and not in any lack of learning power or achievement of our young people.

It will be conceded that our public schools are for the masses, most of whom are not preparing for college. The high school will be for the majority a finishing institution and not a preparatory school. The effects of a shortened program of education must, therefore, be considered in relation to the welfare of this larger group as well as to the college preparatory group. Heretofore most young people not preparing to go to college dropped out before going far along in the high-school courses. Vocational needs and lack of interest have been the chief factors of elimination. Due to a number of causes conditions are rapidly changing in favor of high-school graduation for all. However, the vocational needs of many are still paramount at a comparatively early age.

The general educational program of high schools can, therefore, easily be carried beyond that which is best for the individual and for the society that he is to serve through his chosen vocation. In our opinion young people planning to fit themselves for vocational activities directly from high school should have considerable contact with the practical at 17 or 18 years of age. The high-school program, therefore, must make it possible for them to complete the general courses of study, satisfying standard requirements in time for them to give some attention to vocational adjustments, either directly in industrial or professional service or in specialized vocational courses. It is, of course, likely that many young people not planning a complete college course will desire to take a year, perhaps two years, in junior-college work where vocational choices and activities will generally control both subject matter and methods. The prolonged high-school program can not hope to provide the specialized vocational activities and motives needed and which can be provided by the junior college.

Improved Product with Simplified Machinery

As already stated, although the attempt to save time in our educational program is not primarily a financial one, it is incumbent upon the management of any school system to expend a consistent amount of money, which will be limited by the circumstances of each community, to obtain the best educational results according to conceived ideals of what should be accomplished. In other words, the money available for public education must be measured against production and the means employed for realizing it. An improved product with simplified machinery means success.

The movement in Salt Lake City is not revolutionary. It calls for a revision in the course of study all through and a re-evaluation of subject matter and a reconsideration of its placement and its treatment. In the evolutionary process involved the board of education, teachers, principals, and general school executives are cooperating in their work and purposes. Salt Lake City, too, is especially fortunate in having a favorable public sentiment, without which any change in a school system, as far-reaching as the one under discussion, could not be made successfully, however desirable and necessary.

The plan is working out smoothly. There is no question about its practicability. There will be no loss in standards but a decided gain in vigorous purposeful, educational achievements on the part of a greater number of individuals.

For summer-time study by teachers, a permanent salary increase of $4 per semester hour in the University of Michigan, and of $2.50 per term hour in normal schools, is allowed by the board of education of Mount Pleasant, Mich.

Graded Participation by Student Teachers Gains Approval

Plan Has Been in Use in Some Training Schools for a Number of Years. Seems Now to Meet General Favor. Variations in Practice but Principles are Identical. Each Unit Should be Mastered Before Taking up the Next

By H. C. PRYOR
Director, College Training High School, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans.

GRADED participation is a plan for professional preparation of teachers whereby the novice begins with a simple task and proceeds to those which are more and more difficult and complex, arriving finally at full responsibility for the room. The plan has been in use in some training schools for a number of years, but only within the past six or eight has it gained anything like general approval.

Like every plan, graded participation has had to overcome much opposition. Its chief opponents may be found among those who believe that the student teacher should be subjected to a sort of "survival of the fittest" test. They would put the novice in full charge of the room and leave him to "sink or swim" on the theory that only those who can survive the ordeal are worth saving. Its proponents hold that a more gradual introduction to full responsibility for the room will produce better teachers and at the same time safeguard the interests of the pupils most effectively.

Plan Developed in Actual Practice

This paper deals with the plan as it has been developed at the Northern Normal and Industrial School at Aberdeen, S. Dak., in connection with observation and practice teaching in the elementary grades and junior high school of the city system. It is more fully described in Graded Units in Student Teaching, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 202, H. C. Pryor.

There are several plans for graded participation. The differences, however, are largely in the name. Stuart, Swarthmore, Pa., worked out a series of "topics" to be studied by the student teacher in connection with his course in practice teaching. Cook, University of South Dakota, has provided "assignments" covering the work in the university high school. At the Northern Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, S. Dak., 21 "graded units" have been developed, each of which must be studied in connection with the course in observation and practice teaching. Similar plans are in use at Detroit Teachers College; State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Va.; State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.; normal school, Conway, Ark.; State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.; normal school, Sioux City, Iowa; normal school, Albion, Idaho; State Teachers College, Emporia, Kans.; normal school, Towson, Md.; Bucknell University; University of Delaware; and the University of Wyoming. The fundamental principles underlying all of these plans are identical. Let us consider several of them, briefly.

First, the teacher's work should be broken up into a number of "units," "exercises," "topics," "assignments," "chores," or "jobs," as they are variously called, "arranged roughly in difficulty and complexity and in the order in which they should be attacked by the student teacher."

Includes Problems of School Management

"Teaching," as understood here and throughout the article, includes everything which the teacher does in the course of a normal day's work. It can be seen that this includes not only the different types of teaching, as discussed by Earhart, but also many problems of school management.

Following is a list of units which have been developed by the writer:

Unit
- I. Cleanliness and neatness of the room.
- II. Lighting, heating, and ventilation.
- III. Classroom, building, and grounds.
- IV. Seating and the needs of the individual child.
- V. Attendance.
- VI. The daily program of work, study, recitation, and play.
- VII. Supplying the class with equipment and materials for work.
- VIII. Supervision of passing of the children.
- IX. Visual instruction.
- X. Studying children.
- XI. Health inspection.
- XII. Supervision of play.
- XIII. Records and reports.
- XIV. Planning for the lesson, day, or longer period.
- XV. Testing the children's progress.
- XVI. Self-analysis score card.
- XVII. Individual instruction.
- XVIII. Working with the group or class: The assignment, supervised study, the recitation, induction, deduction, the telling or lecture method, the object lesson, the drill lesson and habit formation, testing, review, appreciation, socialized recitation, the problem method, and the project method.
- XIX. Securing parental cooperation.
- XX. School discipline.
- XXI Securing a position and holding it.

The chief justification for these exercises is that skill in their performance is absolutely essential to any high degree of success in teaching. Their mastery is as necessary to the teacher as a mastery of anatomy, materia medica, pathology, principles of surgery, and the like is to the physician; as a knowledge of jurisprudence, torts, court procedure, etc., is to the attorney.

Different situations might necessitate emphasis on different units, depending on such factors as whether the work is rural or urban, the grades to be taught, and so on.

Three Factors Determine Rate of Progress

Second, the student teacher should be permitted to take up a new "unit" of work only when he understands and is reasonably proficient in the one which he has been studying This insures mastery of each phase of the work and results in greater satisfaction and confidence and the elimination of much discouragement. The rapidity of progress is determined by such factors as the difficulty of the unit being studied and the previous experience or native ability of the teacher.

It is very evident that such a unit as "cleanliness and neatness of the room," involves fewer difficulties than "health inspection," "supervision of playground work," or "working with the group or class." The first might very easily be mastered by a capable student teacher within a few days; the last is so difficult and complex as to deserve at least one-third of the total time devoted to observation, participation, and teaching.

Other things being equal, the student who has had profitable experience—e. g., under supervision, or is capable, or both—should make more rapid progress than one who is inexperienced and incompetent. The writer has found that some student teachers never become proficient in anything except routine units and do poor or very mediocre work when in full charge of the schoolroom. Usually the superior ones master the routine units within a comparatively short time and do exceptionally well when they arrive at full responsibility for the room.

Order of Units not Fixed

Third, the order in which the units should be taken up is not fixed. Considerable flexibility should be permitted to meet the needs of different situations.

The training school, regardless of whether it is on the campus, in the country, or is part of a city system, should be organized primarily with a view to meeting the needs of the child. Subordinate to this, although it is of great importance, is the training of student

teachers. The training staff should have student teachers study units as they need to be introduced to subserve the best interests of the children, rather than present them in the order which, theoretically, seems best for the student teacher.

Where there is a campus school, the interests of both of the above-mentioned groups may be provided for very satisfactorily. Where the school years and subdivisions thereof do not begin and end at the same time, the training staff must learn to adjust themselves to circumstances. Student teachers take up the units in the order which meets the needs of the school.

Careful Attention to Habit Formation

Fourth, once a unit has been assigned, it should never be dropped but should be carried along with others, receiving less and less attention as proficiency increases. This cumulative method will insure such skill in the use of each unit that the student teacher will be able to handle the complex situation involved in full responsibility for the room when it comes, with a minimum of difficulty. To insure the best results, particularly with the management units, careful attention to the law of habit formation is necessary. Each unit to be studied should be outlined clearly so that the student teacher will have no difficulty in understanding what is required. Enough practice should be provided to insure as nearly automatic performance of the desired task as possible. The training staff should guard against bad practices and try to perpetuate only that which contributes to satisfactory schoolroom procedure.

Fifth, the training staff should try to conduct the work in such a way that it will not become too mechanical. Most of the units have to do with the ordinary routine of the schoolroom and may be so administered as to make the student teacher feel that the teacher's real job—classroom teaching—is being neglected. The training staff should try at all times to show that proper hygienic conditions, good attendance, and the like are just as important in their way as conducting a drill lesson or a socialized recitation. The former contribute largely to the success of the latter. The student teacher should be led to see that nothing is unimportant or trivial which makes for success in the great art of teaching.

Drill Necessary to Secure Automatic Response

No thinking teacher questions the necessity of drill in teaching the formal subjects; it is necessary as a means to an end, securing automatic responses to certain stimuli. The ultimate purpose of drill is to lay the foundation for the high mental processes. In the same way, facility in managing schoolroom routine enables the teacher to do these so-called less important things with the minimum of attention and leaves the mind free for that which is more important.

In order to secure definite information regarding the extent to which graded participation has been adopted, a questionnaire was sent to one public teacher-training institution in each State, except North Dakota (two), New York (two), and South Dakota (none). The forms were returned by 28 persons representing 24 different States, one director reporting on work he had done in a State in which he had formerly been located.

In answer to the question, "*Do you use such a plan?*" 11 "have used it"; 14 answered "no"; 1 blank.

Has Been Used 10 Years

"*How long have you used it?*" was answered by one, 1 semester; three, 1 year; three, 2 years; one, 4 years; one, 5 years; one, 6 years; one, 9 years; two, 10 years; one, several. The average is 4.1 years. One says, "Where student teachers have had previous successful experience, the plan is not adhered to." This is in accordance with sound pedagogy.

Answers to the question, "*Is the plan used in connection with the training of teachers of kindergarten, elementary, junior high school, or senior high school?*" show that it is used in training the following types of teachers: Kindergarten, five; elementary grades 1–6, seven; 1–7, one; 1–8, four; junior high school, nine; grades 9–10, one; senior high school, four; rural, five. In at least four places where the plan has been most satisfactorily worked out it has been adopted for the training of rural teachers. There seems to be no reason why it may not be utilized more generally.

To the question, "*Do you consider the plan better than one which does not involve graded participation—e. g., a plan which gives the student full control of the room from the beginning?*" the 14 who gave complete answers to the questionnaire answered "yes." Five gave no answer.

Consistent with Psychological Approach

The answers to the question, "*Why?*" emphasized the benefits, chiefly psychological, to be derived from such a plan by the student teacher. Several of the most helpful ones are: "Consistent with psychological approach, known to unknown, relatively easy to more difficult, use of proper imitation (studied) especially gives assurance to the inexperienced timid beginner"; "better training for students"; "students have an intelligent background and become sensitive to the vital problems involved in a teaching situation"; "student does not at any time lose confidence in herself"; "reasonable success is assured to students of normal ability and energy;" "it is the psychological way"; "because cumulative plan is in accordance with the laws of growth in learning to perform any new process"; "gradual progress from difficulty to difficulty"; "students are not prepared to take full charge at the beginning of their work"; "avoids bungling or trial and error procedure." "Students gradually inducted into teaching are ready to give more of their attention to the actual teaching. They are not so concerned about the routine factors and the mechanics. Graded participation gives teachers an opportunity to tie up theory with practice without overwhelming students. Finally, it is psychological if carefully managed. It is the laboratory method."

Objections Urged May be Overcome

Most of the criticisms came from those whose answers to the questionnaire indicated slight knowledge of, if not actual opposition to, the plan. Those whose answers indicated that they were most conversant with graded participation had little to suggest, as might be expected, in the way of disadvantages. The writer's experience with the plan during the course of six years leads to the conclusion that none of the disadvantages mentioned are necessarily inherent in graded participation. All of them can be overcome in a large degree through careful planning on the part of the training staff.

Perhaps the most serious danger is that of the plan's becoming too mechanical. So far as the simpler units are concerned, this is not serious, because the more nearly they can be automatized—this seems to be very much the same thing—the better. Automatization insures accurate and uniform response, the thing to be desired.

Every Vocation Made up of Units

Another criticism that needs some attention is that graded participation may result in a "one-sided view of the schoolroom." The answer to this is that any occupation is made up of a number of different "units" or "chores" any of which, attended to closely, might give the worker a "one-sided" view of his occupation. As a matter of fact, this does not seem to be the case; no one who has learned a vocation piecemeal, as it were, experiences serious difficulty in reintegrating the parts into a whole.

None of the other disadvantages suggested seem serious enough to warrant discussion.

"*What is the attitude of your teacher-training staff toward the plan?*" Nine out of fourteen answer in some such terms as

(*Continued on page 19*)

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· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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SEPTEMBER, 1927

Will Enrich Literature of Secondary Education

"UNIFICATION of secondary education" is the theme of a series of articles whose preparation is contemplated by Dr. J. B. Edmonson, chairman of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. It is expected that the articles will be printed first in School Life and that probably they will later be brought together in book or pamphlet form.

The members of this committee represent the foremost organizations in the secondary school field, and individually they are among the leaders in this branch of educational work.

School Life has presented many able papers that have come from this source. Nearly every issue since December, 1925, has contained at least one. Among the authors were J. B. Edmonson, Thomas H. Briggs, Eustace E. Windes, Arthur J. Jones, Jesse B. Davis, Arthur J. Klein, James M. Glass, Walton B. Bliss, E. J. Ashbaugh, Leonard V. Koos, Emery N. Ferris—truly an imposing list. A paper in the same series by Dr. W. C. Reavis is in this issue, and others are in hand for future publication.

It is intended that the series now in contemplation shall be about a central theme, which, however, is so broad that it permits treatment in wide diversity. The details have not been fully worked out nor have the authors been determined; but it may be confidently expected that a distinct contribution will be made to the literature of secondary education.

Relation of Time Saving to Scholastic Standards

FOR MANY YEARS some of the ablest men of the profession of teaching have been urging the elimination of wasted time in American education. Charles W. Eliot began it in 1888. William R. Harper, in 1902, advocated connecting the work of the eighth grade with the high school, the extension of the high school to include the first two years of college work, and reducing the time required for all this to six years instead of seven, with provision for the completion of it in five years by the best students.

An able committee headed by J. H. Baker, and comprising Henry Suzzalo, J. H. Van Sickle, A. W. Small, and others, made a report in 1913 in which they showed that a saving of two years in time need cause no loss in education. Under the leadership of Charles H. Judd the length of the course of the elementary school maintained by the University of Chicago has been materially reduced without loss.

The elementary schools of Kansas City have never required more than seven years and exhaustive tests made there show that the pupils maintain themselves creditably in high school and college. The school system of Salt Lake City has recently been placed upon the basis of 11 years instead of 12 for elementary and high schools combined, and the school officers there declare that no loss in achievement has occurred; an article in testimony to this effect by George N. Child, superintendent of schools, is printed on another page. The impression is widespread that American boys are two years behind European boys in educational progress.

It is obvious that if the time of preparation be shortened entrance into the practice of the professions or into productive industry will occur at an earlier age; those who leave school at a definite time will have opportunity to become acquainted with more advanced branches of knowledge; and the expenditure of public moneys per capita will be materially reduced.

Notwithstanding all this, school men approach the question of reduction in time with hesitation and doubt. Generally they avoid it altogether. They seem to fear that they will be accused of lowering scholastic standards if they take advantage of better coordination of institutions and of improved methods of instruction by giving the children the benefit of the time thus gained.

What can be done about it? What is needed to impress the educational public in general and the accrediting agencies in particular that an injustice is done to the youth of the Nation, and that considerable sums are expended without return because we are depriving ourselves of the benefits of the modern advances in education which make economy of time possible?

It is to be hoped that these questions will be taken up by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, and that the views of its members will be expressed in the articles of the series which Doctor Edmonson is now planning. Consideration by such an organization is bound to be fruitful.

The Liberal Arts College not in Danger

NOTWITHSTANDING the developments of the past half century, the recognition of the necessity for a sound cultural basis for professional or other advanced study is undiminished. The liberal arts subjects have persisted and will continue to persist, though the form of their organization may show marked changes.

Recognized college subjects have been taken up by the secondary schools; perforce, the colleges have pushed their courses further up, and their higher classes have assumed more and more the professional aspect. And now the movement which is in full swing for separation of the junior college from the senior college and for the junction of the former with the senior high school seems to presage the full recrudescence of the traditional liberal arts college.

The junior college is frequently described as "essentially secondary." That term need disturb no one. The senior college is becoming, or has already become, essentially professional, and it is assuming true university status. The combination of the senior high school and the junior college may fairly be said to constitute the "college" in the traditional American sense.

Moved by frequent expressions of apprehension concerning the future of the liberal arts college as such, the Commissioner of Education recently caused data to be compiled to show the growth of registration in liberal arts colleges and in technical and professional curricula.

It was shown that the registration in 465 liberal arts colleges increased from 160,640 in 1915–16 to 251,264 in 1923–24, or 56.4 per cent. In the same period the number of students in medicine increased 26.5 per cent; in dentistry, 16.2 per cent; in pharmacy, 60.5 per cent; in engineering, 68.3 per cent.

Fully understanding that many students in professional and technical curricula like education, commerce, and home economics are included in the enrollment of liberal arts colleges, these figures give no justification for gloomy forebodings for cultural study in America. The liberal arts college is in no danger of extinction.

A fund for the establishment of scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge for American students, and at Harvard and Yale for British students, is provided in the will of the late Lady (Charles) Henry, of London. The scholarships are to be open to either men or women. Lady Henry was of American parentage.

National Education Association in Convention at Seattle

Freedom from Uninformed Outside Control and Abundant Preparation of Individual Teachers Were Outstanding Topics. Highly Inspirational Addresses Enliven the Round of Educational Conferences and Learned Discourses

By SELDEN CARLYLE ADAMS
Assistant Director Division of Publications, National Education Association

TWO THEMES were dominant at the sixty-fifth annual convention of the National Education Association, held at Seattle, Wash., July 3 to 8, inclusive. Those themes were "Freedom in education" and "Professional self-improvement." The 15,000 teachers, representing every State and Territory, heard repeated over and again the cry that the development of American youth must not be marred by interference from organizations or persons who are untrained in the principles of education.

But the teachers realized also that if the task of education is left in their hands, they must be equipped for the task, so many addresses and discussions centered around the preparation of the individual teacher for his work.

President Elected Without Opposition

Several very unusual events took place at Seattle. Outstanding among them was the election, for the first time in the association's 70 years' history, of a classroom teacher to the presidency. That teacher is Cornelia Storrs Adair, of Richmond, Va. Another unusual event was the fact that there was no opposition for the presidency. After Superintendent J. H. Saunders, of Newport News, in eloquent style, delivered the nominating speech, formal seconds to the nomination came from all sections of the country as the various State delegations rose in their seats in the great Fifth Avenue theater to cheer and applaud their nominee.

Miss Adair was introduced as the new president by her predecessor, Dr. Francis G. Blair, State superintendent of public instruction for Illinois. In her opening address the new president predicted the future growth of the teaching profession and of the National Education Association, already the largest professional organization in the United States. She said:

> The National Education Association's best opportunity to serve more fully the cause of education in America is just ahead. The leaders in education in this country are to see in the next decade or two expenditures for public education doubled. We shall see every child of school age in the States in a comfortable seat in a modern school building. We shall see the number of high-school graduates in this country mounting from year to year, and at the close of the next decade or two totaling 400,000 young men and women. Illiteracy among adults will be wiped out and forever banished from our country.
>
> We shall see teaching a highly dignified profession with its own technic, standards for entrance, and code of ethics, attracting to it a rightful proportion of the best brains of the country. We shall see the classroom teacher recognized, not as a hireling but as one of the most important professional factors in the system of education. We shall see the colleges gradually shifting their curricula to more highly specialized lines and their faculties selected for their peculiar ability to teach rather than solely upon the basis of scholarly attainments.
>
> We shall see in the next few years the membership in the National Education Association mount to two or three hundred thousand. All of this we shall see within the next few decades. It will be the Nation's effort to establish in the coming generations standards of citizenship and appreciation of the finer things of the past ages as their rightful heritage. It will be America's contribution to the progress of civilization.

The convention opened with a vesper service in Volunteer Park, overlooking the city of Seattle. The speaker was Rev. Mark A. Matthews, pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of the city, whose subject was "The God-given teacher." Doctor Matthews said:

> The origin and position of the teacher can not be questioned. The great profession is of divine origin. God ordained the method by which knowledge is to be imparted and instruction given. The dissemination of knowledge is secondary to the training of one to acquire knowledge. The teacher has a double responsibility. Whether in the religious or the academic world, he is charged with the duty of training the pupil in the art of acquiring knowledge; he is also charged with the duty of inspiring the pupil to be an unselfish benefactor in the dissemination of knowledge.
>
> No one can question or justly criticize one for saying that your task calls for unparalleled heroism. But no honest labor has ever failed to bear fruit. The teacher and the parent may not be able to make ideal products out of all the raw material, but by the right kind of cooperation we will be able to give to the State and to the world products that can overcome and counteract the influences of the untrained and undomesticized youths.

Meany Hall Filled for Monday Meeting

The great inspirational session of the convention came on Monday morning, July 4, when the delegates and others crowded the big Meany Hall at the University of Washington to hear Dr. Henry Suzzallo, former president of the University of Washington, speak on "A declaration of independence for the American school system," and President Francis G. Blair on "The American melting pot." Many people were turned away long before the time for the meeting to begin.

Doctor Blair, one of America's most eloquent speakers, pictured the great public school system of the Nation as the refining receptacle into which are poured the best and worst blood of all the nations and out from which come loyal American citizens. He said:

> I believe that the perpetuity of this wide-flung Nation, its solidarity, its unity of aim and purpose and effort, are more in the hands of the inspired teacher than any other one influence at work in America. As long as the 500,000 teachers of America are painting upon the canvas of the minds and hearts of 25,000,000 of children the great American ideals, the great faces of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln, we can feel a large sense of security in the future of this Republic.

Mornings Devoted to Business Meetings

The morning sessions on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday were devoted to business meetings of the representative assembly. Simultaneous with these sessions—except on Friday—were held open conferences on various outstanding educational problems, including the teachers' economic and social welfare, the teacher and public agencies, the teacher's contributions to American life, and the professional status of various branches of the teaching profession.

Wednesday night 40,000 people crowded the great bowl known as the "Stadium" of the University of Washington, and stood around its rim to see a pageant rich in color and beauty, as 10,000 school children of the city of Seattle presented "Forest Trails," portraying the natural features of the Pacific Northwest.

Wednesday morning Secretary J. W. Crabtree presented his report of "A decade of achievements," covering the work of the association during the 10 years in which he has been employed by the organization. The report showed that the membership in that time has increased from about 8,000 members to more than 170,000. Mr. Crabtree urged that added attention be given this year to the problem of compensation of university and college professors. The representative assembly directed that the research division make a study of that question. Also, at the recommendation of the secretary, the assembly urged Congress to take immediate steps to restore school buildings destroyed by the Mississippi flood.

Classroom Teacher is New President

The officers of the National Education Association for 1927–28 are: Cornelia S. Adair, Richmond, Va., president; Francis G. Blair, Sprinfield, Ill., first vice president; Henry Lester Smith, Bloomington, Ind., treasurer; J. W. Crabtree, Washington, D. C., secretary. Frank E. Reynolds, secretary of the Ohio State Teachers Association, was elected by the board of directors to serve with these officers as a member of the executive committee. Walter R. Siders, of Pocatello, Idaho, was reelected chairman of the board of trustees for a four-year term.

In the Midst of Turmoil Chefoo Continues an Educational Center

Notwithstanding Unsettled Conditions in China, Schools in Chefoo are Conducted as Usual, and Increased Regard is Manifested for the Value of Education. School Support in General Depends Principally on Tuition Fees but Rents of Temple Lands are Sometimes Used to Aid Education. Control of Mission Schools Gradually Assumed by Chinese Christians

By LEROY WEBBER

American Consul, Chefoo, China

SHANTUNG Province, of which Chefoo is one of the principal ports, is naturally associated with the name of that great scholar, Confucius, who was born within its precincts. For centuries his teachings formed the basis of Chinese education.

The Province, itself, is probably one of the most conservative in all China. It has been in the past a stronghold against things foreign. It was in Shantung that the Boxer uprising had its inception. Yet strange to say, education along western lines has made splendid progress, and to-day Chefoo is one of China's educational centers.

Chefoo was the first port opened to foreign trade in Shantung, and as such was early made a center from which western Christian education was promoted. Naturally, private and public modern-style schools promoted by Chinese were also early established in Chefoo. Owing to unsettled conditions in China since the revolution in 1912, and to a lack of encouragement from the Government, progress has not been rapid. Nevertheless, to-day this city is an educational center, and the surrounding country has the beginnings of a growing educational system.

No Special Setback to Education

During the past year, schools have opened and been conducted in much the same manner as in previous years, when internal and external political conditions were not undergoing such tension as has recently been experienced throughout the country. There has been no special setback to education in general. In fact, one is impressed with the more than usual regard by both students and gentry for the value of education and for the importance of settling down to hard study, instead of yielding to the temptation to participate continually in political and antiforeign demonstrations. Such demonstrations as have occurred have been of short duration and have been characterized with comparative moderation. Students in general have been willing to cooperate with those in authority, whether school or Government officers, in assisting in the creation of such public opinion as their elders deemed for the best interest of the community and the nation.

Not including the popular education and other night schools, there are altogether 39 or 40 schools of all grades in Chefoo. Of these, 2 are of the kindergarten grade, 7 or 8 of lower primary grade, 17 of lower and higher primary grade, 3 of junior high school grade, and 10 of senior high school or of still higher grade. Eight are schools for girls, and the kindergartens, one lower and higher primary, and possibly several of the lower primary schools are coeducational.

Majority of Village Schools for Boys

In the surrounding country, practically every village with as many as a hundred homes has a primary school, and a village with as many as a thousand homes may have six or seven. Most of these schools are of lower primary grade, and the majority are not officially registered. Strictly speaking, the latter are private village schools, but those that are registered are little different, since they are practically all privately maintained. The majority are for boys only, though provision for the education of girls is increasing. Practically all of the lower primary mission schools in the country are coeducational.

The number of students attending the country schools ranges from 15 to 20 as a minimum to from 40 to 50 as a maximum. In the city of Chefoo, the total attendance in all the schools is above 3,000.

Schools Usually Depend on Tuition Fees

Both the schools in Chefoo and those in the surrounding districts are for the most part dependent on tuition receipts for their maintenance. Very little aid is given by the Government, and only a few receive material assistance from rich patrons.

One form of support for schools that is commonly practiced is that of allowing a portion of the income from the rental of village temple land and buildings to be used toward school expenses. Certain temple property that is owned in common by the village or clan members is rented to provide for the upkeep of the temple and for the expenses connected with the temple and ancestral worship.

Village schools near Chefoo are usually for boys only

Official report to the Secretary of State.

In recent years, the practice has developed in some places of using a part of such income toward the support of village or clan schools.

Mission schools in the interior are coming to be more and more self-supporting, either from tuition receipts or from assistance given by wealthy Christian farmers or prosperous Christian business men living in the district, who make generous contributions to the school and church work of their native villages.

Recreation hour for the kindergarten children of the Shin Yi School

In Chefoo, although it is true that most schools are mainly dependent on tuition receipts, a few receive Government support and two in particular are largely maintained by rich patrons. The Swei Tsan (literally translated "the Water Products") School, which educates young men with regard to the products of the sea, deep sea fishing, etc., and the naval academy, are entirely supported by the Government, and certain customs receipts are used to maintain the Tsan Si School (Silk College).

Mission schools in general receive small appropriations each year from the foreign mission board, and the salaries of the missionaries conducting or assisting in these schools are entirely provided by the foreign boards.

Chinese Assume Management of Mission Schools

In Chefoo two schools that were formerly American mission schools have become semimission. That is, both the control and the management have been assumed entirely by Chinese Christians, but in one (Shin Yi School) the original appropriations by the foreign board have for the present been continued. In the other (Chen Kwang Girls School), though there is no such appropriation, missionaries are invited to assist in teaching English and music. Each girl pays a nominal tuition fee of approximately $5 gold per term. A third mission school (Yih Wen School) is under the control of a board of directors with a two-thirds Chinese majority. This is an Anglo-Chinese and commercial school. Although the Chinese department receives an appropriation, the English and commercial departments are self-supporting except for the assistance given by missionaries. The three last schools show the present tendency of mission schools gradually to become Chinese indigenous Christian schools.

In recent years there has been a decided improvement in the quality of teaching done in all grades and classes of schools. Both mission and government normal schools have contributed to this improvement, and the former pretence at teaching English and western subjects in Chinese schools is rapidly becoming a thing of the past. Better discipline is maintained and more serious effort is given by both teachers and students. Although western subjects are taught and English is started in the higher primary schools, proper emphasis is given to Chinese language and culture.

The outstanding primary school in Chefoo is the Shin Yi School. It is coeducational, and during the past year had an enrollment of 260 pupils. Tuition fee is approximately $6 per year (two terms). Though semimission, receiving an appropriation of $1,200 a year from an American board of foreign missions (Presbyterian), it is entirely controlled and conducted by a Chinese board of directors and a Chinese principal and teachers. It has for several years been considered by Christians and non-Christians alike as the model primary school in this section of China.

Four Noteworthy Higher Schools

Of the higher schools in Chefoo four should receive special mention, namely, the Naval College, Water Products School, Sericulture College, and Yih Wen School.

The naval college is a Government school in which young men are trained to become officers in the Chinese Navy. The students in this school are supported entirely by the Government. However, as this is a school for all China, and is largely controlled by officers from the Province of Fukien, most of its students have been from that province, and very few, if any, from the Chefoo district. Owing to the continued civil wars, this school has been reduced from an enrollment of from 150 to 200 students, to only 30 or 40.

The Swei Tsan (Water Products) School, as already mentioned, is a vocational school entirely supported by the Government. It has the very worthy purpose of looking to the development

The Shin Yi School is the model primary school in this section

and conservation of China's fishing industries. It is a new school and has a small enrollment. An encouraging feature is that the Government, in spite of the distracting pressure of civil war, is continuing to maintain and support this school.

Is Developing Native Silk Industry

The Tsan Si School (Silk College) is another very laudable school. Located on the south hills of this city and possessing many acres of land suitable for the growth of mulberry trees and the shrub oak, this school is specializing in developing the native silk industry in east Shantung. While experimenting on the one hand, on the other it is training young men and women in alternating classes of 30 or 40 in the whole industry of silk culture. It is performing a great service by distributing under trained direction mulberry tree plants and silk worm eggs among the farmers, who are encouraged to participate in the silk-farming industry.

The Yih Wen School has the distinction of being the largest and most flourishing school of high-school grade, not only in Chefoo, but in the province of Shantung. It is the largest mission school of its sect in all China, and includes as departments a preparatory, a high school, and a school of commerce.

Students are attracted to the Yih Wen School from all parts of north China as well as from Shanghai, Canton, and other southern cities. Considerable numbers come from Manchuria and Korea, and recently several non-Soviet Russian young men have been accepted as students in the commercial department. Tuition fees vary from $15 to $30 gold per term. There are two terms per year.

Unsettled Conditions Affect Enrollment

For several years enrollment reached a total of 500 or more students. However, during the year 1926, owing to the economic slump due to the unsettled conditions, the number attending dropped to about 440.

Perhaps the most important feature of progress in the Yih Wen School during the past year has been the success attained in the program of gradually turning over the control and management of the school to Chinese Christian leaders and educators. For some time the board of directors has had a two-thirds Chinese majority. In the direct management of the school similar and even greater progress has been made. In 1926 the executive faculty became predominantly Chinese. The experiment was made of promoting Chinese teachers of outstanding ability and leadership to direct charge of all departments of the school, including the school of commerce.

These gentlemen have very earnestly and efficiently assumed the duties of their positions, much to the satisfaction of the foreign missionaries in any way connected with the school and to that of the entire student body.

Financially, this advance toward the school's becoming a Chinese Christian indigenous school is also noteworthy. The school's budget, including missionaries' salaries for the present year, was $56,715 Mexican, of which more than $40,000 Mexican, was from tuition fees and other receipts from Chinese sources. This also indicates that the school is early approaching the time when the missionaries' relation to it may become purely auxiliary. Thus one of the largest American mission schools in China, whose work is principally conducted in English, and whose advance curriculum is technically commercial, has in the past year made distinct progress toward the ultimate goal of all mission schools, that of becoming a Chinese indigenous school.

Free Night Schools a Noteworthy Feature

Another form of education in Chefoo that is very noteworthy is that of the "popular education night schools" conducted by the Chinese Young Men's Christian Association. This education is free to the public.

As the city, with a population of well over 100,000, is now caring for only about 3,000 children in its regular schools, one readily realizes the need for these night schools. They are conducted in regular school buildings, chapels, churches, factories, and residences from 7 to 9 o'clock each evening. The terms are from September to February in the fall and winter, and from March to July in the spring and summer.

The fourth year of the popular education schools has just been completed. The results show that the plan for mass education has been carried on with considerable success. Since 1923 there have been eight graduations. The attendance has comprised 4,450 men and 2,486 women and girls.

In securing students for these schools big notices, giving dates of opening and places of schools, are posted on the streets. Handbills for enrollment are also widely distributed. Occasionally, regular school students help in enlisting students for the night schools. The classes conducted in the spring are 1,000-character classes, and those held in the fall term are 2,000-character classes. For the latter, students are enlisted from the 1,000-character graduates of the previous terms.

Schools Graded by Number of Characters Taught

Graduates of the 1,000-character classes are able to read the very simple Chinese newspapers and to write a sufficient number of characters for ordinary daily use. Graduates of the 2,000-character classes are able to write letters, to keep accounts, and to read simple books. They are also taught common knowledge, history, geography and arithmetic, and how to be good citizens.

Boys and girls showing special aptitude in learning are encouraged to attend regular day schools, and several have been supported by the Y. M. C. A., and by friends of the popular education movement, to continue their education through a period of years.

About nine out of ten of the popular education teachers, are teachers in the local day schools. Others are Bible-men and Bible-women, and persons of other professions.

The schools are wholly supported by the education department of the Chefoo Chinese Y. M. C. A., and the funds are raised locally. Nearly one-tenth of the money has been given by foreign friends, and the balance by Chinese contributors. These teachers receive between $2 and $3 gold per month. A large number give their services free.

Missionaries assist in teaching the Chen Kwang Girls School

Australian Education Organized to Meet Unusual Conditions

With Centralized State Control All Schools, Rural and Urban, are upon Same Standard of Efficiency. Expenditures are Recorded upon Basis of Entire State, and Higher Costs do not Prevent Equal Treatment of Sparsely Settled Districts. Local Communities Have No Voice in Management of Schools, but Due Regard is Given to Their Needs and Wishes

By S. H. SMITH
Director of Education for New South Wales

UNDER the Federal Constitution of Australia, education is a matter for the State. Each of the six States has a centralized system of education, supported entirely from the general revenue of the Government. The director of education controls the whole of the educational activities of his State. He is responsible to a minister for education, who is a member of the State cabinet. There is no special education tax and the whole cost of education in each State is borne from the general revenue.

In all the States primary education is compulsory and free. Each State has more or less liberal provision of scholarships and bursaries to the secondary schools and the university.

Australia is a huge territory. It is a land of wide spaces, sweeping horizons, and unbounded possibilities. Viewed as a whole, it is sparsely peopled, though the capital cities are large, Sydney having 1,040,000 and Melbourne 920,000 people.

On the seaboard the population is comparatively dense; in the great hinterlands settlement is, in the main, spread out over a vast area. Many dwell in remote and lonely places. They will be met by the big inland rivers, on the far-spreading sunlit plains, in the valleys and on the slopes of the blue ranges which seem to stretch right out to the edge of the world.

Pioneers' Children Far from Schools

Many people are doing pioneering work of much value to the Nation. Some, of nomadic habits, just shift camp as the fit takes them. You find settlers at all the lonely outposts, following various callings and making homes in the bushland. They and their children, happy, care free little ones of the bush, live far from the township and the school.

It is the aim of the education departments in the various States of Australia to provide primary education for every child in the State. To this end there exists the public school in the settled areas; the provisional school in places where the stability of the population is uncertain; half-time school conducted alternately at two places, each of which has insufficient numbers of children to maintain a public or provisional school; the subsidized school, usually conducted in a private residence, subsidy being granted by the Government toward payment of the teacher's salary; the central school to which a scattered, outlying school population is conveyed daily, the department assisting the parents by conveyance subsidy; the correspondence schools where a staff of teachers, gathered together in a building in the State capital, teaches the children of the isolated settlers through the post.

Throughout the whole of Australia there are 861,256 pupils in the primary schools, the number of such schools being 10,218. In order to carry on this work, 27,424 teachers are employed.

No State Aid for Private Schools

In addition to these schools wholly supported by the State, there are in the various States large numbers of private schools. These do not receive a subsidy from the State, but they are all open to State inspection.

The compulsory-attendance laws require that children shall attend either a State school or a school certified by Government inspectors to be giving an education approximately equivalent thereto.

The orientation, lighting, and ventilation of schools buildings are of high standard, and the most recently erected buildings in all the States compare favorably in regard to their lighting, ventilation, etc., with those of other lands. In all the States periodical medical inspection of children is enforced.

Methods of teaching.—There is a wide employment of kindergarten and Montessori methods in the early stages and the more or less purely abstract teaching of the older days has been largely replaced by concrete methods. Self-activity on the part of the pupils is being further cultivated by the partial development of the Dalton system or modifications thereof. Such subjects as nature study, manual training, music, drawing, business practice, and domestic economy are very generally taught. Great attention has been given during recent years to the scientific classification of pupils, and the problem of retardation is one which is constantly kept in view. Schools have been established for subnormal and defective children.

Examination System is Highly Developed

Examination system.—The examination system is highly specialized. To mark the completion of the primary course, the pupil must pass the prescribed examination, when he is qualified to enter upon either a superprimary or secondary course of training. To mark the completion of each of these, an examination is held. The "leaving certificate" represents a very high standard of attainment and is held in high respect by men in the business world. It also constitutes the qualification of matriculation in the university.

Medical inspection.—Medical inspection of pupils is carried out in all the States. The staffs employed are highly qualified, and their work is well organized. In some of the States traveling clinics treat dental, ocular, and other defects. The aim is to examine each child at least once in every two or three years of its school life, to notify parents of defects, to instruct children and parents on matters affecting the health of the pupil, and to treat where possible minor defects, such as decayed teeth. The benefits that have flowed from the medical inspection of the pupils are widely recognized.

Compulsory attendance.—Compulsory attendance of the child is enforced in all the States, under practically the same conditions. All terminate the compulsory attendance at the age of 14, or earlier if proof be given that the child is educated up to the completion of a prescribed standard. By the adoption of modern methods of teaching, the employment of truant officers, and the growing parental appreciation of the value of education, regularity in attendance is assured. At present there is a strong body of opinion in favor of raising the compulsory age of attendance to 16.

Teachers.—All teachers in the State schools are classified according to attainments and efficiency. Very great emphasis is placed on the latter qualification.

Promotion and transfer depends upon these two factors. Appointments and assignments to duty are handled by State authority.

All entrants to the service must undergo a course of professional training before being permitted to teach. In New South Wales the qualification of entrance to the Teachers' College is the leaving certificate. The period of training may be one, two, three, or four years, according to the type of work that the trainee has to undertake when his training is ended.

Patrons Cooperate Through Voluntary Associations

Parents and citizens' associations.—There is no local control of education, the system being completely centralized. Cooperation with parents and friends of the school is gained in many places by the voluntary formation of parents and citizens' associations, mothers' clubs, and school committees. Where any one of these organizations works in harmony with the teacher the results are wholly good. Not only do they give moral support to the school, but they assist it on the material side. While the departments concerned supply much of the necessary school equipment, these organizations come to the aid of the schools and frequently provide pianos, wireless sets, sewing machines, sports materials, and the like.

The local body in all Australian States has no authority over the teaching staff, nor any power to interfere with the internal management of the school.

Cooperation with teachers' organizations.—In each State the teachers organize to protect their professional and economic interests. These bodies make suggestions to the central authority for the improvement of the conditions of service.

The teachers' organization has a representative on a board which deals with the promotion and transfer of teachers, and when a syllabus of studies is being revised the views of the teachers' organization are carefully considered.

Teachers Aid Pupils to Choose Vocations

Vocational guidance.—For many years the attention of parents and pupils has been directed to the courses of instruction open to them and the avenues of employment into which they lead. Teachers of high and superprimary classes have given guidance to pupils in choosing vocations. Recently we have established a vocational guidance bureau. It is yet too early to speak of the success of this agency.

Supervision.—The system of inspection is very thorough. All of the education departments have staffs of inspectors whose primary duty is to guide and direct the teaching in accordance with approved methods. The inspector visits a school at least once a year, inspects the teacher's work, examines the pupils in some of the subjects of instruction, and gives helpful advice to the teachers.

The various officers for carrying out the supervision and inspection of schools, district inspectors, secondary inspectors, infant schools inspectors, and supervisors of such subjects as music, art, and manual training are subject to the director of education who (under authority of the minister) controls all educational activities of the State which are supported by parliamentary appropriations.

Costs of education.—The expenditure on maintenance last year was £7,747,424. The average cost per head was £10:19:6, calculated upon the average attendance of the children at school. The enrollment of children at private schools was 229,543, there being 1,740 schools and 9,219 teachers.

No Taxes Specifically for Schools

In all the States of Australia the costs of education are met by the central Government out of its consolidated revenue and in no State are taxes raised for the specific purpose of financing education. The latest available statistics show that within one year the net cost of education, including buildings, was in New South Wales, £4,062,688; in Victoria, £2,391,380; in Queensland, £1,421,688; in South Australia, £646,210; in Western Australia, £315,029; in Tasmania, £261,430; and in the Northern Territory, £4,199. These statistics do not include the expenditure upon technical schools and technical colleges. The total net cost to Australia was £9,402,624, or, including buildings, the net cost per scholar on average attendance was £13:6:4. The expenditure on school buildings during the last year for which figures are available was: New South Wales, £766,019; Victoria, £531,571; Queensland, £157,683; South Australia, £107,466; Western Australia, £71,634; Tasmania, £20,643; Northern Territory, £184; total, £1,655,200. Excluding cost of building, the total expenditure on maintenance of education in the last year for which statistics are available showed as follows: New South Wales, per head of average attendance, £12:5:6; Victoria, £9:16:10; Queensland, £11:16:17; South Australia, £7:16:8; Western Australia, £11:5:0; Tasmania, £8:19:0; Northern Territory, £19:6:1; total average expenditure, £10:19:6.

Universities Supported Principally by States

Universities.—The universities of Australia are maintained partly by Government grant and partly by private foundations. Last year the Government grants for the universities were, respectively, Sydney, £125,163; Melbourne, £53,672; Queensland, £22,300; Adelaide, £39,683; Western Australia, £17,750; Tasmania, £12,860. During that period the income from private foundations amounted to: Sydney, £83,928; Melbourne, £5,963; Queensland, £15,623; Adelaide, £12,513; Western Australia, £10,052; Tasmania, £1,466; and the total revenue for all universities in Australia for the last year was £592,433 from all sources.

Naval Unit Established at Yale University

A course in naval science and tactics, covering four years, has been instituted in Yale University. It is in conjunction with regular university work, and will qualify members of the unit for commissions in the United States Naval Reserve. Enrollment will be limited to 60 students in each class throughout the four years. Two officers, graduates of the Naval Academy and of the Naval War College, have been detailed by the Navy Department to establish the course. They will be assisted in the work by three chief petty officers. The course is strictly academic, and the same standards will be required as in other collegiate work. The purpose is to promote knowledge of maritime affairs, and to provide for expansion of naval forces in times of national emergency.

An armory and an indoor target range will be installed for use of students, and navy cutters and motor boats provided. Among other equipment, a set of models illustrating ship construction from earliest colonial times to the present has been loaned by the Navy Department.

Mother Goose Camp for Detroit Children

"Gingerbread Village," a summer camp for children who have been exposed to tuberculosis, or are underweight, has been maintained for six years by the city of Detroit. Two groups of 100 children each receive at the camp eight weeks of out-of-door life under careful supervision. The camp received its name from decoration of the buildings with scenes from Mother Goose. Plaster casts of characters from fairy books and diminutive furniture are attractive features that appeal to children. Physical examination is made of all children on admission to the camp. During their stay thorough treatment is given their teeth, and as far as possible correction is made of physical defects. The average gain in weight last summer was 5.71 pounds. The experiment of heliotherapy, or sun cure, was tried last year, and benefits received warrant its continuance.

In Planning New Subdivisions Realtors Provide for School Play

To Reserve Recreation Space is not Only a Civic Duty but a Display of Business Judgment. National Campaign Launched to This End by Playground and Recreation Association of America. Ten Recreation Fundamentals in Real Estate Development. Noteworthy Action by Realtors in Many Localities. School Authorities Give Active Aid in Movement

By MABEL TRAVIS WOOD

Playground and Recreation Association of America

"WHERE is the school?" That is a question which parents looking for a home always put to the real estate agent. Another question, "Where is the playground?" promises to become as inevitable. Often the two questions may be answered at once, for as new neighborhoods develop much of their recreation space will be provided in connection with the schools.

In the past short-sighted town and city planning—often, indeed, the lack of any plan—has created in many American communities a condition most detrimental to the health and safety of children. We have block upon block of residence district built up without a foot of public play space reserved. Children are driven to the streets for their play, the back yard, where there is one, often being too cramped to appeal to active youngsters for their sports. We have schoolhouses erected on lots just large enough to contain them and a small strip of lawn, and many school boards find too late that their only chance of acquiring play space adjacent to the school is through condemnation proceedings.

Playgrounds Help to Sell Lots

The era of "every man for himself" in developing our communities may have produced a rapid expansion, but it is responsible for these evils. However, many progressive realtors to-day have discovered that to reserve recreation space in their new subdivisions is not only the part of civic duty but is sound business judgment. Playgrounds attract home seekers and help to sell lots quickly. Though, as a gift, the playground land may pay for itself in advertising value, its cost may be returned by enhanced prices or by actual distribution of this price among the individual building lots.

Successful efforts along these lines by scores of real-estate companies throughout the country have inspired the Playground and Recreation Association of America to launch a national campaign to educate both realtors and the general public to the value of setting aside adequate play spaces when new subdivisions are planned. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, National Safety Council, and hundreds of real-estate companies, landscape architects, and city planners are cooperating in the movement. The 10 "recreation fundamentals in real-estate development" on which the association bases its enterprise are as follows:

Fundamentals in Real-Estate Development

1. Real-estate leaders have done and are doing much to build homes for the people of America. They are keenly alive to anything that makes these homes better or more attractive.

2. It is evident that the children and the young people in the homes of America must have places near by for outdoor life and games.

3. Because many individuals are lacking in foresight and because it is difficult for any single individual to plan for play spaces except in cooperation with others, real-estate leaders have opportunity to save individuals and families from their own thoughtlessness and make it easy for them to live in a community where neighborhood open spaces are saved for play.

4. The increase in automobiles in public streets makes the streets increasingly dangerous for the play of children and makes it increasingly necessary to save certain open spaces for play.

5. The built-up portions of cities have been securing play space at very considerable expense. It is the part of civic economy to have such space saved before congestion has made the securing of land for the public difficult and costly.

Make Cities Better Places for Children

6. City real-estate planning should make our cities of the future better places in which to bring up children, and this means the provision for fairly adequate play spaces for the future.

7. Real-estate subdivisions for residence purposes which put aside a certain per cent of the land for recreation uses are more attractive to purchasers.

8. The more ready sale of lots in subdivisions where part of the land is dedicated to public use should far more than repay the subdivider for the cost of the small portion set aside for recreation.

9. Real-estate men should look with favor upon plans to set aside for recreation a reasonable per cent of the area of all future subdivisions.

10. Upon real-estate men more than upon any other leaders depends the extent to which the growing parts of our cities shall be real homes for the men, women, and children living in them.

These fundamentals have already been approved by more than 500 realtors, city

"Sunnyside gardens" justify the name of the subdivision of which they are a feature

planners, mayors, parent-teacher officials, and other community leaders.

A study of what realtors throughout the country have done to set aside recreation spaces in perpetuity, made by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, reveals many instances of playgrounds reserved as part of a school site.

Recreation Tracts Deeded to Homes Associations

In a beautiful subdivision in Los Angeles County, Calif., slightly more than 25 per cent of the entire area of 3,200 acres has been dedicated in perpetuity for public parks, playgrounds, and other recreation features. Seven out of eight playgrounds adjoin public-school buildings, a recreation field of 40 acres being provided in connection with the high school. These combined school and recreation sites comprise a total of 157 acres. All the parks and recreation tracts have been fully developed by the subdividers and deeded to the homes association, which maintains them through taxes which it levies on the property.

Five public-school sites, including recreation areas, have been set aside in the country club district, developed by an investment company at Kansas City, Mo. The size of the project—3,000 acres—permits an orderly and systematic plan of development under which locations for churches, schools, shopping centers, playgrounds, and other community facilities may be set apart long before they are ready to be used.

The subdividers of Broadmoor, at South Highlands, La., have dedicated to public use a tract of 20 acres, immediately back of property that has been purchased by the school board. The president of the company writes:

> We have built a baseball diamond on the property and expect to develop a football field, tennis courts, and other playground equipment, and expect this particular piece to be set aside for the older children. In addition to this, we have also developed a small area, about 3 acres, on which there is a grammar school. Modern playground equipment is being installed. This will be a playground for the smaller children.

Another example in Louisiana of planning ahead for both schools and play spaces is a subdivision, at Monroe, containing 200 acres, intended as a residential section for workers in the cotton mills. In 1924 the subdivider set aside in this addition two squares, each about 2 acres, for a school site and public playground, and deeded them to the city in perpetuity for the purposes specified. Development will begin as soon as the population is sufficient to demand additional school facilities. The cost of developing and of maintaining the sites will be met by the municipality.

Playground is Center of Development

In advertising its development at Houston, Tex., the developing company emphasizes equally the advantages of the modern school building and the well-equipped recreation field available to residents. The playground is in the center of the development and the school is five blocks away.

The subdividers of a tract at Muskegon, Mich., have reserved the largest of the five recreation areas in their 300-acre addition for a school site and playground. This 10-acre tract, centrally located, will not only accommodate a children's playground, but allow generous space for athletic games by older children and adults. The tract is to be sold to the city.

In Longview, Wash., Mariemont, Ohio, and other new towns which are being built from the ground up, considerable of the recreation space has been set aside in connection with schools.

Suggested Standards for Play Spaces

The Playground and Recreation Association of America, in an article in the National Real Estate Journal of May 30, suggested standards for realtors to follow in laying out play spaces in their subdivisions. For children under 6 a neighborhood play lot within each block was suggested, as tots of the preschool age should not have to cross streets to get to their playground. For adults and older boys and girls a recreation park or play field providing space for various athletics was advocated for every square mile of residence territory.

Playgrounds for children from 6 to 14 years of age, it was recommended, should be immediately adjacent to a public-school building, wherever possible, though special conditions may suggest a more advantageous location elsewhere. Standards quoted for such playgrounds were as follows:

Distribution.—One such playground should be centered approximately in a population of 500 children of grade or grammar school age. Effective radius not more than one-half mile; one-quarter mile is preferable.

Area.—About 200 square feet of play space should be provided for each child. Irrespective of the number of children, however, such a neighborhood play area should rarely be less than 2 acres.

Equipment.—Chosen from the following: Slides, swings, teeters, possibly giant stride, merry-go-round, gymnasium frame with horizontal bars, vertical ladders, climbing ropes. Baseball diamond, tennis courts, wading pool, tables with benches for quiet games and handcraft play, jumping pit, and 50 to 75 yard straightaway space for free play.

Insufficient Play Space for Old Schools

In his introduction to a study of school buildings and school grounds made several years ago by a national chamber of commerce committee, Prof. George D. Strayer, of Columbia University, said:

> Playgrounds are not available in connection with many of the older buildings, and unfortunately even in the case of many modern buildings sufficient ground has not been secured at the time of the erection of the building. If we believe that it will pay to provide for the physical well-being of boys and girls, the attention of the American people should be focused upon the necessity for more space in connection with school buildings. It is distressing to note that one-half of all the buildings covered by this inquiry have less than 34 square feet of playground space per child. Students of physical education have long maintained that adequate play space requires from 100 to 200 square feet per pupil. It is clear that in many cities children are now housed in buildings in which there is less space on the playground than is supplied in the classrooms in which they are taught.

This state of affairs diminishes, however, with the broadening appreciation of the need for physical education and of the school's place as a center for community

Tennis courts are provided for Malaga Cove School, Los Angeles County, Calif.

recreation. Out of 164 boards of education in cities of 30,000 population or more, 143 reported to the United States Commissioner of Education in October, 1922, that playgrounds were provided in connection with all new school buildings.

Cooperation of School Authorities Essential

School authorities can lend important influence toward securing, in the growing portions of towns and cities, the recreation spaces which will be so vital to the health and safety of children. Investigation of new subdivisions where schools are or in time may be planned is a duty of the school board, who may offer to purchase a plot that eventually will be required for school recreation, unless the realtor donates it as a sales feature, agreeing to dedicate it permanently for recreation. In attaining such an end the school board should cooperate with town or city planning bodies and public recreation departments, where they exist.

Through meetings at the school and especially through the work of the local parent-teacher association, parents may be educated to the advantages of buying a home in a development which makes adequate provision for children's play.

The subdivision of to-day is the community of to-morrow. The playground, instead of being driven constantly to the frontier, must become a permanent part of every neighborhood, reserved forever for the use of the people, just as the streets now are. Developing body and character, directed play, will make the school of the future a center of training for life in the fullest sense.

Tendency is Toward Larger School-Grounds

Five acres or more of land for elementary schools and 10 acres or more for high schools, junior or senior, have been acquired by several large cities in California, Georgia, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Wisconsin, as announced by the National Conference on City Planning through the Playground and Recreation Association of America. Sixty cities report a definite policy of providing 5 or more acres for elementary schools and of 10 or more acres for high schools. Small cities, where unimproved ground is available at reasonable prices, make a better showing, and 50 cities of 15,000 to 125,000 population report the acquisition of 5 acres or more for school sites since 1915. Cost of land for schools in small cities ranged from $500 to $8,000, and in some instances to as high as $18,000 per acre. In Chicago as much as $30,000 per acre was paid.

Graded Participation by Student Teachers

(*Continued from page 9*)

"favorable," "enthusiastic," "fine," etc. One says, "Most of them take to it well, a lazy one or two do it half-heartedly." One says, "Each training teacher is organizing her own teaching units." One says, "Attitude of teacher-training staff is about 50 per cent for and 50 per cent against." "They are enthusiastic and say it's better than anything we have ever tried." On the whole, the attitude shown is reassuring. The vexing question is whether those who did not answer the questionnaire were simply too busy, ignorant of the meaning of "graded participation," or opposed to the plan. It seems safe to assume that they do not make use of it.

"*Do you find the plan practicable?*" was answered in the affirmative and unqualifiedly by 11. One says, "Yes, decidedly so, where there are sufficient supervisors. We do not have such in the grades, three only for eight grades"; another, "Not satisfactory but better than nothing"; a third, "Yes, generally. It presents some administrative difficulties."

Difficulties are of Administration

The first quotation in the preceding paragraph suggests a very real difficulty, one which handicaps many teacher-training institutions. The second is axiomatic; the only way in which we can overcome our difficulties is by adopting a constructive attitude. The third is not inherent in graded participation. All plans present administrative problems.

"*Do you have a full-time critic or room teacher in charge of each room in the campus training school, public school, where practice teaching is done?*" Fourteen answered affirmatively; one "No"; and one "one for each two rooms." This is significant because the most satisfactory results can be obtained in graded participation as with other plans only when there is an adequate training staff. The writer is of the opinion that there should always be a full-time critic teacher in charge of each room who should have charge at all times, assigning different duties to the student teachers under her charge only as they are able to perform them. This would necessitate full responsibility for actual teaching at the beginning, the students performing simpler tasks under direction. Later on the latter would take over more and more of the greater responsibilities of the classroom, freeing the critic teacher almost entirely for supervision.

In response to a request six sent outlines ranging from single typewritten sheets in the case of two to more or less fully worked-out bulletins. One of the latter is a comprehensive manual based on the graded participation idea to be used by the student teacher. Inasmuch as graded participation requires close attention to details in connection with the different units, complete outlines are essential to success. To avoid the work becoming too mechanical is the task of the training staff, who must see that each task is well done and that all are properly coordinated. A conscientious attempt must be made at all times to show the student teacher that while responsible room teaching is the chief goal, satisfactory participation in the simpler units is essential to success in the larger field.

Music Emphasized in Michigan Rural Schools

Music by an orchestra composed of 85 pieces, representing rural schools throughout Kent County, Mich., played with understanding and ease a number of musical selections before a large audience at Godfrey-Lee School. The concert was given under the leadership of the director of music of Grand Rapids schools. Sheet music and instructions had been sent to the members of the orchestra, and they had practiced assiduously at home, but had only a few hours of practice together. Later, a girls' glee club, composed of 185 voices from different rural schools in the county, taught in the same way, gave a remarkable exhibition at Sparta. Following this, a plan of county-wide instruction of rural pupils in the fundamentals of music was worked out. A teacher was employed who visited as many schools as possible, giving an hour a week to each, and using her own car for transportation. She received $2 per week from each school. Her time was fully taken, and an assistant was employed.

The pupils have learned rhythm and how to read by note, the choice of music by the children during playtime has noticeably changed, many pupils are taking private lessons in music after school hours, and in one school a boys' glee club has been organized.

The Swedish Riksdag has passed a bill which reorganizes the system of elementary education in Sweden. The primary object of the measure is to discourage private schools and to extend and unify the elementary public-school system. The bill has been the subject of long and bitter controversy among the political parties of Sweden.—*Leland Harrison, United States minister, Stockholm, Sweden.*

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT

Librarian, Bureau of Education

ALMACK, JOHN C. The school board member. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xii, 281 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

This monograph renders a new service, in taking up in a specific way the problems of the board of education and discussing them chiefly from the board's point of view.

BRONNER, AUGUSTA F.; HEALY, WILLIAM; LOWE, GLADYS M. *and* SHIMBERG, MYRA E. A manual of individual mental tests and testing. Boston, Little, Brown, and company, 1927. x, 287 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Judge Baker foundation publication no. 4)

The entire treatment of mental tests and testing in this manual is based on a recognition that there are differences in mental capacities between individuals and in the same individual. It attempts to include every adequately standardized individual test of mental ability, and states concisely all the information necessary to give, score, and numerically evaluate these tests. The authors emphasize the need of tests sufficiently thorough and of wide enough range to rate justly the subject's abilities, so that the results may be usable as part of the basis for advice about educational, personality, and conduct problems.

FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A. *and* HUTSON, PERCIVAL W. The scholarship of teachers in secondary schools. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. ix, 109+xiii, 208 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

The first of these papers is the Sachs prize essay of 1926; the second is an essay offered in competition for the Julius and Rosa Sachs prize, 1926.

The ultimate purpose of this essay competition is practical; to raise the level of scholarship, the background of knowledge, and the breadth of view of American secondary school teachers. Dean Fitzpatrick's essay considers the present situation as regards teacher scholarship, training agencies for secondary teachers, and improvement of teachers in service. A lesson for America is drawn from the superior status of teachers in Germany. Professor Hutson's essay undertakes to discover the extent and the quality of the scholarship which teachers now bring to their work, and to make a critical study of our present practices in securing that scholarship.

KOOS, LEONARD V. The American secondary school. Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1927] xii, 755 p. front., tables, diagrs. 12°.

A basic treatise on American secondary education as a whole is here presented, having a wider scope than those volumes which usually bear the title "principles of secondary education." Space is here given to certain topics not usually recognized in books on this subject, namely, the secondary school organization as it relates to size and distribution of high schools, rural secondary education, vocational education, and other types of secondary education; adaptations to differences in ability among pupils; educational and vocational guidance; allied (extracurricular) activities; community relationships; problems relating to the teaching staff; the school plant and costs. The work has also a distinctive treatment and organization, reenforced by a substratum of fact.

MONROE, WALTER S. Directing learning in the high school. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Page and company, 1927. x, 577 p. 8°. (Teacher training series. W. S. Monroe, general editor)

The three basic courses in the training of high-school teachers are educational psychology, methods of teaching, and principles of secondary education. Because the textbooks in these subjects are usually of different authorship they are likely to be uncoordinated with one another and to overlap unduly. The present text deals with the problems of instructional procedure in such a way as to minimize duplications and avoid inconsistencies with the other two subjects, which are to be treated later in other volumes in the same series, by the same author.

OSBURN, W. J. Are we making good at teaching history? Prepared under the direction of W. J. Osburn, with the assistance of a grant from the Commonwealth fund. Issued by John Callahan, State superintendent. Bloomington, Ill., Public school publishing co., 1926. 130 p. tables. 8°.

The data herein presented are the results of a study made possible by a grant from the Commonwealth fund to the State department of public instruction in Wisconsin. The purpose of the study was to discover the present status of testing in history, and to suggest means whereby such testing may be improved. Some failures to realize certain important objectives in the teaching of history are made manifest by the investigation.

PRINGLE, RALPH W. Methods with adolescents. With a foreword by Lotus D. Coffman. Boston, New York [etc.] D. C. Heath and company [1927] xvii, 437 p. 12°.

High-school teachers and prospective teachers, especially those in the smaller schools who are called upon to teach many subjects, and high-school principals who wish to aid their teachers in the solution of classroom problems, are to be the beneficiaries of this volume, which is a book of special methods, not of devices. The treatment is based upon adolescent psychology, which is summarized at the outset, and after general considerations of method, each subject of the curriculum is taken up individually.

ROBERTS, ALEXANDER CRIPPEN *and* DRAPER, EDGAR MARIAN. The high-school principal as administrator, supervisor, and director of extra curricular activities. With a foreword by Lotus D. Coffman. Boston, New York [etc.]. D. C. Heath and company [1927] xxii, 335 p. tables. 12°.

According to President Coffman, the position of high-school principal, except in the smaller schools, is now regarded as the professional equal of the superintendency. A principal to-day, besides being a manager and a disciplinarian, must also qualify as an administrator and a supervisor. To training, ability, zeal, and judgment he must add an exalted conception of the higher and finer values of human life, and a sympathy with and belief in human nature. This book lists and describes, in a comprehensive way, the various duties and responsibilities of the principal, on the basis of data collected from 441 high school located in all sections of the United States.

SHREVE, FRANCIS. Supervised study plan of teaching. Richmond, Va., Johnson publishing company [1927] xvii, 539 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (Johnson education series, ed. by Thomas Alexander and Rosamond Root)

Investigation and experience in the field of supervised study during recent years are summarized in this book, which presents the scientific data upon which teachers may base procedures in directing study and also furnishes concrete applications to classroom problems. The author desires the supervised study movement to be rescued from formalism by revising the popular notion of its meaning in the light contributed by educational psychology. To aid toward this end, introductory chapters are included on the accomplishments, significance, and administration of supervised study.

STEWART, ROLLAND MACLAREN *and* GETMAN, ARTHUR KENDALL. Teaching agricultural vocations; a manual for teachers in preparation and in service. New York, John Wiley and sons, 1927. vii, 377 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Books on education, ed. by A. K. Getman and C. E. Ladd)

The needs and experiences of teachers of vocational agriculture, as observed from the standpoint of teacher training and State supervision, were in the authors' minds in preparing this volume. The purpose is to emphasize such methods as grow directly out of the activities of agricultural vocations in secondary schools, and at the same time to utilize the best that has accumulated in the field of general education. The book is an outgrowth of the nation-wide program of vocational education set up under the Smith-Hughes Act.

WILLIAMS, JESSE FEIRING. Hygiene and sanitation; the essentials of modern health care. Philadelphia and London, W. B. Saunders and company, 1927. 344 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 8°.

The object of this book is briefly to present the essentials of hygiene and sanitation as developed in modern times, in a form adapted to serve the practical needs of teachers and students. The double need is shown that the individual shall try to live more wholesomely, and that government shall do its part by health regulation and control. A chapter also deals with Health care on an international basis. Sets of questions and practical exercises are appended to each chapter in the volume.

WRIGHT, J. C. *and* ALLEN, CHARLES R. The supervision of vocational education of less than college grade. New York, John Wiley & sons, inc., 1926. v, 415 p. tables, diagrs., forms. 8°.

The authors of this book say that in the field of vocational education, at least of vocational education of less than college grade, experience has shown that, in all sorts of ways, the problems of administration and of supervision are totally different from those in general education. In these pages, accordingly, the principles of a specialized technique for the supervision of vocational education are presented, and the proper method of training students for this form of supervision are also set forth. The authors have in preparation a companion volume on the administration of vocational education.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1927

All Other Aims Subordinate to Development of Moral Character

ONE of the difficulties in determining the aim or purpose of education to-day is the great complexity of modern life. In a simple form of civilization there was little question or discussion as to the aim or purpose of education. As society grows more and more complex, as the demands made upon the individual increase in kind and number, as knowledge increases, and forms of activity—industrial, commercial, social, and political—become more varied and complicated, the individual has opportunities to function in many new channels and consequently is confronted with many more aims, purposes, and demands.

Undoubtedly our public school system must become more and more a social institution with normal social life for pupils; and a broad socialized course of study is required in contradistinction to a narrow, limited course of study. Undoubtedly we must train for citizenship, use of leisure, and home life. Undoubtedly, too, the imparting of knowledge is important. Hundreds of millions of dollars are spent each year to impart knowledge—the knowledge which the world has built up in its thousands of years of endeavor. It is proper that parents should expect the schools to fit their children to meet reasonable demands made upon them as to their knowledge of fundamental subjects, and their ability to read, write, spell, and solve simple arithmetical problems.

If, however, we were obliged by force of circumstances to devote all our efforts to one single aim as the fundamental, ultimate, all-inclusive aim of a system of public schools, particularly of a system of public schools in a cosmopolitan city, what one aim would we select beyond and above all others? Would we not say that important as all other aims are, they are subordinate to the aim of the development of moral character?

—William J. O'Shea.

Instruction Must Not Be Confused With Education

OR DECADES the one essential problem of the American college has been to induce its students to take their college work seriously. These students are not children. They are no younger than men who led the advance through the Argonne and other men who took their ships round the Horn. If they can be made to appreciate the importance of intellectual training they will take it seriously enough. The only way to make young men feel the importance of education is to accept and act upon the principle that they are partners, and the more important partners, in the educational endeavor. This we have not done. We have confused instruction with education. We have not seen clearly that nobody can educate anybody else. The faculty can only direct and supervise and maintain the standard; the student must educate himself. Self-education demands freedom and responsibility. President Eliot understood this and was striving toward freedom and responsibility when he brought in the elective system. He was adopting university methods.

—*Henry A. Yeomans.*

SCHOOL LIFE

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NEW YORK HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS GAIN INSPIRATION FROM THE EXHIBITS OF THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART

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Moral Instruction in Australia Based Upon Nonsectarian Religion

Australian Schools Have Always Inculcated Principles of Morality, Truth, and Patriotism. Clergymen May Give Denominational Instruction an Hour Per Day. Young Children Taught by Stories and Fables with a Moral Purpose. "Outback" Children Receive Little Scriptural Instruction Except in Schools. Personality of Teacher Recognized as the Strongest Moral Influence

By S. H. SMITH,
Director of Education for New South Wales

PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS of Australia provide for over 80 per cent of the children of the Continent. Direct moral instruction has always been given in the schools. In New South Wales, for instance, the public instruction act of 1880 provides that general nonsectarian religious teaching shall form part of the secular instruction in all schools. Periods of from one and one-half to two and one-half hours a week are devoted to civics and morals, the lessons being based on scripture books issued by the Queensland Education Department. The earlier instruction is oral, but as soon as the pupils can read with sufficient ease, textbooks are used in the class. Teachers of all creeds give this instruction, and very few pupils avail themselves of the conscience clause. The general result is that the pupils have a satisfactory knowledge of scripture history and some acquaintance with the moral teaching of the Bible.

Some Rural Children Rarely See a Clergyman

In many of the remote districts of Australia this is the only direct scripture teaching which the pupils receive, as they see or hear a clergyman or missionary only once or twice a year.

The public instruction act of New South Wales also provides for the right of entry for denominational instruction during one hour each school day. This privilege is exercised chiefly by the Anglican Church, to a less extent by other Protestant denominations, including the Salvation Army, by the Jews in some of the city schools, and rarely by the Roman Catholics. As a rule, clergymen of the different denominations give instructions once a week in the larger centers. In the country parishes they give it, if at all, at longer intervals. In 1925 the number of lessons given by special visiting religious teachers was 98,862 (46,182 Anglican, 2,771 Roman Catholic, 16,746 Presbyterian, 21,447 Methodist, 11,716 others). The practice in New South Wales is followed in most of the other States of Australia.

Moral Teaching Permeates Entire Management

The departmental instructions to teachers in New South Wales prescribe that it shall be the duty of all teachers to impress upon the minds of their pupils the principles of morality, truth, justice, and patriotism; to teach them to avoid idleness, profanity, and falsehood, to instruct them in the principles of a free government, and to train them up to a comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of citizenship. To meet this requirement the course of instruction provides that moral teaching shall permeate the whole management of the school and be embodied in the methods of discipline and the treatment of the children by the teacher, in the proprieties and manners required from the children, and in the example of the teacher.

It is further required that the pupils shall, during their first three or four years at school, be taught stories and fables with a moral purpose, moral attributes which lie at the foundation of home and school life, such as truthfulness, obedience to parents, family affection, politeness, gentleness, control of temper, greetings at home and at school, politeness in question and answer, personal cleanliness, stories illustrative of moral attributes such as respect for school laws, self-help, consideration for others, unselfishness, contentment, truthfulness in word and deed, self-reliance, kindness and courage, punctuality and promptness, courtesy and clearness of speech, conduct on the street, care of property, kindness to animals, simple proverbs.

This earlier instruction is followed by a series of lessons on moral obligations and on the right relations of the individuals of the family to society and to the State. In the primary schools lessons on Australian and English history are given so as to enable the pupil to get a knowledge of the past, to help him to understand the present, and to furnish him with noble ideals of work and service. In the secondary schools the teaching of history is enlarged so as to include the whole range of modern European and American history.

High Character First Qualification of Teacher.

Rules of conduct and temperance charts are hung in the schools and form the subject of regular instruction. At the same time it is fully recognized that the source of the strongest moral influence of the school is the personality of the teacher and that the best moral teaching in the school is the silent, unobtrusive influence of the work which is done there. The State therefore demands from all applicants for service as

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teachers the qualifications of high personal character, sound physique, and trained intelligence.

The moral value of good literature is recognized, not only in the actual school work but in the school libraries, established by local effort, which are found in every school, even in the small bush school miles away from the nearest town.

Other means adopted as suitable aids in the general course on moral instruction include nature study and school gardens, the decoration of school buildings with pictures and flowers, decorations for Empire Day, Bird Day, Forest League Day, Anzac Day, etc.; lessons on the proper use of ordinary newspapers are regularly given to the upper classes. Parents' associations and ex-pupils' associations are established at most schools. They aim at the development of an esprit de corps amongst the pupils and tend to establish pride in the work of the schools.

The paramount importance of the education of the will is receiving new recognition. In Western Australia, the largest of the Australian States, though not the most populous, the regulations of the education department state that teachers are expected to give the children a knowledge of the narrative of the Bible and of the moral teaching contained in it. Lessons are to be given orally by the teacher, they are to impress upon the children the value of scripture as a basis of moral instruction as the oldest historical record and also as the finest collection of literature in the language. They must confine themselves to the narrative and moral teaching and must strictly refrain from inculcating any particular denominational views.

School Improvement Associations Active in Five States

For about a quarter of a century school improvement associations or leagues have been important agencies in the improvement of school and community conditions, especially in the South. Such organizations have aided in arousing popular interest in schools and in promoting school legislation, according to a study of State school improvement associations, by Edith A. Lathrop, published by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, as Rural School Leaflet No. 42.

The associations maintain close relations with State departments of education, and in South Carolina the association works under the immediate direction of the department. The chief activity of the associations is in raising money for school improvement. Such local associations in 1925 raised and expended for this purpose $93,800 in South Carolina and $170,000 in Virginia. Local Virginia leagues expended in five years more than a million dollars for educational purposes. Membership in the associations, according to latest available records, was 15,000 in Arkansas, 22,000 in South Carolina, and 70,000 (including juniors) in Virginia. Maine reported 600 local leagues in 1921. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers is doing in many States work formerly carried on by school improvement associations.

Children's Schools Follow British Troops

Schools for British soldiers' children are found all over India and in all the colonies garrisoned by Imperial troops, including Egypt, Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, Hongkong, Singapore, and Jamaica. The personnel of the army educational corps are well trained, and courses of study are so arranged that children moving with the army can carry on their studies with little interruption. Wherever possible schools are centralized, and the larger corps of teachers makes specialized teaching possible. In India, where moves are frequent, the schoolmistress accompanies the troops from place to place.

Because of the wide experience gained by the traveling army children, their acquaintance with foreign peoples, and their possession frequently of some knowledge of different languages, numbers of soldiers' children are successful in winning scholarships in competition with other English school children, and are often able, if an army career is chosen, to attain higher rank than their fathers in the service of the Empire.

Alaskan Natives are Progressing Rapidly

Educational progress among native people in southeastern Alaska is shown by the fact that of 1,710 former pupils of schools operated by the United States Bureau of Education in that district, 499 have become marine engineers; 378, gas-boat owners; 355, carpenters; 195, general merchants; 226, miners; 45, ministers or welfare workers; and 10, teachers. Two natives trained in schools administered by the Government are owners of large salmon canneries.

An intensive campaign to increase literacy among natives in this district was recently inaugurated by the Bureau of Education. A survey last fall showed 2,098 literates and 1,042 illiterates over 8 years old. All were classed as literate who could read and write common English. This is a higher standard than that prescribed for the United States census in that it includes all who are more than 8 years of age, and requires for literacy more than mere ability to write one's own name. The plan for the campaign contemplates competition among the 17 villages of the district for the distinction of having the largest proportion of literate population.

Ability to swim is a requirement for graduation in 19 public and in 29 private colleges and universities in the United States, as shown by a study of physical education in American colleges and universities, by Marie M. Ready, results of which have been published by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, as Bulletin No. 14, 1927. In Dartmouth College all first-year students must pass the swimming test before they are allowed to participate in other physical activities.

IN THE AFFAIRS OF GOVERNMENT education has come to be predominant. The importance attached to it is signified by the large proportion of public money which is devoted to its support. In the country at large it is probable that well toward three-fifths of all local taxes are expended directly or indirectly for education. We hear very little criticism of the amount of money that is used for this purpose, but it is undoubtedly well from time to time to make a careful investigation of this very large item, not so much to attempt to reduce it as to make certain that all wastes are eliminated and that the community is securing full value in return for its large outlays. No progressive community can afford to neglect the education of its people. Considered on the basis of economics their development depends very largely on the scientific learning and skill with which their efforts are directed. The day of the rule of thumb is past. The day of the exact application of scientific knowledge by persons technically trained in all the affairs of life has come. Any neglect in this direction would mean at once stagnation, decay, and failure. It is impossible for any community to hold its place in modern society unless it is fully equipped in the educational field of arts and sciences and research.—*President Coolidge, in his address dedicating the Lincoln Memorial Library, Brookings, S. Dak., September 10, 1927.*

High Schools Reflect Cosmopolitan Character of New York City

Growth Has Exceeded Growth of Secondary Schools in Country at Large. Three Public Day High Schools Established on Manhattan Island 30 Years Ago with 1,769 Students. Greater City Now Has 35 Schools With Enrollment of 125,000. Schools Specialize in Certain Particulars, but Standards of All Are Substantially Identical

By SAMUEL P. ABELOW
Instructor in History, Julia Richman High School

NEW YORK CITY high schools have grown tremendously in importance, not only because the economic, social, and cultural values of education are increasingly recognized, but also because of certain local conditions as well. The continuation school law, for example, requires boys and girls who do not graduate from a four-year high-school course or who leave school before their eighteenth birthday to attend continuation school four hours a week during the working period. Because of this law, parents prefer to send their children to high school. Then, too, large numbers of children graduate from elementary school below 14, which is the minimum age set by the child labor law for starting work, and they naturally augment high-school attendance.

These factors have contributed materially to the rapid growth of the high-school system. There are now 35 day high schools in the regular school term and six summer high schools. The day high-school population is about 125,000. For the past five years the high schools have been increasing on an average of 10,593 students a year. From 1905 to 1925 the average register has increased from 21,493 to 125,201. Twenty years ago only 38 pupils per 1.000 were registered in the day high schools and in 1925 there were 128 per 1,000.

This growth has necessitated careful planning on the part of the school authorities. It takes a long time for school machinery to function properly, and no sooner is one unit completed than the demands for another school building become urgent. These buildings house anywhere from 3,000 to 7,000 pupils and cost a few million dollars each, so the board of education experiences considerable difficulty in meeting the demands of the community despite the generosity of the city authorities in granting funds for building.

George Washington High School is superbly located

New York has a fine collection of high-school buildings—large, sanitary, well equipped, with all the latest devices—things of beauty. All are very large structures. George Washington High School occupies a plot 250 feet by 700 feet. De Witt Clinton has a daily attendance of more than 7,000 boys. In spite of the immensity of these buildings, hundreds of pupils are housed in makeshift quarters in "annexes" located in elementary-school buildings. In some buildings the congestion is so great that secondary education is conducted under the greatest difficulties.

Humanity in Varied Assortment

The pupils come from all kinds of neighborhoods, from all sorts of families; they posses an innumerable variety of characteristics, ambitions, abilities, and capacities. The training of this heterogeneous mass of growing humanity taxes the skill of the superintendents, principals, and teachers. In addition to meeting the varied needs of the individuals, the high schools, according to Associate Superintendent Harold G. Campbell, have the special function of developing more efficient citizenship.

Not only does the rapid growth of population demand the best skill of the educational authorities but the shifting character of the school population aggravates the problem. President George J. Ryan, of the board of education, described the problem thus:

"The school population has become more fluid during the year than ever before in the history of the city. The moving of children from borough to borough has aggravated the housing situation by unforeseen increased registers in some boroughs and correspondingly decreased registers in others. Unexpected real-estate developments add to the abnormal changes in borough population. All the known means of forecasting school necessities in various localities have been used, yet present conditions have sometimes offset full accuracy of estimated needs. However, our building program is maintaining normal progress."

All Grades of Ability Represented

Since the high schools are open to all who apply and the students represent all grades of ability and needs, the curriculum is an expression of cosmopolitanism. The following subjects are taught, in addition to the usual academic branches: Stenography, typewriting, office practice, commercial law, bookkeeping, millinery, dressmaking, designing, cooking, salesmanship, surveying. Not all these subjects are taught in the same school. Some schools, as the Boys High School, are on the traditional academic plan. The Julia Richman High School is a combination of the academic and commercial types. The Haaren High School is conducted on the cooperative plan. Its pupils are in school part of the time and the rest of the time they are employed in offices at a regular salary. The Washington Irving High School gives a special art course. At the Julia Richman High School special courses in millinery and dressmaking are conducted for those girls who have no desire for advanced academic subjects. All students, however, who wish a regular high-school diploma must, in addition to their elective subjects, pass these required subjects: English, four years; American history, one year; modern European history, one year; economics, one-half year; community civics, one-half year; and music, drawing, physical training, and hygiene.

Schools Allowed Great Latitude

Although the curriculum represents the cultural, economic, and civic aspirations of the community, all schools must be organized in accordance with one general plan. With that limitation, each school is allowed a great deal of latitude. A high school is a living organism possessing all the idiosyncracies of an organism. The pupils must be satisfied, the parents must be satisfied, the teachers have their ideals and ideas, and the principal has his individuality.

Every school follows the regular scholastic program set for it by the city board of education and by the board of regents of the State. At the end of each term the pupils must pass State examinations—called "the regents"—in certain subjects. Since these examinations are prepared by officials who are not connected with the local school system, they serve as an index of progress. The results are considered highly satisfactory.

Entering pupils are classified according to their I. Q.'s as ascertained by various tests—Otis group, Terman group, national intelligence, Wilkins prognosis, Downey will temperament, or others. After the first term, groupings are based on I. Q.'s and educational achievements. At the Julia Richman High School the students are classified, in some instances, on the basis of their ability to answer certain types of questions—thought questions, factual questions, judgment questions, etc. As far as possible these groupings are kept intact. In many schools weak pupils are compelled to take plane geometry in three terms instead of two, i. e., one year and a half instead of a year. In Erasmus Hall a special course in Latin has been organized for pupils of low intelligence. In other schools slow pupils are encouraged to take such subjects as millinery, dressmaking, domestic science.

Pupils Classified According to Ability

In modern languages the teachers try to adapt instruction to the needs of their pupils. A number of steps have been taken to reduce failures, especially in the first term. As a result of the intelligence tests the pupils have been divided into slow, normal, and rapid advancement classes, with specialized courses of study. In one school supervised study periods have been provided. Vocabulary tests, making decidedly definite the work of beginners, have been devised, standardized, and administered weekly, notably in De Witt Clinton, department of Spanish. Prognosis tests as a basis for classification of pupils and elimination of the unfit have been used in some languages. In Erasmus Hall pupils especially weak

Libraries are abundantly used. This one is in Boys' High School, Brooklyn

in modern language work are given not less but more language training. This is doue by means of slow-moving classes, in which three terms are taken to cover the standard program of the first two terms.

These illustrations are but a few of the hundreds that could be cited to demonstrate the amount of classification that is done by the high-school teachers in order to adapt the instruction to the intelligence of the pupils. The New York high schools are educational laboratories. The teachers are ever watchful for new mental phenomena and are ever devising new cures. This laboratory work demands a great deal of the teacher's spare time.

Consequently, the reflections of former Associate Superintendent Clarence E. Meleney on the school admiuistratiou are very pertinent:

Requires Talent of High Degree

"The organization of such institutions as the great high schools of this city presents problems of administration requiriug talent of a high degree. Every principal has become an expert in his special field. In every school an observer finds au organism undergoing natural development through the process of evolution. Year by year new conditions present themselves requiring adjustments and modifications and adaptation. The principal and his executive staff are constantly studying aud working out new problems. The rapid growth in numbers of pupils to be taught and trained, new and ofteu inexperienced acquisitious to the teaching staff, the introduction of new courses of study, the modification of methods of teaching to teach effectively the multitude of boys and girls of all stages of intelligence and inheritance, call for ability and power in management that has no parallel in the business or professional world."

Attention Given to Practical Ethics

Although the major business of the high school is to teach subjects outlined in the course of study, and the major efforts of the teachers are concentrated on that business, a very serious effort is made to develop the qualities of citizenship necessary iu a progressive democracy. The subject of practical ethics engages the atteution of all the schools. Different types of "service leagues" aim to develop habits of correct thinking and righteous behavior, both in relation to the school and to the commuuity. An astonishing service is rendered in connection with the publication of the numerous high-school papers published weekly, monthly, and aunually, aud printed in English, French, Spanish, and Latin; iu student participation in the administratiou of the general organizations; iu activity of students in connection with athletics, dramatics, community civics, and the study of foreign languages. All these are indicative of wholesome student participation in the community life of the school that serves not only to promote efficieut administration but also to develop in our boys aud girls those traits of character, that we identify with good citizenship in the larger affairs of the city, the State, and the Nation.

Rated on Personality Score Cards

Every opportunity is utilized to stress the importance of practical ethics. Each school has its particular scheme. At the Julia Richman High School one period a month is set aside for a formal discussiou of some topic, as honesty, cleanliness of body, cooperation, etc. At the end of the term each recitation teacher rates each of her pupils satisfactory or unsatisfactory on the basis of a personality score card. These ratings are given every term, so that, at the end of the four years, the student has a composite picture of the opinions of a great many teachers.

At the Bushwich High School the school is treated as a community and the concrete standards of good citizenship are constantly stressed, such as industry, respect for law and order, self-control, courtesy and consideration for the rights of others, truthfulness and dependability, readiness to cooperate, cleanliness and neatness in appearance and personal habits, leadership and initiative, attendance, including punctuality and regularity.

Every school has its "G. O.," the general organization of the studeut body. All are members of the G. O. who pay the semiannual dues. The officers of the G. O. are elected in the same manner that the officers of a community are elected. This G. O. develops student cooperation and gives the students experience in student self-government.

Pupils habitually assist their teachers and the administrative officers of the schools in many ways and thus gain practical experience and acquire habits of cooperation.

School Publications an Important Factor

The spirit of initiative, cooperation, and good citizenship is also displayed in and cultivated by the school publications. These have played a large part iu developing a few students, but a very large part in fostering solidarity of feeling and enthusiasm for the school among the great mass of the students.

Every school has its monthly magazine which prints stories, poems, original jokes, and articles of interest to the student body. The oldest school monthly is the Recorder of the Boys High School. Many high schools are publishing real weekly newspapers which contain not only curreut school news, but official uotices for the guidance of the pupils. Many schools publish handbooks coutaining the courses of study, supplemeutary readings, iuformation about scholarships, and the manifold regulations of the conduct of the schools. Within the past few years foreign-lauguage papers and a science paper have been developed.

These papers are edited and managed by students under the supervision of members of the faculty. They are supported entirely by the studeut body. The editorial board is selected by the faculty. In one high school, Wadleigh, the editorial board is elected by the student body froun au eligible list prepared by the English department.

Dr. Johu L. Tildsley, district superintendent in charge of high schools, is so enthusiastic over these publications that he said:

More Publications Are Desired

"These various publications have proved of such value in building a solidarity of school life that they should be regarded as indispensable elements iu the school organization. Their number should be increased. Principals who have weekly papers at their disposal find them of the greatest value in keeping the student body advised of school policies. The publications form oue of the most importaut educational agencies iu the high schools. Individual students in their efforts to win places as editor of a school paper may thus have developed more real power in writing than through their classroom exercises. Their numbers should be increased."

Another activity which tends to develop fine citizenship is the school bank. Each school has its bank, directed by a member of the faculty who is assisted by representative members of the student body serving as clerks, tellers, and in other capacities. This institution serves to inculcate in the students the habit of thrift and to help the pupils in practical ways.

Granting of scholarships to studeuts primarily because of athletic ability has been abolished at Penusylvania State College by the new board of control of athletics of the college. The ruling takes effect this fall, and after three years no student athlete at the college will receive any financial aid whatever. Action was also taken by the board prohibiting "scouting" of any form on the playing of rival teams.

Plan of Rating Teachers Based Upon Pupil Accomplishment

Essential Element Is Comparison of Academic Standing of Individual Students with their Ability. Teacher's Efficiency Determined by Dividing Average Standing of Median Group into Average Score of Class

By WILLIAM A. WETZEL
Principal, Senior High School, Trenton, N. J.

GREAT PROGRESS has been made in recent years in the application of scientific principles to the solution of the problems of public education. But apparently this scientific method has made little headway in the field of rating pupils and teachers. The latest schemes for teacher rating still rest on subjective estimates of intangible qualities, and their application to any specific situation results in little more than bad feeling between the one who is rated and the one who does the rating.

There is nothing mysterious about the principle of teacher rating. Nor is it different from the principle of rating as applied in other walks of life. The teacher, like the gardener and the shoemaker, is a producer, and each is just as good as his wares. To rate the shoemaker we test his shoes; to rate the gardener we judge his vegetables; and to rate the teacher we must test her product, which is the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, power which through her efforts are now the possession of her pupils.

In other words, teacher rating and pupil rating are inseparable, and the first essential to teacher rating is a definite organization of course-of-study materials, a common understanding of the rating values that shall be attached to the various parts of the course of study, and objective methods of measuring pupil accomplishment.

Connect Rating with Pupil Achievement

It is only when teacher rating is definitely connected with pupil achievement as outlined in a definite course of study that teacher rating can be made to serve the purposes that justify a program of rating, viz: (1) To stress emphasis in teaching on the objectives of the course of study; (2) to evaluate the results of teaching in terms of these objectives; (3) to analyze the teacher's methods and propose better ways to improve the product.

Publication sponsored by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, Dr. J. B. Edmonson, chairman.

The teacher differs from the shoemaker and the gardener in one respect. The shoemaker selects his leather and the gardener chooses his seeds and his soil. The teacher does not select the pupils of her class, and teachability is a variable factor. That is, teaching efficiency is relative. It rests on the ratio between actual pupil accomplishment and possible pupil accomplishment.

The teacher efficiency chart described in this article represents an effort to measure the teacher in accordance with the principles already laid down. That the plan is crude and the results still not satisfactory the writer concedes without hesitation. But the crudity lies not in undertaking to rate on false principles and refinement, though experience may improve the results. Experience has shown that the plan even though crude is helpful in accomplishing the legitimate purposes of a teacher-rating plan.

Two Elements Are Presupposed

This plan presupposes two things, both of which are essential in a modern school: An academic ability index number for each pupil, and reliable pupil ratings in subject matter. In the school in which this plan is used, the ability index is based on reading ability rather than on the I. Q. because a reading ability index is more easily obtained and can be used openly in the school.

The first essential to measuring anything is a suitable scale. In this case the scale is a gradation of rating values attained by all the pupils of the school in all subjects at various ability levels. In the chart under consideration the school is arranged in 20 different ability levels.

The next step is to get an index number for the value of all the academic ratings at each pupil ability level. In the school in question five letter ratings are used in which the lowest rates failure. The letter ratings are weighted arbitrarily as follows: An A rating=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, E=0. There was a total of 58 ratings for all pupils at the lowest ability level (under 50). These were distributed as follows: 20 E's, 29 D's, 9 C's, no B's, and no A's. The E's score 0, the D's at the rate of 1 point each score 29, the C's at the rate of 2 points each score 18, and the B's and A's score 0. The total value of all the ratings at this ability level is 29 plus 18, or 47 points.

To Derive a Scale of Values

There were 58 ratings, therefore, with a total value of 47 points. The average worth of a rating at this ability level is the quotient of 47 divided by 58, or 0.81. Inasmuch as this is less than 1, and 1 represents the worth of a D rating, this means that pupils at ability level under 50 do not average a D rating. At the highest ability level (over 140) the ratings were distributed as follows: No E's, 4 D's, 8 C's, 10 B's, and 16 A's, a total of 38 ratings. Equating these as before we get a total score of 114. The average worth of a rating at this level is 3 (i. e., 114÷38). That is, the average rating of a pupil at this level is B.

Similar calculations at each ability level give the following scale of values:

Ability index:	Scale
Under 50	0.81
50–54.5	.96
55–59.5	1.08
60–64.5	1.19
65–69.5	1.31
70–74.5	1.42
75–79.5	1.54
80–84.5	1.65
85–89.5	1.77
90–94.5	1.88
95–99.5	2.00
100–104.5	2.11
105–109.5	2.22
110–114.5	2.33
115–119.5	2.44
120–124.5	2.55
125–129.5	2.66
130–134.5	2.77
135–139.5	2.88
140 and over	3.00

Pupils' Ability Indexes Are Recorded

In operating the chart the teacher first distributes her ratings at the various ability levels of her pupils. Each teacher has a record of the ability indexes of all the pupils in her classes. The total number of each kind of ratings and their equated scores are then entered in the spaces at the foot of the chart, and the total number of ratings at each ability level in the right hand column of the chart. The total number of ratings and the total score are entered in the last two spaces in the lower right-hand portion of the chart. In the illustration there are 54 ratings with a total score of 61. The average worth of a rating in this group is the quotient obtained by dividing the number of ratings (54) into the total score (61). In this case the

quotient is 1.13. We call this the teacher's index number on the chart. In this instance the teacher's index number is 1.13. The degree of efficiency obtained by this teacher is the ratio of her index number to the average worth of a rating for the school at the ability level equal to the median ability of her group. The median ability of her group as determined in the extreme right-hand column of the chart is 80–84.5 and according to the scale the average worth of a rating at this ability level is 1.65. The teacher's efficiency will then equal the ratio between 1.13 (the teacher's index number on the chart) and 1.65 (the average worth of all ratings for the school at this level). This ratio is 0.68. The conclusion is that this teacher's results are below the average for the school.

It has already been said that the purpose of trying to determine teaching efficiency is to improve teaching efficiency. When teachers understand this, and know that comparisons are based on tangible evidence, they assume a sympathetic attitude toward the plan.

The chart undertakes to do one other important thing. In studying our scale we discover that the average worth of a rating becomes 1 or a D rating at about ability level 55–59.5. It reaches a midway point between 1 and 2 (D and C) at ability level 75–79.5. It becomes 2 (a C rating) at 95–99.5. It reaches a point midway between 2 and 3 (C and B) at ability level 120–124.5 and becomes 3 (a B rating) at ability level 140. By connecting these points on the chart we get a broken line that automatically locates the diagnostic cases for the teacher. Every pupil located on the left side of the line is doing work below the average for the school at his ability level. Naturally the first effort of the teacher to improve her efficiency will be to get more of these pupils across the line.

TEACHER EFFICIENCY CHART

Subject _____ Teacher _____ Date _____

Ability Index	E rating	D	C	B	A	Total
Under 50	•					1
50–54.5	• • •	• •				5
55–59.5	•					1
60–64.5						0
65–69.5	• • •	• •	•			6
70–74.5	• •	•	•			4
75–79.5		•	• • •			5
80–84.5		•	• •	•		6
85–89.5	•	• •	• •			6
90–94.5	•		•			2
95–99.5	•		• •			4
100–104.5	• • •	• •	• •	• •		9
105–109.5		• •		•		3
110–114.5	•					1
115–119.5						0
120–124.5					•	1
125–129.5						0
130–134.5						0
135–139.5						0
140 & over						0
Total	17	19	13	4	1	54
Score	0	19	26	12	4	61

Group Median 80–84.5

Norm for median 1.65

Teacher's Index No. ..... 1.13 (61 ÷ 54)

Teacher's Efficiency ..... .68 (1.13 ÷ 1.65)

A study of the diagnostic cases reveals many things to the teacher. Health, domestic troubles, social functions, athletics, too heavy program, poor preparation, irregular attendance, pupil's ability overrated, these are frequently found to be the cause of the pupil's low rating on the chart.

Special assignments, repeated checking, encouraging the pupil, home cooperation, showing pupils how to study, these are some of the remedial measures reported by teachers.

The Teacher Operates the Chart

It is evident by this time that the efficiency of the chart depends on the reliability of the pupil ability indexes and the academic ratings given by the teacher. The teacher operates the chart. The very act of distributing her pupil ratings is informing to her. She has all the information before it reaches the principal's desk and in most cases will have given some attention to remedial measures before the principal has an opportunity to interview her.

The chart creates a legitimate situation in which the teacher and principal may sit down and talk about pupil welfare in terms of teacher activity.

In conclusion, this article is written at the request of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which committee the writer is a member. It is submitted not at all in the spirit of finality, but rather to direct attention to certain fundamental principles in pupil and teacher rating which at present do not seem to be recognized in the plans of teacher rating now in use.

A total expenditure of $161,101,809 for public education in 1928 is authorized under the budget adopted by the board of education of New York City. Included in this amount is $35,000,000 for building and $14,000,000 for increase of teachers' salaries made possible by the State aid grant.

Wide Variation of Practice in Matter of Sick Leave

Half the Large Cities Allow 10 Days Annually with Pay. In Many Places Deductions are Made to Pay Substitutes. Some Superintendents May Extend Scheduled Period in Meritorious Cases

By JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS, M. D.
Chief, Division of Physical Education and School Hygiene, Bureau of Education

IN NO DETAIL of school administration is there such variety and such extremes of practice as in the matter of sick leave. On the one hand is a niggardliness or negligence which makes no provision whatsoever beyond filling the teacher's place with a substitute whom the absent worker more than pays for out of her salary, and, on the other hand, leave allowed may be fairly unlimited without deductions from salary. There are leaves at full pay, leaves at two-thirds pay, one-half pay, and one-third pay; there are allowances at full pay for a certain number of days and half pay afterwards; there is full pay for 2 days, full pay for 3 days, 5 days, 10 days, 15 days, 20 days, 30 days, 60 days; there is full pay less $1, less $2, less $2.50, less $3. There are limitations and no limitations as to time, and there are cumulative plans.

Few Small Cities Allow Full Pay

Of 163 cities of more than 30,000 population reporting to the bureau, about one-half allow at least 10 days' leave annually at full pay, and two-thirds allow at least 5 days. Nine of these cities grant 20 days or more at full pay. A comparison of these statistics with those of Englehardt and Baxter, which include the practices of cities from 8,000 population up, indicate that very few of the cities under 30,000 allow 10 days' leave at full pay, and not many allow 5 days.

It might be said in passing that the regulations in regard to sick leave in many school systems are so long and involved that they cover pages. If their purpose is to inhibit, by their formidable wording, the use of such leave, they are a great success. On the other hand, many schools are direct in language and liberal in including in the leave granted at full pay absence on account of serious illness or death in the family, quarantine, attendance at a wedding, etc. Whether the teacher's own or some other's wedding is not specified.

It might be argued—and doubtless many school authorities so consider the matter—that the teacher should look after herself and pay her own way in case of illness. If the teacher were responsible for her sickness it would be poor policy to grant her leave with pay; but it is evident that the majority of schools are going on the principle that the teacher is doing the best she can to care for her health and (what is not always true) that her illness was unavoidable. At any rate, it seems better to include all than to try to single out and punish those who deserve to be punished for their sins of omission or commission. Although school conditions have comparatively little to do with the sickness of the teacher and although half of the ailments of teachers are doubtless preventable, nevertheless the school is partly responsible in not doing better in early training in hygiene. The remainder of our illnesses are due largely to the general ignorance of society as to how to abolish the "diseases of childhood," which cripple us in later life, and influenza, colds, cancer, rheumatism, heart disease, etc.

Sickness is Ordinarily Brief

As for the principle involved in the various schemes of sick leave, doubtless it was figured roughly by their originators that the usual sickness will not last more than a certain number of days. It may also have occurred to the minds of some who were vigorous specimens of business executives that sickness ought not to last longer, and by setting a limit the sick teacher would not overstay her time. The addition of part pay after this period makes some allowance for those that would rather lose a few dollars than return to work so soon.

The average number of days of absence of all teachers on account of sickness is only about three and a half days, and in no case which has come to our notice does the average exceed seven days. Not all teachers are ill every year, and some are never sick, though few escape a more or less prolonged illness sooner or later. The average yearly absence of those who are ill is in the neighborhood of seven or eight days.

Two-thirds of the single women who were absent from the Springfield (Mass.) schools, 1922–23 (27.78 per cent of all teachers were sick) were out for only one day or less. Of the 78.70 per cent of Cleveland women teachers absent on account of sickness, 1917–1922, about a third were away for this brief period. Teachers absent for one day without pay lose comparatively little, and it might be argued that it would be well to make no allowance of leave for these brief absences, and this has been the policy in some schools. The privilege of a day's absence with pay is doubtless sometimes abused. Most young women hope and expect to teach only a short time, and doubtless a large percentage of these short absences are the result of social dissipation, for regard for her physical preparedness for professional duties can hardly in the nature of things (or of such young women) be expected to stand before her perfectly legitimate aspirations toward marriage and the establishment of a home.

Timely Rest May Prevent Illness

Even taking these things into account, it is good policy to offer leave for short absence, for a stitch in time saves nine, and lack of timely rest in bed may result in a long illness, and it is the long absences that count against the exchequer of the school when these are compensated. They count against the school, but they count also against the individual. Long illnesses may be unavoidable and are sometimes of professional origin, particularly conditions due to wear and tear of the nervous system. The tendency for illnesses to become longer advances with the increasing age of the teacher, especially after the first 10 years of teaching. After the earliest years the very brief absences are likely to grow less frequent as the teacher becomes adjusted to her work and has settled down to the prospect of making teaching her life business.

Oldest Teachers Naturally Sick Most

It is evident from the statistics we have that a flat allowance of 10 days' leave is insufficient to cover the absence of about 10 per cent of women teachers, and that of many men who are sick, although the longer illnesses are more likely to come to the teachers who are more experienced and more valuable to the school. Moreover, after the year is up the flat allowance is lost and under the circumstances it would be not more than human nature for a few teachers to make use of some of this time while it is passing, although in no need for the absence from duty.

It is undoubtedly with the idea in mind of providing for increased length of illness in later life and also of rewarding the teacher for length of service that the method of cumulative allowance was

adopted. In this country the schools using this method can be counted on the fingers of one hand. A good example of this plan is that of Denver, where the sick leave begins at 5 days and is cumulative in the same amount annually up to 60 days in the twelfth year of service. In New York City sick leave, though not cumulative, is increased at three-year periods beginning at 20 days in the first three years of service, 10 days being added every three years until the maximum of 60 days is reached at the fifteenth year of service. In the earlier years, however, "the superintendent of schools may, in his discretion, and where the cases are deserving ones, extend to not more than 60 days the 20-day period allowance."

Cumulative Allowance Originated in England

The method of cumulative allowance is used on a very liberal scale by some of the insurance companies and possibly by other business institutions. It no doubt originated in England.

The practices in regard to allowances for sick leave in English schools, though varying considerably, are not so diverse as in the United States, and on the whole are much more liberal, though it must be taken into account that the English teacher serves a longer year.

Forty-four out of seventy-seven county borough authorities allow a month or more of leave at full pay in the first year of service, usually with as much more leave at half pay. Thirty-two increase the sickness allowance often to 60 days and some to three months, with half pay for a like period, and 9 of the 77 have true cumulative schemes.

There is much to be said for the inclusion in the regulations (as in that of New York City) of a special provision whereby the superintendent can extend in the early years of the teacher's services the absence of deserving cases beyond the period stated, the absence being charged against future allowance of leave.

No Scheme Can Fit Every Case

So far we have not explained the reason for the multiplicity of schemes (97 for 332 cities) for the granting of sick leave, though this may have been evident to the reader. It is the fact that the length of illness is so extremely variable that no conceivable scale of days, cumulative or noncumulative, can be made to fit. The problem can, however, be solved with ease and in a sentence, although few school authorities would be likely to adopt this simple method of dealing with the matter. The solution would be to grant leave as needed in all cases until the teacher is able to resume her duties or until it is evident that she must pursue another calling, considering each case on its merits. From the statistics that we have, not one case of illness in a thousand among teachers is of a year's duration; so the prospect is not so alarming to the school authority as it might seem. This plan seems to us both ideal and practical. However, as the "next best thing" a cumulative scheme has the advantage of giving the teacher an encouraging outlook for sickness allowance as time goes on.

Protection in Wisely Selecting Teachers

It would seem that every school system would exercise proper judgment in protecting itself against loss by sick leave by (a) exercising a reasonable selection of material for its training schools, if it has them; (b) by furnishing practical schooling in hygiene during the years of training and with the understanding that good health will be considered in the selection for vacancies. In some training schools this latter regulation is in effect without previous selecting, or knowledge of this custom on the part of the pupil.

The pupil should be accepted only on condition that such organic or functional defects as decayed teeth, serious defects of vision, painful feet, constipation, or other hampering conditions, about which there can be no question of harm, are removed by a given time.

The teacher should be examined before employment by a physician responsible only to the school and be rejected or placed on probation for good physical reasons. The medical service of the school should be of the highest order and should exist for constructive purposes rather than for mere finding of physical faults. The teacher should be made to understand this and to desire rather than shun annual examinations or consultations. At the same time the teacher should be made to feel that she is under observation for glaring inconsistences of conduct which may affect her health.

A physician's certificate should be required in all cases of illness of more than two days' duration; they should be reported to the medical officer, and the teacher should not be allowed to return to duty until in his opinion she is in condition for work.

Reduce Nervous Wear and Tear

The sanitary conditions of the school should be carefully supervised and the teacher should be held to her part in this work. The nervous wear and tear to which the teacher is especially subject should be reduced to a minimum by thoughtful and helpful consideration on the part of superiors. The human machine works best when oiled with appreciation and carefully directed in its task.

Lastly, the teacher on admission—and, better, annually at a general teachers' meeting—should be fully informed as to the school regulations as to sick leave and as to its purpose; she should be informed that it is of the nature of an insurance which she should try to maintain by her own efforts, but given to understand that its allowance is based on the belief that the teacher will place her profession and, therefore, her health first. It should be explained also that the medical service of the school is a private and confidential service intended for her welfare and not as a means of detecting her shortcomings.

In a word, the whole scheme of sick leave and medical work should exalt the mental and physical health of the teacher as it has never been exalted. The superintendent's salutation, "How do you do!" should be genuine, for the teacher does her best only when she is at her best.

French Influence in Paraguay Is Increasing

From a conversation with the French chargé d'affaires, M. Georges Perrot, it is learned that there is a project of establishing and maintaining a local French school.

M. Perrot informs me that this will be done some time in the early part of next year. The location, which has been decided upon, is well chosen in the central district of the city and negotiations are now in progress with the educational authorities.

During the past year many books and pamphlets have been given to the Paraguayan National University by the French Legation, most of them coming from governmental sources, French schools, and a few from individuals. During a recent visit to the university I took occasion to inspect the library, finding it to be composed very largely of works of the French.

In private conversation, the rector of the university stated that he had concluded an agreement with the French chargé whereby a number of French professors will visit the University of Paraguay during the coming year, delivering lectures to the students; thus enabling his university to obtain advantages equal to those of the University of Buenos Aires. The French chargé d'affaires had arranged this opportunity without cost to the university or to the Paraguayan Government. Such efforts produce favorable impressions that are not just for the moment, but continue from year to year with added force.—*Geo. L. Kreeck, American Minister, Asuncion, Paraguay.*

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· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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OCTOBER, 1927

Unjust Criticism May Affect National Prestige

WHOLESOME CRITICISM is the best possible method of stimulating improvement. Americans have always been severe in their comments upon features of their own institutions which they have sought to improve. Some of the most entertaining specimens of refreshing candor in all of educational literature may be found in the early reports of the acting school visitors of New England. One who compares the strictures in those productions with the fulsome praise with which the school officers of some other sections were accustomed to describe their own schools might conclude that the schools criticised were distinctly inferior to the other schools. But that was far from the truth. Impatience with faults was a habit of mind in one instance just as complacency because of good features was a habit of mind in the other. Strangers can not always know what is under the surface, however, and they are likely to be misled by statements that are intended solely for home consumption.

This fact was strikingly illustrated by the reaction of certain European writers to a severe criticism of American secondary education which was recently published under the auspices of an American foundation. A correspondent in a widely read English periodical wrote in relation to it:

> Perhaps we have not been quite honest to American educationists. We have flattered them in a thousand books and articles and reports; we have sent observers there in large numbers and have published their impressions; we have quoted their statistics and praised their financial boldness; we have imitated their experiments, but in private we have related stories that illustrated a darker side. Perhaps some of these are malicious inventions, yet the American critic puts the defects of American higher education in such terms as to suggest that they might easily be true.

Following sentences state very definitely the belief that the American writer deliberately contrasts American education at its worst with European education at its best; nevertheless the whole tone of the English article indicates that expressions of American dissatisfaction with American education have sunk deep in the minds of the Englishmen. One may easily imagine that the fund of "stories related in private that illustrate a darker side" is measurably increased.

The most unfortunate result of such unrestrained criticism by our own people is its effect in countries which are accustomed to value our methods of education and to send their young men here to be educated. Deliberately to exaggerate the faults of our own institutions and to idealize institutions elsewhere and to praise them inordinately may stimulate inquiry and may tend to improvement. But in the meantime it is inevitable that if such expressions find lodgment and general acceptance in foreign minds the standing of American institutions in the eyes of the world will suffer serious injury, and our national prestige will be correspondingly affected.

Place of Rhodes Scholars in American Affairs

CAN SUCCESS or failure in life be predicted for an individual on the promise of his youth? Can prominence in national affairs be assured by any prescribed course of training?

Such questions as these have been suggested by the recent discussion of the influence exerted in America by the Rhodes scholars, which was precipitated by a statement made by Prof. J. O. Beaty, an Albert Kahn fellow, in a report of his travels made to the Kahn Foundation. Professor Beaty claims to describe a conversation he had with Rt. Hon. Herbert A. L. Fisher, warden of New College, Oxford, and one of the trustees of the Rhodes Fund, while both were guests of Mr. Albert Kahn in his villa at Cap Martin in the French Riviera. In the paragraph devoted to that conversation 10 typewritten lines were given to Mr. Fisher's views and 11 to those of Professor Beaty. The significant portion is this:

> He spoke of the problem of investing the funds and of the new plan for choosing Rhodes scholars, a plan which will avoid the necessity of giving two scholarships alike to a State with 10,000,000 people and a State with fewer than 100,000 people. He said that the scholars had taken a remarkably high standing on their examinations, that in character they had been admirable, but that they were a failure in that they had not become prominent in America after their return. He said that only one (President Aydelotte, of Swarthmore) was a truly international figure, whereas according to the dream of Mr. Rhodes, the ex-Rhodes scholars would now be "running" the country.

Professor Beaty's report was given to the press and this part of it was widely published. It excited general comment. Mr. Fisher's attention was called to it and he promptly denied the utterances ascribed to him. He wrote a letter of contradiction to the London Times, and sent the following to an American inquirer, written by his own hand:

> The Warden's Lodgings,
> *New College, Oxford, July 10, 1927.*
>
> Dear Sir: I have never at any time published nor have I authorized the publication of any statement with regard to the Rhodes scholars.
>
> I am extremely annoyed by the paragraphs which appear to have been printed in various papers in the U. S. A. They have not my authority and so far as I can see they represent opinions almost exactly the reverse of those which I hold. I have written a contradiction to the London Times but this perhaps may not have been copied on your side of the water.
>
> Yours truly,
>
> H. A. L. Fisher.

Such an explicit denial put an end to the matter, so far as Mr. Fisher is concerned, without further ado.

In the meantime, however, the examination into the standing of the Rhodes scholars, which the discussion provoked, brought out facts that were altogether favorable to the scholars. About 550 of them are now living. The oldest are still young men—in their forties—and the average age is 34.5 years. Nevertheless, the number who have attained distinction is remarkably large and all are men of honorable standing. Two-thirds of them are teaching or practicing law. Ten per cent are in business, and a variety of occupations claim the rest. Two are college presidents, many are eminent physicians, and more are successful lawyers. Six are in administration and Government service, one of them being United States Commissioner of Education. Fifty-four have reached sufficient prominence to be in Who's Who. Judged by any measure the showing must be considered creditable.

In view of the standards adopted in selecting these men it would be remarkable if the proportion of successfulness among them were not high. This is the process: The authorities of each college in the United States may name every year from two to five candidates who are preeminent above their fellows in (1) literary and scholastic ability; (2) qualities of manhood, character, public spirit, and leadership; and (3) physical vigor. A committee of selection in each State chooses from the candidates so presented two men to represent that State. In so doing they make rigorous inquiry into the personal and academic records of the candidates and summon to a personal interview those whom they consider favorably. Unless candidates of exceptional

merit are presented no appointment is made from that State, and scholars at large may be appointed from another State instead. A scholarship is tenable three years at Oxford University and carries with it a stipend of £400 a year. Thirty-two scholars are appointed each year.

Even if men so carefully chosen did not receive any formal instruction after their selection they would be expected to reach high station because of the qualities which led to their selection, and because of the training which they previously received. If after three years additional in an ancient and renowned university they are unable to do more than men less favored, then no confidence can be placed in early promise or in academic training, even of the most approved type.

Concerning Some Characteristics of Our Secondary Schools

THE AMERICAN IDEAL of secondary education for everybody is fast developing. Evidences of its progress are unmistakable. So rapid has been its growth and so astounding have been the demands that have attended it that serious problems have arisen to tax the wisdom of school authorities to the utmost. No sane man can claim that all those problems have been met in a way that is satisfactory to anybody.

No nation of Europe has been called upon to meet such problems. Accustomed for centuries to social conditions that denied to all but a select class the right to more than elementary education, it is accepted as a normal condition there that only about 5 per cent of all students proceed to higher institutions. For the schools maintained for this select few an orderly procedure as to subjects and methods has developed in the generations that have passed. Traditions of teaching and preparation for teaching have grown up as a matter of course.

Our own system of secondary education, on the contrary, is essentially the growth of the past half century. The present widespread recognition of the benefits of high schools, together with the popular wish to support them upon an unprecedented scale, has been manifested only within the past few years. So suddenly has this change come that tradition has largely been swept aside. New subjects have been introduced into the course in response to insistent demand, and some teachers have been employed who lacked maturity and full breadth of scholarship, because not enough of seasoned material is to be had. The immediate effect of this may have been to lower the standards of the past. That effect in the nature of things, however, will surely be corrected in the fullness of time, for none can deny to American school men a reasonable degree of intelligence.

Certain of the faults charged to our secondary education are not faults in view of the temper and customs of our people, and they are supported by pedagogical reasoning which is well founded and fully entitled to respectful consideration.

The extensive use of textbooks in instruction as opposed to the European method of oral teaching and the relatively large number of teachers encountered by the pupils may be mentioned among these.

In both practices the American procedure may be considered fixed and he who objects is likely to have his trouble for his pains. Our textbooks are productions of our best teachers and although no well-trained teacher feels that he must slavishly follow the book either for content or method, none feels it necessary to expend his energy in duplicating the collection and organization of material which has been done for him by the luminaries of his profession. For the pupil the habit of gaining knowledge from the printed page as well as by word of mouth is in accord with the normal progress of civilization. We are not living in the Middle Ages.

An able school superintendent of a midwestern city, a German-American, once undertook to establish the plan of "promoting the teacher with the class" so that the same person taught each class three years in succession. It did not last; the objections were too many. The number of years that a teacher may remain with the same pupils is with us a practical question which depends largely upon organization and convenience. In the school of life one learns from many persons; he does not consider a single individual as his fount of all knowledge. Long and intimate acquaintance is not essential to the communication of ideas.

Granting freely that the personality of a strong and scholarly teacher has a powerful influence in shaping the character and habits of thought of his pupils, and that continued association with such men is greatly to be desired, the unfortunate fact remains that neither in America nor in Europe are all teachers of that type. Little short of tragic is the fate of a class upon whom the ministrations of a mediocre or incompetent teacher are fastened for an indefinite period. The American practice in this respect has marked advantages which are not to be disregarded.

The size of our high schools is sometimes cited as evidence of serious weakness and the schools of New York City are mentioned as horrible examples. In the tremendously congested area which constitutes greater New York extraordinary conditions prevail in all that relates to housing of any description. Single office buildings and single apartment houses accommodate enough people to populate a small city. Elementary school buildings provide from 2,000 to 3,000 sittings, and one high-school building, Erasmus Hall, accommodates nearly 5,000 students. Several others have capacity in excess of 3,000. De Witt Clinton High School reports an enrollment of 8,611 students, but they are housed in six buildings.

Other great cities must provide for congested population, but in none of them is the condition so acute as in New York. These cities are anomalous and they do not represent the country as a whole. Of 18,157 high schools whose enrollment for 1925–26 was reported to the Bureau of Education, 16,300 schools had fewer than 500 students each; only about 10 per cent of the whole number had more. Furthermore, 10,999 schools unfortunately had fewer than 100 students each, and the average enrollment for all the schools reported was about 206. Criticism directed to American high schools because of their great size seems to be without just foundation, therefore, even if it be granted that the great high schools are below the small ones in efficiency—which can scarcely be proved.

All these considerations are set forth, not because they are specially novel but because they are sometimes unaccountably overlooked.

Daily Paper is Textbook for Foreigners

A newspaper for each pupil is provided in the English class of Evening School 57, Buffalo, N. Y., which is attended by foreign-speaking men and women. Classes are first drilled in the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar words in articles chosen in advance for silent reading, and afterwards are questioned on understanding of the content. To aid in the acquisition of good English, articles on health and sanitation are read and simple rules of cleanliness are discussed. Display advertisements assist in developing a vocabulary, and classified advertising pages and other departments of the paper are effectively utilized.

Of students graduating from Classical High School, Lynn, Mass., during the past 10 years, about 90 per cent entered higher institutions. Graduates of the school are now represented in 25 institutions of collegiate or university grade.

The School Journey as a Visual Aid

Employed in Pennsylvania as a Valuable Form of Visual Instruction. Wealth of Material for Concrete Teaching Available, and Needs Only to be Recognized. Teacher Becomes Counselor and Guide; the Child is the Active Agent. Natural Phenomena are Seen in Their Natural Setting and Industries are Studied in Actual Practice. Such Instruction Common in Early Days

By C. F. HOBAN

Director of Visual Education, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction

PENNSYLVANIA'S plan for visual education is based on the need of visual devices for instruction and the necessity of teachers knowing when and how to use them intelligently. The plan aims to focus the attention of the State's 55,000 teachers on the meaning and significance of visual education; on the psychology underlying visual instruction; on the philosophy behind the department of public instruction's plan; on the different types of visual aids—their value, their sources, their effective use in the classroom, and their contribution to better teaching.

In order to simplify an evaluation and study of the different types of visual materials, they have been assembled as follows: (1) Apparatus and equipment; (2) school journey; (3) object, specimen, model; (4) pictorial material; (5) miscellaneous aids.

Of all the types of visual aids the school journey is one of the most important and valuable. The school journey, field trip, or school excursion, as it is variously termed, brings the children into direct contact with objects of knowledge and hence gives opportunity for initial correct concepts. The school journey must be regarded as a major visual aid because it: (1) Effects an economy in time in teaching; (2) enriches and vitalizes instruction; (3) develops, from the beginning, correct concepts.

Cost of School Journey is Small

Of prime importance, in a consideration of the school journey, is the fact that it makes available to teachers a wealth of concrete material without cost, or at very little cost, to the school district.

It is charged against American teachers that their method is too largely of the lecture and textbook type; that children associate, to too great an extent, the four walls of the class room, school book, and desk with the act of learning, whereas they should be ready to learn from the world at large. The child needs to know the world in which he lives. He should be introduced to it early and encouraged to solve its mysteries. The school journey provides an avenue.

The consensus of opinion among educators is that the new or revised curriculum should be more sociological and less pedagogical. There is a pronounced feeling that the school has been too remote an institution; that there should be a closer blend between school life and the world. The tendency to-day is to organize school activities around life situations. The school journey is a valuable medium in this scheme.

Teachers Do Not Know the Technique

Though highly valuable, the school journey is but too rarely used. Perhaps the reason is that teachers do not know school-journey technique. They too often fail to see the material which is close at hand, and, possibly, have failed in their teacher preparation to learn how to use it in instruction.

If we follow the history of education we find that the use of the school journey is of ancient lineage. Pestalozzi and Rousseau utilized it in teaching. Their influence is reflected in the early educational development of Pennsylvania. William Penn was an exponent of visual instruction. He was a believer in the value of observation and in learning to do by doing. Franklin also was a visual educationist. He was the first American cartoonist and advocated journeys to neighboring plantations, that "the methods of farmers might be observed and reasoned upon." This type of instruction was common in the early days.

An Important Practice in Europe

To-day school journey work is one of the important practices in the schools of Germany, France, and other European countries. England subsidizes this type of work because of its value to the children. America has not sustained its early appreciation of the importance of the school journey. Although used in the earlier days, there seems to have been a departure from the practice. Two factors have contributed to this: First, the rapid development of printing; and

Reciting the Gettysburg Address at the spot where Lincoln uttered it

Portions of address before the National Academy of Visual Instruction, Chapel Hill, N. C., April 26, 1927.

second, the increase in the number of subjects in the curriculum. Both have brought a multiplicity of textbooks. The use of objective material in teaching requires preparation and careful planning. The textbook is always convenient. Too often the line of least resistance has been followed. As a consequence, there has developed a correspondingly wider teacher dependence upon textbooks for lesson material. The result of this is obvious to any educator.

A science class at the home of Joseph Priestly, discoverer of oxygen, at Northumberland, Pa.

Dependence upon textbooks involves very largely upon the part of the pupil the acquisition of knowledge by means of the printed page. Many teachers fail to appreciate the fact that printed and oral words are not ideas. Before words can mean anything they must be translated into mental images. Many here, if not all, can testify to the fact that the printed page and the verbal expression types of teaching have frequently resulted in inadequate and inaccurate concepts.

Journey is a Cooperative Enterprise

A strong recommendation for school-journey practice is the fact that it is a cooperative enterprise. Teacher and children join in the project. The child is the active agent; the teacher, the wise counselor and skillful guide. Through the teacher's generalship, initiative can be stimulated, powers of self-dependence cultivated, and this type of instructional aid made an effective tool in achieving the objectives for which school work is intended.

Among the advantages claimed for the school journey are the following: (1) Shows natural phenomena in their proper settings; (2) tends to blend school life with world situations—puts children into direct touch, under learning situations, with things, persons, movements, relationships, environments, occupations, tendencies, trends, functionings; (3) stimulates interest in natural as well as man-made things and situations and enables students to know intimately their environment; (4) involves the consideration and solution of problems arising from individual and group participations in natural social situations; (5) affords opportunities to develop keenness and accuracy of observation and to experience the joy of discovery; (6) sets up a challenge to solve and thus stimulates constructive, creative thinking; (7) helps children to organize their knowledge; (8) develops initiative and self-activity—makes pupils active agents rather than passive recipients; (9) provides helpful practices and thereby cultivates the habit of spending leisure time profitably; (10) serves to arouse ambitions and determine aims.

Among the definite purposes for which school journeys or field trips may be conducted are: (1) To serve as a preview of a lesson and for gathering instructional materials; (2) to create teaching situations for cultivating observation, keenness, discovery—to encourage children to see and know the things about them; (3) to serve as a means of arousing specific interests—as in birds, trees, art, history; (4) to supplement classroom instruction; to secure definite information; for a specific lesson as in arithmetic, civics, geography, literature; (5) to verify previous information, class discussions and conclusions, or individual experiments.

Preliminary Survey is Essential

In planning school journey or field lesson procedure a first essential is to make a survey of the immediate and neighboring surroundings to: (1) List all available materials; (2) familiarize teachers with their location and avenues of approach and the special features and purposes they will serve.

This will require several exploratory expeditions. Teachers find survey work wonderfully interesting. New material is a matter of constant discovery. When a survey is made by a supervisory official and the teaching corps, it becomes an ideal educational project. The staff is divided into groups. Each group selects its leader and becomes responsible for a cer-

A geography lesson in the Philadelphia Commercial Museum

tain area. Reports are made by these groups at teachers' meetings and the composite report furnishes the necessary data for the entire school district.

The number of journeys will depend upon the importance of materials and their relationship to the curriculum. Lessons on or near the school plant can be conducted in the regular recitation period; those within easy access of the school, after school, or the last period of the morning or afternoon; if at some distance, on a Saturday morning or holiday. Some journeys require an entire day. Proper arrangements should be made with the school authorities. For trips to museums, public buildings, industries, it will be necessary to make arrangements for guides, vehicles, etc.

Natural Environment Aids Instruction

A general fault in present-day teaching is that too much of it is abstract rather than concrete. The weakness of printed material is that it is abstract. We need the natural environment, the true setting, the object, the specimen, the model, or a picture to give concreteness to the idea. These help us to understand better. Teachers no longer believe they can teach history as effectively from the pages of a textbook as when they take pupils to the shrines, the museum, the milestones—into the atmosphere in which history was made. The most effective way to teach civics is through participation in social enterprises.

Art instruction should not be confined to the classroom alone. The objectives of art can be the more readily realized through visits to churches, galleries, scenic spots, specimens of landscaping and beautiful architecture, model buildings and homes, artistic windows where clothing, home furnishings, etc., are displayed.

Make Teaching Concrete, Not Abstract

Can a valley be as effectually taught from the printed page as from an eminence where pupils can view a real valley and come in direct touch with life situations as they function there? The words of the textbook describe building stones, minerals, etc., but a visit to quarry and mine, or specimens of marble, granite, brick, limestone, iron, lead, zinc, and other ores, which the pupils may handle—supplemented with pictures of the processes by which they are made into shelter materials or useful commodities—concretize the instruction and contribute the vital element that makes the study interesting.

Literature will be enriched and the desire to read stimulated through literary rambles. Nature poetry should be read in the presence of nature—the tree, the flower, the scene, the thing described. Visits to homes of authors, to their resting places, and to the spots that inspired their writings, will give added interest. Book shops and libraries, where manuscripts and rare books may be seen, are also helpful avenues.

Music, like literature, deals much with nature—birds, flowers, trees, mountains, and streams. A visit to these and to the home and workshop of the composer gives the student an understanding of the setting of musical productions. Attendance at musical renditions, where the leader communicates his feelings and ideals to his orchestra, and the members in turn give expression to this through their instruments; or where an artist interprets a vocal or instrumental composition, enables one to appreciate, through the combination of eye and ear, the beauties and meanings of music.

Mathematics will be vitalized through outdoor lessons that involve practical measurements, and through motivated, concrete problems rather than abstract computations. Arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, and surveying offer rare opportunities for field work.

Indispensable to Nature Study

The school journey is indispensable to effective work in nature study and science. These subjects need visits to museums, zoological parks, botanical gardens, examples of structural engineering, chemical and other manufacturing plants, telephone buildings, electrical works, radio stations, and airplane fields. Botanical and astronomical rambles develop nature lovers.

The school journey offers a rich field for vocational education. Commercial subjects will be made practical through visits to office buildings, public enterprises, transportation departments, institutions, industries, etc.—places where commercial activities may be seen and studied first-hand. Industrial and agricultural classes will profit by visits to mining enterprises, farms, manufacturing plants—places where the mechanic, the artisan, the operator, and the expert may be seen at work.

Less than four-year high schools in Wyoming will be accredited by the State department of education and will receive State aid if buildings and equipment are up to standard, if the required number of teachers is employed, if they possess the full educational qualifications demanded by State law, and if a definite program of studies is adopted by the local board, and if the school is prepared to give it in a satisfactory manner.

Admission to Czechoslovak Secondary Schools

At the conclusion of this school year a new modus in admitting pupils to secondary schools will be introduced as an experiment by the Czechoslovak Ministry of Education. The pupils will be admitted on completion of the IV or V grade of an elementary school on basis of the frequency certificate (a school record) and a "personal leaf."

The personal leaf is a descriptive document of the concerned pupil describing his elementary-school career, which will contain notes on physical growth of the pupil, on his health, a psychogram of his capabilities, character, special inclinations, and interests. The judgment of the teacher on the ability of the pupil to pursue secondary studies the leaf will contain, too. The personal leaf is an official intimate document and it will, therefore, not be given to parent nor to pupil.

A special admission committee of professors will inquire in these personal leaves and certificates of all pupils. The committee will decide who of the pupils may be admitted after a short "information examination" (a short writing exercise or a short interview with the pupil) and who must make an exact examination based on the language of instruction (spelling and writing the contents of a short article), and mathematics. The personal leaf will be completed and controlled during secondary schooling of the pupil.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

Graduates of Agricultural Schools Practice Agriculture

Approximately 75 per cent of all graduates of State agricultural schools in New York are known to be engaged in farming or related occupations, according to a recent survey, results of which have been summarized by the State department of education. This is exclusive of short term and special students who attended school for less than the three-year curriculum. Ten and five-tenths per cent of the graduates are known to be engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, and a number have died. It is estimated that, if information were available concerning those whose occupation is not known, it would be found that of the nearly 2,000 graduates of State agricultural schools, about 83 per cent are at present following agricultural pursuits.

Two half days a week are allowed teachers to visit homes or places of employment of pupils attending part-time schools in Jackson, Mich.

Admission to Professional Courses in Physical Training

Report of Committee on Entrance Requirements, Made to Second Conference of Institutions Giving Professional Training in Physical Education. Raise Physical Education Profession to a Leading Place in Teaching Field

BECAUSE of the highly specialized nature of the present physical education program it seems impossible for the average student to complete in the usual four years of college work all of the academic, scientific, and professional theory and practice work that are essential before a sufficient skill and power can be developed to justify undertaking to teach in this very important field.

In view of this fact it seems essential that rather definite and rigid requirements be established for entrance to and continuance in professional training courses for physical education. If such provision is not made, it will be impossible for the products of such professional courses to maintain a position in the teaching profession on a par with teachers of other subjects.

One of the most justifiable criticisms of the physical-education teaching profession during the past has been based upon the relatively poor academic preparation required. This has given the physical-education teacher a lower standing professionally than he should have had. In order to place the physical-education profession in a leading place in the teaching field, it is necessary that its representatives be leaders academically and scholastically. They must also be leaders in the field of applied natural sciences. They must be even more strikingly leaders in the field of professional pedagogy, since theirs is the most difficult subject to sell and to teach. Finally, they must be leaders as demonstrators of highly skilled activities of almost innumerable types. To achieve such an end, it requires that prospective professional students in physical education for the next generation must come to their professional course with especially good preparation from both the academic and the practical standpoint.

Opposition to Specialized High-School Training

In certain parts of the country there is distinct opposition to the idea of providing specialized training programs in high school. Nevertheless, physical education demands are such that such a prerequisite course seems essential. Such specialization, however, should not be stressed to the detriment of the general cultural high-school program. It might equally well be said that the professional training course in college should not become so highly specialized that it will not compare favorably from the cultural standpoint with other similar teacher-training programs.

In view of these considerations the committee wishes to submit for the consideration of the representatives of professional schools the following recommendations as entrance requirements to all standard professional courses:

I. A preparatory course in high school encouraged and promoted by high-school physical education instructors for those high-school students who seem to them especially fitted for physical-education instruction. In this course special emphasis would be placed on extensive participation in all standard forms of athletic and gymnastic activities. This should be so planned that the student would finish his high-school program highly skilled in the ordinary activities so that his college program could be chiefly one of polishing and refining of skills with chief emphasis upon teaching method in various activities.

Theoretical subjects in such preparatory course would include extensive sciences, such as biology, chemistry, and physics, with special courses in hygiene and health education, first aid, and possibly scouting.

High-School Estimate of Student's Adaptability

II. A written recommendation submitted by the director of the high-school physical education department giving a general estimate of the student's probable adaptability to physical education teaching and a detailed record of participation and of skills.

This record should be submitted preferably on a standard form to be worked out at this conference. The form might provide for such items as record of interscholastic athletic participation, intramural athletic participation, estimate of student's relative skill in neuromuscular activities, estimate of general capacity for leadership, and an estimate of personality and general character. Many other detailed items could well be included.

III. A series of ability and efficiency tests to be given at the time of entrance to the professional course, in an effort to estimate the student's motor ability and rhythmic sense. Such tests would also determine the weakest points in the applicant's activity skills so as to determine the types of activity to be given greatest emphasis during the professional course.

IV. A standard intelligence test or series of tests to determine the student's probable capacity for a high type of academic and professional work.

V. A thorough physical, medical, and health examination at the time of entrance together with a careful follow-up procedure to eliminate all defects or weaknesses and to serve as a basis for a constructive individual health program throughout the professional course.

VI. A probationary period for a minimum of one year during which time the applicant will be given opportunity to demonstrate marked ability in activities and in scholarship together with strong leadership qualities.

The committee feels that such a set of requirements would help to raise the standards of professional courses and, if adopted by all institutions, it will save any one institution from criticism for being too rigid in its requirements. The committee would welcome criticism of any of these points and further suggestions of additional requirements.

BESSIE L. PARK,
HELEN MCKINSTRY,
WM. R. LAPORTE, *Chairman.*

University College for Northeastern England

Hull University College, England, will probably be opened to students in October, 1929. The organization board hope that residential accommodations and ample provision for recreation for 500 students will be ready by that time. The college grounds will comprise 45 acres, and it is announced that the buildings will be of moderate size but sufficient for the probable needs of the next 50 years.

A donation by Rt. Hon. T. R. Ferens of £250,000 ($1,216,625) will provide for the beginning of the institution, but the organization board announce that large additional funds must be procured to assure the success of the undertaking. The college will probably specialize in subjects related to the fishing industry of Hull and Grimsby.

The city of Hull now possesses eight secondary schools, a technical college, a school of art, a nautical school, and a training college, the plants of which are valued at about $10,000,000. The new university college will supplement these institutions. Its attendance will be drawn largely from Hull, the East Riding, and the northern part of Lincolnshire.—*A. E. Carleton, American Consul, Hull.*

Students of Home Economics Must Record Personal Expenditures

Account Books Are Supplied by Home Economics Department of Minneapolis Public Schools, and the Records Are Required as a School Exercise. Encourages Saving and Develops Habit of Thoughtful and Orderly Use of Money. Ability to Keep Accounts is Readily Gained but Formation of Habit Is a Matter of Time

By FRANCES R. KELLEY
Director of Home Economics, Minneapolis, Minn.

PERSONAL and household accounts have always received some attention in the Minneapolis public schools. In one of the junior high schools the arithmetic department made an account book, which was used by the children in the eighth grade to keep a record of their expenditures for two weeks. Home-economics teachers have in the past talked about budgets and accounts, and some theoretical budgets were worked out. A few teachers have had their pupils rule papers and use these forms to keep record of their expenditures. The instruction, however, was not systematic, and little was accomplished.

Seven years ago, however, the home-economics department decided that if we were to have teaching of personal accounts as a part of our course of study we must provide the pupils with ruled cards or account books. We called in the "bank lady," as the children call Miss Livingstone, who originated the banking system in our schools. We hoped that the bank would take over the project and supply us with the necessary books, but they did not see fit to finance it; so with Miss Livingstone's assistance, we decided on the form for a simple account book.

Books Not Appreciated When Free

When the books were first printed they were given to all the girls in the eighth grade and all pupils taking home economics in the high school. It was the old story of something for nothing, and the books were neglected. Since the first year the pupils have purchased their books from the department at cost. You will note that this work was started with 8B girls. In our elementary schools our pupils serve a lunch to the teachers of the building. The cooking periods are more than filled. In the junior high schools the 8B girls take sewing. We thought it was the psychological time to introduce the teaching of personal accounts. These girls are of the age when they are beginning to have keener interest in clothing, desiring more and better clothes. Hence, a motive for keeping a record of their expenditures. The account books used in the high schools are the same as those used in the eighth grade, except that a more elaborate summary is inserted at the back to aid the girls in making their clothing budgets. When the first books were ready for distribution we called in all the home-economics teachers and discussed their use and the methods of presentation. The teachers who had been teaching personal accounts by having each pupil rule her paper welcomed the new books. Some felt that it was an added burden and that they could find no time for it. At present the teaching of personal accounts is successfully carried on by our whole corps of 70 teachers, with but one or two exceptions.

Many Minor Objectives Have Developed

Our major objective has been that every girl who elects home economics from the 8B grade up shall keep a record of her expenditures. A number of minor objectives have developed: First, to form the habit of recording expenditures; second, to show the girls how much money they have handled; third, to encourage the parents to give their daughters an allowance; fourth, to encourage saving; fifth, to form a habit of thoughtful and orderly use of money; sixth, to form the basis for budget work.

The first objective is my hobby—the formation of the habit of recording expenditures. You may think that to require accounts for one year, or even four years if a girl takes home economics in high school, is to require a repetition that is unnecessary after the technique is mastered. From our observation the skill necessary for a girl to be able to record her expenditures is gained in two months, but not the habit of continually remembering what she spent her money for and writing it down. I can not say how long it takes to acquire this habit. Perhaps some girls never acquire it.

Second, to show the girls how much money they handle. In our account work the girls record only the money they spend, not what is spent for them. High-school girls keep a record at the back of their books of the clothing that is purchased for them. For example, if a mother purchased a pair of hose for her junior high daughter, no record is made, but if she gave the daughter the money, or the daughter earned the money, then it is recorded. Most girls have money to spend; even junior high school pupils have money for lunches and car fare. In the past six years I have heard of just one case where the child did not have one cent. Her father even put her pennies in Sunday school for her. I think that father needed to be educated. In junior high the amount handled runs from two to seven dollars per month. When children pay for their music lessons the amounts are greater. A few girls reported they did not wish to show their books to their fathers, as they did not wish to have allowances. When questioned, they were sure they had more money than they would have had if they had had an allowance.

Cooperation of Parents Is Sought

This brings us to our third objective—to encourage the parents to give their daughters an allowance. We always urge the pupils to show their books to their parents, especially to their fathers. When they see what their daughters are doing, they will often cooperate. Among the junior high girls, about 36 per cent have an allowance.

Fourth, to encourage savings. Elementary-school children can not save much, but their accounts show to them that a few pennies saved each week soon become a dollar.

Fifth, to form a habit of thoughtful and orderly use of money. At the end of the month a study of the totals affords a splendid opportunity for comparison and aids in better future distribution of the income. In some buildings budgets are made of school expenditures, which include cost of games, school papers, annuals, gifts, school entertainments, etc. By this means girls know the amount of money they should have for the next year if they plan to

take part in all school activities. Together with the annual summary of monthly expenditures, she has actual expense upon which to base her budget for the next year. To the account keeping of the junior high school, there is added the clothing account record for the senior high. This clothing record is kept during the first year in high school. At the beginning of the year each girl makes an inventory of her clothing. At the end of the year, with this inventory and information obtained from clothing record, she makes a clothing budget for her two years of high school.

Outstanding Methods in Teaching Technique

From a questionnaire answered by the teachers, I have tried to pick out some of the outstanding methods in our teaching technique.

In the elementary schools the pupils come once a week for three hours to the home-economics teachers. During the hour for sewing the account work is given. One teacher keeps at school the books belonging to the 8B girls and has them record their expenditures during class time. They keep these records on slips of paper during the week. She thinks that beginners do more accurate work and develop the habit of neatness by this method. She has the 8A girls record their expenditures at home and bring their books to her once a week for inspection. They are corrected at the end of each month. She is getting good results. Most of the elementary teachers reported a check once a week and grading at the end of the month. In the junior high schools different buildings take care of this work in different ways.

Books Handed in to be Graded

Our junior high schools are all on the hour schedule. Even in foods work some teachers take the first three minutes for the pupils to record their expenditures of the previous day. One teacher reported, "An adult must have a definite time to sit down and record expenditures; why should not children?" In the schools where the children record their expenditures every day the books are handed in once a month to be graded. In other buildings, on the same day each week, the pupils bring in their books and their pocketbooks, or count the money in their pocketbooks, and record it on a slip of paper, which they bring to class. They are given time to look over their books and see if they balance. They are handed in once a month for correction and grading. Most of the teachers have slips printed in the school print shop, "Mistake. See me," signed with the teacher's name. These slips are put into the books when required and returned to the pupils.

One teacher reports that it takes one class period at the beginning of the 8B work to teach the pupils what to do and one period at the end of the first month to show them how to balance their books and record the totals in the summary. In the junior high schools where books are called in once a month the percentage of failure to get books in on time runs a little less than 5 per cent.

Accounts are required of pupils during the Christmas and spring vacations. They are urged to keep them during the summer. If they do, their September grade is raised. For example, a D becomes a C, and C a B, and so on up. One building reports that 50 per cent of the girls kept their accounts during the summer.

Records Made Outside of Class Time

As I have stated, we use the same form in senior high school as in junior high, with the exception of the summary at the back. In senior high we have many pupils from out of the city and from parochial schools. These must be taught how to keep their accounts. Those who come from junior high schools can proceed without any help. The senior high-school teachers with a few exceptions do not take class time for recording expenditures. The minority of teachers use the first two minutes of each period. The majority of teachers urge that pupils select some definite time at home to do this work. One teacher suggested that their books be kept on their desks at home. When they have finished their lessons they record their expenditures for the past day.

One teacher reports that motivation is the most important part of her technique in teaching personal accounts. Another says she motivates it by discussion of the fact that many of the girls will be wage earners, either as future housewives or business women, and consequently should know the use of money and how it should be spent. Of course, no pupil gets credit for the month's work without keeping her accounts. The percentage of credit given differs in various buildings. One building credits the account work the same as one of the tests given during the month. Some wish to consider the account mark as one-tenth of the month's work.

Develops Orderly Habits of Thrift

What do we accomplish by this system of compulsory account keeping? Summarizing the reports from the home economics teachers: A. Skills gained are: (1) Neatness, (2) accuracy, (3) promptness, (4) skill in a simple form of bookkeeping. B. Habits formed: (1) Habit of itemizing their receipts and expenditures as early as possible after the transactions have been made, (2) habit of keeping accounts after leaving school, (3) thrift. C. Abilities gained: (1) Ease in keeping a column of figures automatically and accurately, (2) keener judgment in expenditures. D. Attitudes acquired: (1) Develops an attitude of cooperation with the one who provides the money to spend, develops better family and community spirit by sharing the family income; develops more careful spending; therefore, more careful purchasing leads to an intelligent interest in all needed commodities; (2) attitude of the majority of girls is one of keen interest, advanced high-school pupils show more liking for the keeping of personal accounts than elementary grade pupils; (3) a desire to continue keeping accounts after leaving the home-economics classes because the girls realize the value of it.

One teacher has thus summarized the value of compulsory account keeping: "The habit of giving a second thought to what money has been spent for, and of thinking about it long enough to record it has been formed. Pupils may not continue to record their expenditures on leaving school, but they are equipped to get back into it when the economic pressure demands."

States are Conducting Adult Education

Legislation to promote adult education and citizenship has been enacted in 29 States and the District of Columbia. In 24 States instruction of adult illiterates is conducted under State supervision, and in 13 States full-time supervisors of elementary instruction for adults have been provided, as shown by a study of public education for adults for the years 1924–1926, by L. R. Alderman, specialist in adult education, of the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, published in Bulletin, 1927, No. 18. Classes for the instruction of adult illiterates, native or foreign born, were maintained during 1924–25 with an enrollment of 306,219 persons; and during 1925–26, with an enrollment of 314,640 persons.

State appropriations for education in New York State, including the support of common schools, increased during the past 10 years from $11,554,597 to $83,332,823. The increase for 1927 over the preceding year was $19,312,230. Of this item, according to a statement of the governor, $18,650,000 is "a direct contribution by the State to the localities, to be used for the improvement of educational standards" and to meet normal increase in the number of teachers.

Activities of First Grade Motivated by Puppet Show

Interest of Children Aroused by Construction of Accessories and Preparation for Play Based on Familiar Story. Practically Every Phase of Curriculum Centered About the Project for Six Weeks

By JOSEPHINE BENNETT
Model Teacher, Jamaica Training School, New York City

WE HAD just been promoted together, the children and I. Last term we were the kindergarten class and now we are the kindergarten extension class, which is the term used in the New York public schools to designate a first grade taught by a kindergarten teacher, using kindergarten methods in a room equipped with movable furniture and materials for manual activities. It was during the first few weeks of our kindergarten extension experiences that the idea arose for the puppet show I am about to describe.

The Three Bears were old friends, of course, to children who had been in the kindergarten, and you can imagine their joy to find the first story in the wonderful new books that they were to learn to read was the Three Bears. They could tell that themselves by the pictures.

We dramatized the story, using printed signs to designate which was Father Bear, which was Mother Bear, which Baby Bear, which Goldilocks, and also which was the big bowl, the middle-sized bowl, the little bowl, etc.

During the preliminary period we were also furnishing a home for the Three Bears. The "home" was a soap box standing on end with a partition to form upstairs and downstairs. The beds were made of three sizes of cigar boxes, painted brown; the chairs were of pieces of wood tacked together, also painted brown; the bowls were made of clay and painted bright orange. The beds were furnished with mattresses, pillows, and brown and white checked bedspreads.

Children Always Suggested Next Step

After the house was furnished the children wanted it inhabited. They all began bringing Teddy Bears, large, small, middle-sized, old, new, some lacking eyes and some legs. Out of the collection three were chosen to live in the house but the others were used also in various games.

As one can not think of the Three Bears without thinking of Goldilocks, the children unanimously declared we must have a Goldilocks. One little girl volunteered to make a rag doll for this purpose and another volunteered to make a dress for her.

We were dramatizing the story nearly every day while this home with its inhabitants was in process of construction, so I was not surprised but still very much pleased when one day a child suggested that we let the toy bears and the Goldilocks doll do the acting. The idea of a puppet show had come to me when the children first began furnishing the house and I had hoped for this suggestion.

Puppets Appear to Act Independently

At first the children simply carried the puppets in their hands. It was my suggestion that the puppets should appear to be acting by themselves. This gave rise to a great deal of discussion and experiment.

Out of the discussion grew the plan to have a small stage and some way of hiding the children manipulating the puppets. The "stage" was finally constructed of a kindergarten table with an upright nailed on each corner. Black cambric was then fastened to the uprights on three sides leaving one side open for the front of the stage. A screen was placed on each side of the stage, and a piece of burlap matching the screens was stretched between them above the stage.

Manipulators Not Seen by Audience

The puppets were then fastened to sticks by black thread, which was invisible against the black background, and the manipulators stood behind the stage on chairs, where they could look down upon the stage and guide the puppets through their parts and talk for them, without being visible to the audience.

The last preparation was to make a curtain. We used unbleached muslin, and as the Three Bears lived in the woods the children suggested decorating it with trees and birds. There was free drawing of trees and birds, the best ones being chosen by popular vote. The fortunate artists were then directed in transferring their product to the curtain. I then sewed rings on it at the top and put it on a heavy cord stretched across the top of the stage. It was in two parts, so that it required two children to draw it at each performance.

Interested Audiences from Other Classes

We gave five performances in all to invited audiences: The morning and afternoon kindergarten classes, the other kindergarten extension class, the ungraded class, and a picked audience of the director of kindergartens, principal of the school, and all the mothers.

At each performance there was a different cast. The two performers who managed the curtain considered themselves to be as important members as

A thrilling point in the play—Goldilocks is discovered asleep!

Father Bear, Mother Bear, Baby Bear, or Goldilocks, but perhaps from my point of view the most important member was the one who stood at the side and read the story from the reader up to the point where the action began and was taken up by the actors on the stage. Only the best readers could be chosen for this honor.

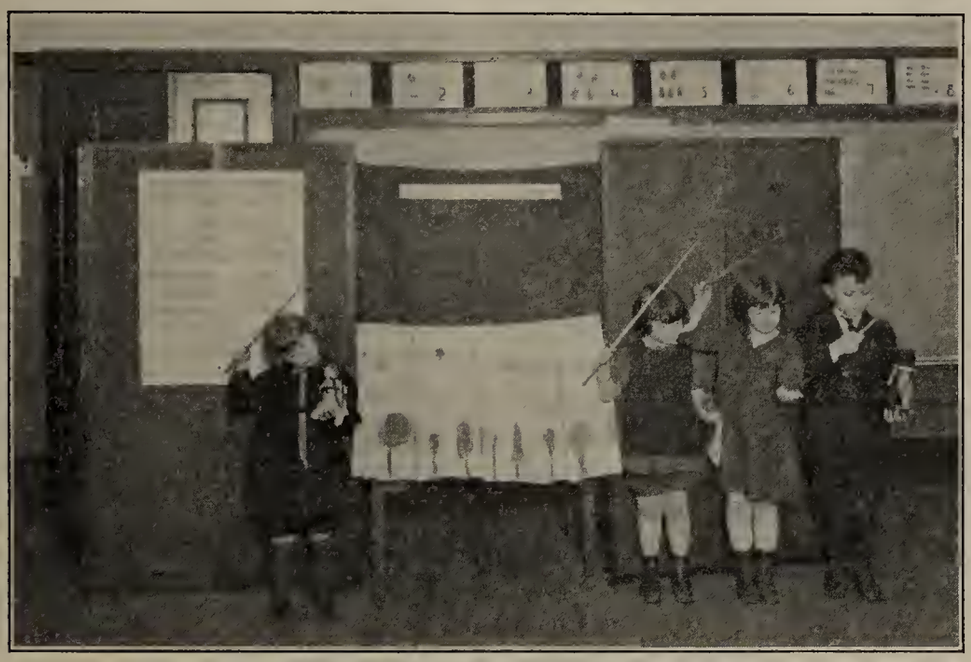
Every child in the class had an opportunity to take part in one performance and every child also contributed his ideas and his labor to making it a success. This climax came in the sixth week after entering first grade. During this time practically every phase of the curriculum had centered around the "show." Following is an enumeration of the values of the project in curriculum terms:

1. *Reading.*—This was strongly motivated by the fact that it was unanimously agreed that the performance must wait until we could read the story.

2. *Number.*—It was necessary to measure wood for the chairs and beds, as well as materials for mattresses, bed spreads, etc. Judgment of correct size and proportions entered, too. The whole class discussed and decided upon correct sizes and proportions.

3. *English.*—From the discussion of different phases of the project, many new words were added to the children's vocabularies. They had practice in using them correctly also. The wording of the invitations was a lesson in composition.

4. *Writing.*—At this time the children were unable to write for themselves, but they were made to realize the value and use of writing.



The children were terribly in earnest in handling the puppets

5. *Fine and industrial arts.*—Making and decorating the curtains, making and dressing Goldilocks, modelling and painting the bowls, making the chairs and the beds with their equipment, all gave good training in this phase of the curriculum.

6. *Plays and games.*—We dramatized the story nearly every day, sometimes with children as actors, sometimes with the puppets. This was the impetus for much later dramatization.

7. *Social studies.*—The participation in a group project all working for a common end was very valuable. The reaching out into other classes by inviting them to be our audience was also a vital social experience.

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

Bibliography of certain aspects of rural education. From January 1, 1920, to September 1, 1926. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 4.) 5 cents.

Extended use of school buildings. Eleanor T. Glueck. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 5.) 10 cents.

Report on education in Alaska. William Hamilton. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 6.) 5 cents.

Methods of teaching adult aliens and native illiterates. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 7.) 10 cents.

Recent movements in city school systems. W. S. Deffenbaugh. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 8.) 5 cents.

Medical education. N. P. Colwell. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 9.) 5 cents.

Educational boards and foundations, 1924–1926. H. R. Evans. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 10.) 5 cents.

Parent-teacher associations. Margaretta W. Reeve and Ellen C. Lombard. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 11.) 5 cents.

Record of current educational publications. January–March, 1926. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 12.) 10 cents.

Statistics of State school systems, 1924–25. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 13.) 10 cents.

Physical education in American colleges and universities. Marie M. Ready. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 14.) 10 cents.

Progress of rural education, 1925 and 1926. Katherine M. Cook. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 15.) 10 cents.

The reading of modern foreign languages. M. V. O'Shea. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 16.) 15 cents.

Typical child care and parenthood education in home economics departments. Emeline S. Whitcomb. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 17.) 20 cents.

Public education of adults in years 1924–1926. L. R. Alderman. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 18.) 5 cents.

Public evening schools for adults. L. R. Alderman. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 21.) 5 cents.

Record of current educational publications, April–June, 1927. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 25.) 10 cents.

Length of school day. (City school leaflet, No. 25.) 5 cents.

Education of young children through celebrating their successes. G. C. Myers. (City school leaflet, No. 26.) 5 cents.

Better teeth. J. F. Rogers. (Health education series, No. 20.) 5 cents.

The hard-of-hearing child. (School health studies, No. 13.) 5 cents.

Values of the manual arts. M. M. Proffitt. (Industrial education circular, No. 27.) 5 cents.

List of references on vocational guidance. (Library leaflet, No. 33.) 5 cents.

List of references on secondary education. (Library leaflet, No. 34.) 5 cents.

The appreciation of music. (Reading course, No. 31.) Free.

Characteristic features of recent superior State courses of study. Annie Reynolds. (Rural school leaflet, No. 42.) 5 cents.

State school improvement associations. Edith A. Lathrop. (Rural school leaflet, No. 42.) 5 cents.

Some essentials of a State's supervisory program for the improvement of instruction. K. M. Cook. (Rural school leaflet, No. 43.) 5 cents.

An age-grade study in 900 city school systems. F. M. Phillips. (Statistical circular, No. 8.) 5 cents.

Per capita costs in teachers' colleges and State normal schools. F. M. Phillips. (Statistical circular, No. 9.) 5 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian, Bureau of Education

COLEMAN, LAURENCE VAIL. Manual for small museums. New York, London, G. P. Putnam's sons, 1927. xiv, 395 p. plates. 8°.

Nine-tenths of the 1,000 museums in the United States are small institutions, and to them this volume makes a particular appeal. It does not seek to standardize or to crush out individuality, but rather to state those principles of museum administration which are general and fundamental, and to show how they may be worked out progressively from the simplest beginnings, and how applied in each branch of the museum field. In general, the small museums are regarded locally with pride and are rendering a public service. Besides organization, administration, and curatorial work, this manual presents the educational work of museums, including activities for children, school service, adult education, and aid to research.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. The social composition of boards of education; a study in the social control of public education. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago, 1927. ix, 100 p. tables. 8° (Supplementary educational monographs, pub. in conjunction with the School review and the Elementary school journal, no. 33, July, 1927.)

Data collected from a large number of public boards of education in the United States—district, county, city, State, college and university—are interpreted in this monograph. The study shows that three-fourths of the male members of city school boards are recruited from the occupational classes denominated as proprietors, professional service, and managerial service. The occupational character of the membership is similar in the State boards and the college and university boards. The representation of labor is very small in the city and State boards, and altogether nonexistent in college and university boards. The author discusses the bearing of these facts on the problem of control of education, and concludes that boards of education constituted as here described shape the policy of the schools too exclusively from the point of view of the industrial and professional classes, thus making the schools distrusted by organized labor. He suggests adoption of a plan by which all classes in the community may be given a voice in school management.

FOREST, ILSE. Preschool education; a historical and critical study. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xiii, 413 p. 12°.

Although there are as yet few data showing the actual outcomes of newer types of preschool education, the author thinks that the present widespread interest in the subject justifies a study of preschool education which may bring to light certain of the issues involved in the newer community plans now proposed. The present status of institutions for early education, and the general lines of their development, are considered; also the particular contribution of the nursery school movement to the theory and practice of early education, in the light of a democratic philosophy.

KOOS, LEONARD V. The junior high school; with an introduction by Henry Suzzallo. Enlarged edition. . Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1927] xiv, 596 p. front., tables, diagrs. 12°.

The rapid growth of the junior high-school movement during the past six years has added so much to experience and knowledge in the field that the author has been impelled to prepare this new edition of his book, which is more of an enlargement than a revision. Additions throughout the work have more than doubled the number of chapters for this edition. The increments are especially marked in the "features" of the junior high school, such as the curriculum, methods of teaching, the advisory system, and the social organization, rather than in its "peculiar functions," or purposes.

LINCOLN, EDWARD ANDREWS. Sex differences in the growth of American school children. Baltimore, Warwick & York, inc., 1927. xii, 189 p. tables. 12°.

Doctor Lincoln believes that valid conclusions can only be reached through careful study of sex differences in relation to growth, in order that possible effects of special training and environment may be observed, and that changes in the relationship of the two sexes in any trait or group of traits may be noted. Under present conditions this study can first be made from the results of tests and measurements of school children between the ages of 6 and 16, inclusive. Valuable material bearing on the problem which had accumulated at the psycho-educational clinic of Harvard University was utilized for the present study. In the matter of the educational significance of sex differences, the author finds that there are no significant sex differences in general intelligence as measured by either group or individual examinations, except a somewhat greater tendency of the boys to make higher scores than the girls in the upper ranges of the group tests. In school accomplishment tests the girls show a generally higher achievement in all subjects with the exception of history, and possibly of arithmetical reasoning. An analysis of the data available leads to the conclusion that neither sex may be called more variable than the other.

MAYS, ARTHUR B. The problem of industrial education. New York and London, The Century co. [1927] xii, 416 p. 8°. (The Century education series.)

The difficulties involved in providing adequately for industrial education in the United States, and the many-sided character of the problem, are not generally appreciated. The author undertakes to present the subject in such a manner as to reveal the complexity of the problem and to indicate its economic and social significance. Considerable space is given to the history of apprenticeship, as being fundamental to the problem. Each phase of modern industrial education is treated in a separate chapter which is independent of any sequential relationship to the other phases. An entire division of the book is devoted to the subject of women in industry.

PATTY, WILLARD WALTER. Legal basis of the public secondary education program of the United States. [Albany, N. Y., 1927] vi, 259 p. tables. 12°.

The book in essentially its present form was written in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy at the University of California. The purpose of the study is to find and synthesize constitutional and statutory provisions relating to the public secondary education program, and the decisions of the courts interpreting the same.

REED, ANNA YEOMANS. Human waste in education. New York, The Century co. [1927] xxix, 449 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (The Century education series.)

Doctor Reed presents in this volume a large amount of pertinent statistical information, which she interprets with the purpose of finding, if possible, what steps may best be taken to improve the efficiency of our educational system and to reduce to a minimum the human waste in education. She maintains that the need of the day is not more compulsory classroom education but a better balance of work, play, and instruction, based upon individual needs, desires, and capacities.

REISNER, EDWARD H. Historical foundations of modern education. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xv, 513 p. illus. 12°.

The stream of educational development in Western Europe from Homeric times to the sixteenth century of our era is followed in this book, which gives particular attention to those influences which have been most potent in shaping this development, and which are essential to explain current educational conditions. This principle of selection causes different aspects of the past to be emphasized from those which are prominent in most other histories of education. For example, considerable space is given to the evolution of Christian belief, while the catechumenal school as such is not stressed. Education as an element in human society is fully depicted throughout. A prospective volume is to continue the story of Western education to modern times.

RYAN, HEBER HINDS *and* CRECELIUS, PHILIPINE. Ability grouping in the junior high school. New York, Harcourt, Brace and company [1927] xiii, 223 p. front., tables, diagrs. 12°.

According to Prof. James M. Glass, in his introduction to this volume, the authors have interpreted the administrative procedure of ability grouping in terms of its educational philosophy and have evaluated its outcomes in terms of pupil training. They consider ability grouping as a prerequisite condition to the full functioning of curriculum and classroom organization and administration. The book is offered as a step toward the perfecting of a technique for ability grouping. It is partly the outgrowth of cooperative experience in applying the system in the Blewett intermediate school, St. Louis.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1927

TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO ESTABLISHED OCCUPATION

CONDITIONS of transition from school to established occupation are not ideal. Everyone remembers his own struggle to gain a toehold in life. Every industrial firm looks with despair at its continuous costs of breaking in and of turnover. Everyone can point to many cases of growth stunted by grinding at the wrong job to keep from starving. This area of life's experience, in which most youngsters flounder about between school and work for several years in fear and darkness, has been appropriately named "no man's land." There's no excuse for no man's land in time of peace. To convert that area into productive gardens is one of the greatest present opportunities for constructive national service.

Before the war solution of the problem of no man's land seemed hopeless. School men were lined up on one side of the area, industrialists on the other. One group talked pedagese and chased culture; the other talked business and chased dollars. Their respective patters were incomprehensible to one another. Their common problem of building men had not yet emerged.

Now all this is changed. Schools understand that art is wisdom in action—that fine culture may result from crowding into the world's work all the excellence it will bear. The professions are recognized as fields for continuing growth, and industries are beginning to see that they are fundamentally educational institutions. All are growing in comprehension of the fact that better personnel procedure is one of the major lines of progress. And having thus found a vital common problem, industry, the professions, and education can get together in a united attack.

—*Charles R. Mann.*

EMPHASIS MUST BE GIVEN TO DEVELOPMENT OF MORAL POWER

ALL of our science and all of our arts will never be the means for the true advancement of our Nation, will never remove us from the sphere of the superficial and the cynical, will never give us a civilization and a culture of any worthy and lasting importance unless we are able to see in them the outward manifestation of a spiritual reality. Unless our halls of learning are real temples which are to be approached by our youth in an attitude of reverence, consecrated by worship of the truth, they will all end in a delusion. The information that is acquired in them will simply provide a greater capacity for evil. Our institutions of learning must be dedicated to a higher purpose. The life of our Nation must rise to a higher realm.

There is something more in learning and something more in life than mere knowledge of science, mere acquisition of wealth, mere striving for place and power. Our colleges will fail in their duty to their students unless they are able to inspire them with broader understanding of the spiritual meaning of science, of literature, and of the arts. Their graduates will go out into life poorly equipped to meet the problems of existence, to fall an easy prey to dissatisfaction and despair.

The human soul will always rebel at any attempt to confine it to the physical world. Its dwelling place is in the intellectual and moral world. It is into that realm that all true education should lead. Unless our scholarship, however brilliant, is to be barren and sterile, leading toward pessimism, more emphasis must be given to the development of our moral power. Our colleges must teach not only science but character. We must maintain a stronger, firmer grasp on the principle declared in the Psalms of David and reechoed in the Proverbs of his son Solomon, that "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of knowledge."

—*Calvin Coolidge.*

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SCHOOL LIFE

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Function of Medical Schools is to Turn Out General Practitioners

Without Ability to Apply it, Learning is of Little Worth. More Attention Should be Given to Development of Perspective and Less to Inculcating Details. Men Who Graduate Early Usually Make Better Physicians. Year Can be Saved in Preparatory School and Another in Medical School by Adopting Four-Quarter System

By WILLIAM J. MAYO, M. D.
Rochester, Minn.

IN THE AUTUMN of life one perhaps may be privileged to become reminiscent. A brief review of my own medical college experiences and lifelong attempts to improve my knowledge, by visits to the great medical clinics of the world may aid in an interpretation of my personal views of present-day methods of medical education.

Two-Year Repetition Courses Before 1880

In 1880 after high school, two years in Niles Academy, and one year in a private school for languages and sciences, I entered the medical department of the University of Michigan. I was graduated in 1883, when I was 21. The year 1880 marked the commencement at the University of Michigan of a medical course of three years, with nine months to the school year. The three-year course was an innovation which at that time had been adopted by but few medical schools in this country. Most of the schools still gave a two-year course of five or six months each year, with the teaching the second year largely a repetition of that of the first year. In many of these schools the educational facilities were only meager. The professors depended more or less on private practice for their livelihood, and the teaching was essentially gratuitous. Yet each of these medical schools had on its faculty one or two clinical men of strong leadership, and much as we may deplore the educational methods in use at that time, one fact stands out with startling clearness: Every teacher was a practitioner of medicine and every student was taught to practice medicine.

The proprietary medical schools had to go, and there was small regret at their going. The medical schools on a more substantial basis gradually developed better methods of teaching and increased the cultural requirements for entrance. The pendulum of medical education swung from the time when practitioners of medicine taught clinical medicine to the present, when the full-time professional educator is largely in control of medical education.

It has been said, and I believe justly, that one should go to the educator for information but not for advice. This is especially true in medical education. The actual practice of medicine must be taught by example as well as by precept.

Practice More Important Than Accumulation

The chief difference that I note between the medical schools of my time and the medical schools of to-day is that the teachers in the older schools were proud to practice medicine. They counted wisdom, that is, the application of knowledge, as being of greater importance than the mere accumulation of knowledge. Many men of wide knowledge have little wisdom. Many men of great wisdom have little knowledge, but derive efficiency from the fine use they make of what they know.

To-day one may say truthfully that medical researches designed to relieve generations yet unborn are looked on as being almost holy in conception, whereas the relief of people who are now miserable and suffering is too often looked on as rather sordid and commercial.

I am reminded of the old Persian proverb: "He who learns and learns yet does not what he knows, is one who plows and plows yet never sows."

In the old-time medical schools, students were inspired by the example of the heads of the clinical departments of medicine and surgery to learn to practice medicine for the relief they might give to suffering humanity.

At the University of Michigan in my day two short clinics in medicine and surgery were conducted each week in the old amphitheater of the small university hospital. There all the classes, including the freshman, were gathered together. I can visualize my freshman class sitting on the back seats, too far away to see the technic of the operation, but inspired by the fact that operations were going on; by seeing the assistants as they performed their duties; by seeing the members of the senior class called down to be quizzed on diagnosis and permitted to take some minor part in the operations. Month by month and year by year we were steadily educated in what we were expected to do; we were taught to practice medicine.

Try to Cover too Much Ground

The teaching of medicine in the years from 1880 to 1883 was simple; there was not so much known as now. To-day we are suffering from too much knowledge too widely diffused. We try to teach our medical students something of all the medical sciences. Without intending to criticize unkindly, I believe that we

An address before the Annual Congress on Medical Education, Medical Licensure and Hospitals, Chicago, Feb. 14, 1927.

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devote too much effort to driving home detailed information and too little to the development of perspective. None of us here would pretend to a complete knowledge of even one subject, and yet we work our medical students seven days in the week to give them a smattering of everything. Many of them, in trying to achieve the impossible, are burned out mentally before they finish school. The detailed information we try so hard to give the medical student all can be obtained from books. We should teach him how to think and where to look for information, so that commencement will be what the term implies, the beginning of the study of medicine, rather than a consummation for medical practice.

Must Have Time to Acquire Wisdom

I am glad to see that schools such as Harvard and the University of Pennsylvania and other medical schools have cut some hundreds of hours of required study from the curriculum, that the students may have a chance to think and to acquire wisdom, instead of continuously packing in miscellaneous medical information.

Inequality in the standards of professors in our medical schools has an effect on medical education. Certain professors are rigorous in their examinations, whereas others apparently are more considerate of the student, more in sympathy with his hard lot. Such differences unbalance the curriculum. The men who have the reputation of "plucking" students get more time from the students, regardless of the importance of the subjects they teach, than those who are apparently more lenient. The result, in many instances, is that essential subjects are neglected to emphasize the less essential.

Begin Practice too Late in Life

There is a tendency to make the profession of medicine an aristocracy. The cost of medical education, the number of years before men can be self-supporting, the age at which students graduate, averaging around 27 years, is driving many bright men into other professions. Yet investigation has shown that the student who graduates before he is 25 is of greater average professional worth at the end of 15 years than the one who graduates after 25, and I am told that those who rank in the second half in scholastic attainments at a medical college are on an average of as great professional value as the first half at the end of 15 years.

Most of the men I know in the practice of medicine who have reputations justly earned have come from the farm or small community; they have been poor. Many of them peddled papers and did other work to help put themselves through medical school.

Sometimes as I look over the requirements of our premedical and medical courses and talk with the professors I get a rather uncomfortable feeling that a possible object of some of the requirements, especially the so-called honor points, of the premedical course is to bring the classes down to the comparatively small number that can be conveniently taught. And yet we have great buildings, with expensive equipment, working comparatively few hours a day.

The State is interested in the medical schools. For each dollar that is paid by the medical student, the State directly or through endowment funds pays from two to three dollars or more. This expense on the people of the Nation is borne willingly in the hope of securing competent help for the care of the sick.

Retardation Causes Undue Expense

If a student is unnecessarily delayed in his medical course for a year by lack of credits, he on his part and the State on its part are put to undue expense. And when one analyzes the reason for refusing this student admission to the medical school it is sometimes seen that he would have been permitted to enter other departments of the university and that his lack of credits was too often in subjects that had really little to do with the practice of medicine.

After the war there were at the University of Edinburgh more than 2,000 medical students; on my visit in 1923, there were 1,700; and I think that the average to-day is from 1,000 to 1,200. Are there better clinical practitioners of medicine than the men from the University of Edinburgh? If so, I do not know them. At Guy's Hospital the medical school is a part of the hospital, and the clinical teaching goes on with the medical studies in the fundamental branches.

It is therefore most gratifying to me to find that my Alma Mater, along with many other good medical schools, is having the senior medical class enter the hospital for their entire training during their last year. I hope the time will come when this clinical training will also take in the junior class, and also that the premedical course and the first two years of the medical course will be more closely related to the basic studies of the final two years.

Take Up Specialties in Graduate School

In so vast a field as medicine I do not feel competent to say just what should be taught the student to-day that he may become a good general practitioner, but I do believe that the function of the medical school is to turn out general practitioners, and that the man who desires to take up a specialty should take it up as a graduate subject. The requirements for general practice must change year by year as knowledge advances and new conditions are made manifest, or as old diseases are modified by environment and changes in the social life of the people take place.

When my brother and I entered practice the whole science and art of surgery were rapidly changing. We secured our knowledge largely from experience. By turns we eagerly visited every noted clinic in the civilized world in search of knowledge, and we also gained great inspiration thereby. When we heard of a man who appeared to be doing something unusual we went to see him; sometimes he was in Europe, sometimes he was in a town near us. There is no excuse to-day for the surgeon to learn on the patient. There is sufficient opportunity for the man who wishes to specialize to be trained by men who are already trained. The so-called general surgeon does not exist. Many men have a smattering of many types of surgery, but they would not be permitted to perform all types of operations on me or on members of my family, except in an emergency.

Knowledge and Wisdom Equally Essential

The American College of Surgeons was founded on the belief that knowledge and wisdom are equally essential. A man may have much knowledge, but if he can not put it into practice he can not become a fellow of the American College of Surgeons. Nor can he, immediately on passing a series of examinations and completing his hospital apprenticeship, enter the college. It is not until he has shown, after seven or eight years of practice, that he is maintaining high standards in surgery that he is admitted. The college has sought to insure that there shall be enough surgeons competent to care for the needs of all the people, and has let such societies as the American Surgical Association limit membership to those who are engaged in surgical teaching, as the possible aristocracy of the profession.

Independent General Practitioner Now Obsolete

The practice of medicine is changing, however, and the wealth of specialized knowledge available makes the independent general practitioner of the old times obsolete. Medical cooperation is essential if the people are to have the benefit of modern medical knowledge. Unfortunately, group medicine has caught the eye of the profession too much on the financial side to the subordination of the professional side. Group medicine can be practiced, however, by independent practitioners, in proper financial relations with one another. In fact, every general practitioner to-day is practicing group medicine. He is getting his Röntgen-ray examinations through one man, his labora-

tory reports from another, and examinations relative to contagious diseases through the State laboratories. Such a group relationship is as much an entity as though it were formally organized.

Community clinics, like clubs, can be readily established and in various places have been organized. For instance, a group of medical men may agree to do the charity work for the community at a fair price, just as the county attorney gets a fair price for his work. The senior men may delegate the work to some of the younger men, but furnish the consulting skill and accept responsibility. The funds beyond those justly paid as fees to the men who take active part in the work, go to the support of the clinic. In this way patients of all classes receive the same skilled service and the profession is not pauperized.

Just as conditions of medical practice have changed, so have those of nursing service and of hospitalization. The expense of illness in the home and the attendant unavoidable disruption of home economics have created a situation that is met by wide hospitalization. To-day every community with civic pride is establishing a community hospital where the sick can be cared for better at less expense than at home.

I do not advocate a letting down of standards in our medical schools, but I am convinced that one year of time could be saved in our grammar schools and a year could be saved in our medical schools by the four-quarter system. That children in the growing age have three months' vacation in the summer is no reason that young men and women at the height of their physical vigor, in a world on a 12-month working basis, should have three months vacation. Finally, the function of the medical schools is to turn out efficient general practitioners. To train specialists and research workers requires a long apprenticeship in graduate instruction under competent teachers.

More Attention Given to Deafened Pupils

For instruction of hard-of-hearing children about 50 teachers are employed by public schools in the United States, according to report of the commission on education of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, which has been published by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, in School Health Studies No. 13. In addition to private schools for training teachers of speech reading, normal courses are offered in Boston Teachers College, the University of Rochester, Johns Hopkins University, University of California (extension division), Michigan State Normal College, and a course is conducted under the auspices of the Brooklyn Teachers Association.

America Creates Favorable Impressions Upon Chilean Teacher

Agrees that this Country Represents the Most Advanced Civilization that Exists. Panama Canal, Skyscrapers, Labor Saving Machinery, Milk Instead of Wine at Meals, Activity of Women Attract Attention

Translation of an article published in El Mercurio, of Antofagasta, Chile, September 6, 1927, forwarded to the Secretary of State by GEORGE D. HOPPER, American Consul, Antofagasta

ON BOARD the steamship *Santa Teresa* passed yesterday by this port, returning from the United States, the noted professor, Mr. R. S. Bravo, ex-member of the faculty of the Men's School of Antofagasta and later rector of the school of Ancud. Mr. R. S. Bravo, who is one of the best teachers of secondary education in Chile, was much esteemed during the time he was in the Men's School of this city, where he won many friends by his kindness as well as his devotion to studies.

The Government, knowing his merits, appointed him rector of the school of Ancud, and later sent him on a mission to the most important educational centers of the United States. From other articles published in this paper, the public knows of the brilliant triumphs obtained by this Chilean teacher in American educational circles, where he won meritorious distinctions. Mr. R. S. Bravo, after being graduated in the universities of that great country, now returns to Chile to impart the teaching knowledge he acquired.

When he passed through this port we had the opportunity to talk with this able teacher, who made the following declarations:

"I am very satisfied at having resided some time in the United States. I have been in a country where everything is order, neatness, work, optimism, success. The Americans believe their country represents the most advanced civilization that exists up to date. From what I have heard and read, I am in accordance with them. The Americans don't sleep on their laurels. Their leaders are anxious that this industrial civilization that has astonished the world does not perish. I have faith that they will continue improving."

What impressed you in that country?

"The Panama Canal, although it is not in that country, it is part of it; the skyscrapers in New York; the saving of human labor and time by means of machinery; the glass of milk at meals instead of the wine; the silence by which the millions of autos move; the active life of the American woman."

Which is your impression of your stay there?

"Normally the American life is an unceasing activity, silent and orderly. All unnecessary noise is avoided. It impresses a man to see thousands of autos meet without blowing their horns. The Americans don't speak too loud or too much. Their action is always continuous."

And in education?

"Education is in constant change. Programs and methods are questions of constant investigation and are changed as soon as study and experience suggest a change. Everything is done on the basis of thorough investigation. The buildings are the best you can imagine. Los Angeles spends in education 50 per cent of its income."

And your studies?

"I was a student of nine courses in the university: 'Principles of secondary education,' 'methods,' 'philosophy,' 'educational psychology,' 'psychology with clinic,' 'citizenship,' 'seminary in secondary education,' 'departmental organization,' 'scholar inspection.' These nine courses and the thesis presented gave me a right to the degree. Besides this I visited the principal high schools and the boards of education, where they received me with great cordiality.

"Six days before leaving I had the satisfaction of being invited as guest of honor to a banquet in the university, and being appointed honorary member of the educational fraternity Phi Delta Kappa, which I had joined at the end of the first semester."

Do you bring some unfavorable impression?

"Really none. It is a civilization that has eliminated leisure and vanity. In that country the social passions do not last long. Everybody desires to progress; but they don't expect the progress to come from the Government or the neighbor. They trust to individual initiative and courage, that they may develop a clear conception of their duties and rights."

Three distinct courses of study in mathematics, for bright, average, and dull pupils, respectively, are in process of formulation by the Cleveland (Ohio) Bureau of Educational Research in cooperation with a committee of junior high-school teachers.

University of Porto Rico an Instrument for Inter-American Understanding

Location Midway Between North and South America Makes Institution a Meeting Place for Latin and Anglo-Saxon Points of View. Students Speak Both English and Spanish. Program of University Expresses Island's Desire to Serve Cause of Inter-American Peace. Affiliation With Universities in United States and in Spain

By THOMAS E. BENNER
Chancellor, University of Porto Rico

PORTO RICO, through the University of Porto Rico, is faithfully and quietly serving the cause of inter-American peace through inter-American understanding. Graduates of the university hold responsible positions in the South American Republics and in the United States, both in the arts and the professions. Their bilingual training (for they all speak both English and Spanish) and their bicultural outlook (for to their inheritance of 400 years of Spanish tradition they have added, as citizens of the United States, a knowledge and understanding of the North American point of view) fit them admirably to serve as interpreters of the Anglo-Saxon north to the Latin south, and vice versa.

Porto Rico is located in the beautiful Caribbean Sea, midway between North and South America. To visitors it is known as "the Island of Enchantment," or, as Roosevelt called it, "the Switzerland of the Tropics." Here is the only soil under the the United States flag on which Columbus ever set foot. But Porto Rico is not as proud of her scenic beauty or of her historic past as she is of her schools, her excellent roads, and her public health program.

Columbus landed in Porto Rico on his second voyage, in 1493. The island's first governor, Ponce de Leon, arrived soon after. The Spanish conquistadores found the island populated by Indians, fearless, warlike, and of splendid physique, who had given the island the name by which it is known in poetry, "Borinquen."

The indomitable spirit of these natives made necessary the importation of slaves from Africa, whose emancipation was finally brought about bloodlessly through the success of Porto Rican leaders in securing from Spain permission to recompense their owners from the proceeds of a bond issue of the insular government.

The history of Porto Rico tells of unsuccessful efforts to wrest the island from the hands of Spain. El Moro and San Cristobal, the mighty fortresses which guard San Juan, the capital city, were too much for the invaders, as those who have visited these strongholds and have seen their walls, moats, towers, sally-ports, and underground passages can easily understand. Not till the close of the Spanish-American War, when Porto Rico became United States territory, did the island cease to be Spanish soil.

Higher education had a long and honorable history extending through the century preceding the American occupation. It was not, however, until the enactment of the law establishing the University of Porto Rico that the people of the island felt that their aspirations in this field were on the way to complete realization. In October of 1900 a normal school had been established at Fajardo, to be transferred to Rio Piedras a year later. In

Baldorioty Building is used for the administrative offices

1902 the normal building, first of the buildings on what is now the campus of the University at Rio Piedras, was inaugurated. A year later the practice school was completed, to be followed within two months by the enactment of the University law—March 12, 1903.

The agricultural department of the university was opened at Rio Piedras in 1905, and within three years the Federal Government extended the benefits of the second Morrill Act with its annual appropriation of $50,000 from Federal funds. In 1910 the College of Liberal Arts was established. The following year the College of Agriculture was moved to Mayaguez and two years later the Colleges of Law and of Pharmacy were opened.

Military drill is optional in the upper classes but most students elect it

One of the first steps taken by Governor Horace M. Towner on his appointment as executive head of the insular government was the presentation in the insular legislature of a bill reorganizing the university. The bill received prompt approval. Two years later the legislature approved a two-mill tax for university support, which gave the university new life and made possible developments which have attracted wide attention.

New Schools Recently Established

In addition to the colleges of agriculture, engineering, liberal arts, pharmacy, law, and education which existed prior to the passing of the law of 1925, the university has since established a school of tropical medicine, a college of business administration and a department of Spanish studies, an outgrowth of the former department of Spanish. These new developments are of special interest as expressions of the policy of the university to seek new inter-American contacts and affiliations.

The school of tropical medicine is located in San Juan. It is the only school of its kind in the tropics. For many years the idea of such an institution had been discussed in Porto Rico. The services rendered by the institute of tropical medicine, early established as a branch of the insular department of health, served to stimulate this movement. Through the efforts of Don Antonio R. Barcelo and other Porto Rican statesmen, Columbia University became interested in the project, and as a result the school was established as the joint enterprise of Columbia and the University of Porto Rico under the official title of "The school of tropical medicine of the University of Porto Rico under the auspices of Columbia University." The school was inaugurated in September, 1926. Its student body during the first year of operation included physicians from as far away as Spain and India.

The newly established college of business administration of the university is similarly a joint enterprise of the University of Porto Rico and of Boston University. Doctor Lord, dean of the college of business administration of Boston University, serves as honorary director of the college at Rio Piedras. The courses offered at Rio Piedras and at Boston parallel each other sufficiently closely to make possible interchange of students between the two institutions. Several Porto Rican students have already taken advantage of the opportunity this offers and are carrying on one year of their four-year program of studies at Boston. Arrangements have also been completed for a group of Boston University students to complete one year of their program at Porto Rico. Other North American universities have asked for the privilege of participating in this arrangement, which offers to North American students an opportunity to perfect their knowledge of Spanish and to become more familiar with Latin American customs and traditions.

Spanish Courses Reorganized and Extended

The growing interest of North American students, as well as of students from Porto Rico and South America, in the Spanish courses offered by the university brought about, recently, a reorganization and extension of the offering in this field which has attracted wide attention. This reorganization included the establishment of close cooperation between the University of Porto Rico, the Centro de Estudios

The School of Tropical Medicine was recently constructed

Historicos of Madrid, and the department of romance languages of Columbia University, involving exchange of professors and establishment of a quarterly review, known as "Revista de Estudios Hispanicos," the first issue of which will appear in January. Because of its broader outlook and more ample program, the department was renamed "the department of Spanish studies."

Carlota Matienzo Hall is the women's dormitory

This brief description of the three recent extensions of the university's activities indicates the inter-American outlook which the institution is acquiring. Much might be said of the university's relations with medical research in Venezuela through its contacts with Dr. Juan Iturbe, of its contacts with agricultural education and investigation in the Republic of Colombia through the loan of two of its professors to the Colombian Government, of its part in the development of home economics education in Panama through the services rendered by one of its graduates, Mrs. Luz Maria Ramos, and of its many other contacts in Latin America already established or in process of establishment. These illustrations serve to indicate how the University of Porto Rico is rapidly becoming the institution of inter-American contacts and outlook which the people of Porto Rico have long wished it to be.

The enrollment of the university during 1926–27 was 2,850 students. On a recent visit to Porto Rico, Doctor Thompson, president emeritus of Ohio State University, predicted that within a very short period this enrollment would pass the 5,000 mark. Certainly the indications at the opening of the 1927–28 session offered support to his estimate.

Twenty-seven European universities actively seek American students for their summer schools.

Clearing House of Educational Research

Information service regarding projects in educational research recently completed or now in progress is announced by the Bureau of Education of the Interior Department.

The bureau intends to assemble abstracts and descriptions of studies in education, and to publish this material at intervals so that the information may be distributed to educators throughout the country.

In pursuance of this plan, letters have been addressed to all known agencies of educational research in State and city education departments and in institutions of higher education, including teachers' colleges and normal schools, also to educational boards, foundations, and associations, requesting copies or abstracts of studies recently completed and information regarding studies in progress or contemplated for the immediate future. The volume of replies to these letters in the way of publications, manuscripts, and abstracts received, and of information supplied regarding studies in progress, is already encouragingly large.

Many letters have been received strongly commending the new service. The following are specimens:

"I want to commend the move on your part for the formation of an educational clearing house through the bureau. It has become increasingly urgent that we have some such central bureau to avoid duplication of effort."

"I think it highly desirable that there be some clearing house where one can know regarding especially doctors' dissertations when a piece of research is under way concerning any particular problem. I think that the United States Bureau of Education is the agency preeminently suited to do this work."

"Your plan to assemble abstracts and descriptions of studies in education, and to publish this material at intervals, seems a very timely and important service to educators."—*John D. Wolcott.*

Permanent Organization for School Journeys to Prague

A central office is maintained at Prague, Czechoslovakia, for aiding excursions of rural schools to the city. Upon written application of such a school a guide is supplied who makes a program for the visit, arranges for living accommodations, procures tickets at reduced rates to theaters, museums, tramways, etc., and conducts the pupils to points of interest and gives proper explanations. In making application for this service the number of pupils, the expected dates, and other essential particulars must be stated.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

American games are popular with the students of the University of Porto Rico

Accredited Secondary Schools of the Southern Association

Abstract of Report of a Study Authorized by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. Public High Schools Show Average of 371 Pupils and 14 Teachers. Nearly Half of all the Graduates Enter College. More than Nine-Tenths of the Academic Teachers Hold Bachelor's Degree at Least

By JOSEPH ROEMER

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Florida; Secretary to the Commission on Secondary Schools, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States

AT THE thirtieth annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States held in Charleston, S. C., in December, 1925, a study of the secondary schools accredited by the association was authorized. An appropriation for the study was made and the writer was appointed to make it.

It was decided by the association to use data for the study taken from the next annual blanks filled by the accredited secondary schools. Consequently, the blanks filled by the principals of these accredited secondary schools in the fall of 1926 carrying data for the scholastic year of 1926–27 were turned over to the writer at the thirty-first annual meeting of the association in Jackson, Miss., in December, 1926. From these blanks the report was compiled.

The reader will recall that the North Central Association has issued four such studies under the caption of "Quinquennial report." Dr. C. O. Davis, of the University of Michigan, made the last two of these. The last one is called, "Our secondary schools" and was published by the association in 1925. The latter part of this article carries a comparison of conditions in the two associations.

General Findings of Report Are Stated

Feeling the reader will not be interested in the many details of the study, the writer is reproducing here some of the general conclusions and findings of the report. Persons interested in a more detailed study of the report are referred to the study proper. With these explanations the summary of conditions among the accredited secondary schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States follows:

Size of schools.—The typical southern association secondary school is not large: 17.9 per cent enroll fewer than 100 students; 36.7 per cent enroll between 100 and 199; 31.5 per cent enroll between 200 and 499; and 13.9 per cent enroll more than 500. Practically four times as many schools enroll fewer than 100 pupils as enroll more than 1,000.

Of the 844 secondary schools, 488, or 53.1 per cent, are built on a seven-grade elementary school, and 396, or 46.9 per cent, are built on an eight-grade elementary school.

Southern Schools are of Moderate Size

The largest school in the southern association enrolls 2,821 pupils, and the smallest enrolls 20 pupils. There are 11,807 teachers working in these secondary schools, 10,260 of whom teach in the public schools and 1,547 in the private. The average number of pupils per school in the southern association is 371 for the public school and 143 for the private. The average number of teachers per public school is 14.4, while the average number per private school is 11.6.

The 711 public schools constitute 84.2 per cent of all the secondary schools. They employ 86.9 per cent of all the teachers and enroll 93.3 per cent of all the pupils.

Length of term.—There are 61 schools that run fewer than 175 days and 65 schools that run more than 180 days. The minimum number of days a school may run to meet the nine months' term requirement is 175 days, during which time the school must be in session.

Practically one-half of the schools, 43.6 per cent of them, have a seven-period school day; about one-fourth have fewer than seven periods; and about one-fourth, more than seven periods.

Length of class period.—Considerably more than one-half of all the schools, 57.8 per cent of them, have a class period of from 41 to 45 minutes; 7.5 per cent have a period of from 46 to 50 minutes; 2 per cent from 51 to 55 minutes; 16.6 per cent from 56 to 60 minutes; 0.4 per cent have periods of more than one hour; and 15.6 per cent have periods of only 40 minutes.

Number of units required for graduation.—Practically seven-eighths, 86.9 per cent, of all the schools require 16 units for graduation; 10.5 per cent require more than 16 units; and 2.6 per cent require fewer than 16 units.

Grades in high school.—The most common grade combination of the southern association secondary school is 8, 9, 10, 11. There are 48.6 per cent of all the schools on this basis of organization. The next most common type is composed of grades 9, 10, 11, 12; 31.6 per cent of the schools are on this basis of organization. Several other types of organization are found, chief of which are grades 10, 11, 12, or grades 7 to 12, inclusive. Consequently, the four-year secondary school is still the typical secondary school of the southern association. The junior high school organization has as yet made but small progress.

Pupil enrollment.—There are 283,127 pupils enrolled in the accredited secondary schools of the association, 47.1 per cent of whom are boys and 52.9 per cent are girls. Of the 21,483 graduates that entered college, 51.2 per cent were boys, evidencing the fact that a larger percentage of boys than of girls go to college. The percentage of high-school graduates entering college ranges from 39.1 per cent in Louisiana to 67.9 per cent in South Carolina. The average for the association is 48.2 per cent. In the north central association, the range is from 23 per cent in Montana, to 49 per cent in Arkansas and Oklahoma, with an average of 37.9 per cent for the entire association.

Pupils Carrying Five Studies Stand Well

Pupil load.—There are 15.8 per cent of the pupils carrying five or more studies. Of these students, 17.7 per cent rank lower than the upper 25 per cent of their class. Only 2.6 per cent of all students carrying more than four units failed in one of their courses the preceding semester.

Supervision of instruction.—Considerable time off from teaching is given the superintendent and principal. However, the reports received show that very little time is devoted to the actual supervision of classroom instruction by superintendent, principal, or department heads.

Teachers.—Of all the 11,807 teachers, 9,923 are academic and 1,884 are voca-

Publication sponsored by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, Dr. J. B. Edmonson, chairman.

tional; that is, 84 per cent of all the teachers are academic, and 16 per cent are vocational. Again, 67.7 per cent of all the teachers are women and 32.3 per cent are men. Of the men teachers, 83.5 per cent are academic and 16.5 per cent are vocational. Of all the vocational teachers, however, 66.5 per cent are women, and 35.5 per cent are men; and of the academic teachers 67.7 per cent are women and 32.3 per cent are men.

Practically one-fourth of all the teachers are new each year. This means that every five years the faculties in the schools are new. The range in turnover of teachers is from 18 per cent in Georgia, Kentucky, and Virginia to 36 per cent in Florida.

Not a Training Ground for Beginners

In comparing the training of academic and vocational teachers, we find that 91.6 per cent of all the academic teachers hold a bachelor's degree or better; but only 62.6 per cent of all the vocational teachers hold a bachelor's degree or more. From the standpoint of professional training, 80.6 per cent of all the academic teachers have had 12 or more semester hours in education; and only 69 per cent of all the vocational teachers have had 12 or more semester hours in education. Between four and five times as many academic teachers hold a master's degree as vocational; and fifteen times as many vocational teachers have had no normal training as academic teachers. As a group, the academic teachers are better trained and are making a better effort to get more training in service. Only 6.6 per cent of the academic and 6.1 per cent of the vocational teachers are new to the profession, and 55.5 per cent of the academic and 46.9 per cent of the vocational teachers have had more than five years' experience. From these facts it is clear that the accredited secondary school of the southern association is not a training ground for beginning teachers. Approximately 85 per cent of all academic teachers carry the recommended maximum load of five classes per day or less, 90.3 per cent of them teach fewer than 150 pupils daily, and 81.2 per cent of the vocational teachers teach the recommended load or less, and 92.5 per cent teach fewer than 150 pupils per day.

Only 43.6 per cent of all the teachers devote any of their time to supervising or sponsoring extracurricular activities. Of those who do give some time to this work, 21.2 per cent devote at least one hour per week; 9.3 per cent devote two hours; 4.8 per cent devote three; 1.5 per cent devote four; 3.3 per cent devote five; and 3.4 per cent devote more than five hours per week to it.

Salaries.—Not quite one-half of all the schools, 48.6 per cent, have a standard salary schedule. The salary of the city superintendent ranges from $2,000 to $4,000 and over; and the salary of the principal also ranges from under $2,000 to $4,000 and over; but the median salary of the city superintendent is between $3,501 and $4,000, while the median salary of the principal is between $2,000 and $2,500 per year. The median salary for men teachers is between $1,501 and $1,800 per year; while the median annual salary of women is between $1,251 and $1,500. That is, the median salary for men teachers is $250 more per year than for women.

Program of studies.—There are 83.9 per cent of all the pupils taking English, 71.9 per cent taking mathematics, and 64 per cent taking the social studies. These three constitute the most popular groups in the program of studies, if measured by the number of students registered in them. The natural sciences follow with 40.5 per cent, and commercial studies and Latin are next with 27.2 per cent for each.

The five most common subjects added to the curriculum in the past five years are commercial, home economics, biology, manual training, and general science; and the five most common subjects dropped from the curriculum in the past five years are English history, botany, physical geography, physiology, and zoology.

Few Principals Encourage Postgraduate Work

There are 1,429 postgraduate students attending these secondary schools for the year 1926–27. That is an average of 1.7 pupils per school. Only 23.1 per cent of the principals encourage graduates to return for more work in their schools. The students that return for postgraduate work can be divided into two general groups: Those taking specific vocational training and those wanting to carry further their general education. The principals that encourage students to return for postgraduate work offer as an inducement vocational studies such as commercial work, manual training, agriculture, music, and art; or academic subjects such as advanced mathematics, English, foreign languages, the natural sciences, etc.

Junior college.—There are 47 junior colleges connected with the public secondary schools of the southern association. Seventy-nine other public-school systems have in mind the establishing of a junior college in the next few years. This would indicate that the junior college movement is becoming a rather important factor in the development of southern education.

Buildings.—The buildings are both safe and hygienic and are not notably overcrowded in the estimation of the principals. Special features of auditorium, gymnasium, swimming pool, shower baths, rest rooms, clinics, lunch rooms, etc., are becoming quite common in the accredited secondary schools of the southern association. From the standpoint of heat, lighting, and the matter of equipment in library and laboratory, etc., the buildings are on the whole satisfactory and measure up to the standards of the association.

Wider use of school plant.—All kinds of outside activities use some parts of the school plant. This indicates that the school is becoming more and more a social center where these various activities of the community find a convenient meeting place.

Library.—The library situation can be stated as follows: 87.2 per cent of the libraries are in separate rooms; 73.5 per cent are card-indexed; 23.8 per cent employ a full-time librarian; 55.8 per cent employ a part-time librarian; 95.3 per cent have 500 volumes or more; 85 per cent get some kind of an annual appropriation for their maintenance; and 87.4 per cent subscribe for at least one or more magazines.

General administration.—Regarding certain administrative practices, 87.4 per cent of the schools encourage students to take music, physical education, fine and practical arts, in addition to their four regular studies; 63.5 per cent employ some form of supervised study; 57.7 per cent indicate their term marks with figures; 19.8 per cent employ a system of honor points based on the quality of work done; 13.4 per cent have school physicians; 4.7 per cent have school dentists; 23.6 per cent have school nurses; 86.9 per cent have athletic coaches; 49.2 per cent give inexperienced teachers fewer classes per day to teach; and 20.6 per cent have the same salary schedule for elementary teachers as for high-school teachers, provided the qualifications are equal.

More Schools Demand College Graduation

New requirements for teachers.—For the new requirements for teachers 4.8 per cent require professional and academic specialization; 8.3 per cent, summer study; 8.9 per cent, previous teaching experience; and 35.8 per cent demand college degrees.

Records and reports.—Practically no high-school records extend back of 1900. Of all the schools 13 per cent have no records back of 1921. This is to be expected, perhaps, when we recall that the southern association high school is a new development and that it got under way fairly well in most of the Southern States between 1900 and 1910.

Extracurricular activities.—The development of extracurricular activities in the accredited secondary schools of the southern association is rapidly on the increase, and although the condition is not yet satisfactory there is every indication of wholesome growth and development in this field.

To be concluded in the December number. A comparison of the southern schools with those of the North Central Association will constitute the next installment.

Chilean Teachers Will Study in America

The Chilean Government has selected eight school-teachers whom it is sending to the United States under Government commissions to study American methods of instruction at American universities with a view to their returning to Chile at the end of three years to report to the Government upon the result of their investigation and study.

The persons selected, the institutions which they will make their headquarters, and the nature of the investigation assigned to each are given herewith:

Miss Laura Quijada. Teachers College, Columbia University. Child psychology, mental and educational measurements, vocational investigations, and courses in American education.

Miss Aida Parada. Teachers College, Columbia University. Psychology of branches of primary teaching, socialization of the study, special methods of primary education, and courses in American education.

Miss Ana Lara. Teachers College, Columbia University. Organization of normal schools, educational sociology, social service, and courses in American education.

Miss Francisca Crispi. University of Iowa. Child education, visual education, and domestic arts.

Mr. Alberto Segura. University of Chicago. Organization of normal schools, special methodology on language of the country and on civic education, school libraries.

Mr. Jose Flores. University of Southern California, Los Angeles. Mental and educational measurements; pedagogy of exceptional children.

Mr. Andres Escobedo. University of California, Berkeley. Government, administration, school hygiene, educational sociology, vocational investigations.

Mr. Arturo Huenchullan. Peabody College, Nashville. Rural schools, postgraduate activities. Mr. Huenchullan, on returning to Chile, will devote himself to the education of the Indians of his country.

Similarly, other school-teachers are sent to Switzerland, Belgium, and Germany.—*Wm. Miller Collier, American ambassador, Santiago, Chile.*

The University of Michigan Department of Engineering Research has entered into a contract with a trust company whereby university engineers will make searching analyses of the present and future possibilities of corporations or individuals to determine the soundness of the industries issuing certificates for sale to the public.

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American Junior Red Cross a Valuable Ally to the Schools

Established Ten Years Ago by Proclamation of President Wilson. First Service Was to Men in Uniform Abroad and at Home. Now a Bond of Friendship with School Children of Other Lands

AMERICAN Junior Red Cross is celebrating the tenth anniversary of its founding. Its origin lay in the many urgent requests during 1916 and 1917 for a plan to enable school children to share in Red Cross work. When the United States entered the war, groups of boys and girls in many places were already assisting the senior chapters. President Wilson issued a proclamation to school children on September 15, 1917, advising them of the creation of the Junior Red Cross "in which every pupil in the United States can find a chance to serve our country." An army of 8,000,000 boys and girls had been enrolled by June, 1918.

The first activity undertaken was service to our men in uniform abroad and at home; but the needs of refugees returning to the devastated regions soon claimed attention also. From the beginning in 1917, through February, 1919, the juniors produced hospital supplies, garments, and articles for soldiers, sailors, refugees, and others numbering 15,722,073 and valued at $10,152,462. They contributed in money $3,677,370. In the spring of 1919 enough tables and chairs were made and sent to France to enable about 15,000 refugee families to begin housekeeping again. Even to-day many schools in that country are using furniture given by the juniors of America.

Activities Make an Extensive Catalogue

Sewing and manual training classes continue to make articles for use in our own country and abroad. The practice of sending gifts to the children of Europe during the war has grown into the present yearly Christmas-box project. The giving of money for special junior relief work has developed into the national children's fund. Services rendered abroad by this fund are chiefly responsible for the spread of the Junior Red Cross to some 40 other nations and for the cordial friendship established among the school children of all these countries. From the same source also sprang the international correspondence, which has linked together the schools of the world. Large sums from the national children's fund are also expended for routine and emergency work in this country. The sending of friendship gifts to hospitalized soldiers now goes on the year around. This work has broadened to include children's hospitals and other institutions, such as homes for the aged. Other activities, including partnerships with Indian schools and a wide variety of local projects make an extensive and interesting catalogue.

The Junior Red Cross emphasis on health had its origin in the idea that physical fitness is necessary for efficient service. A recent development is in the field of mental hygiene, taking the form of directed play and occupations to restore the morale of children in disaster areas where the schools are unable to function.

Publications developed naturally as a means of stimulating interest and activity. The Junior Red Cross News, a magazine for elementary schools, is 9 years old, and High-School Service, for secondary schools, came into existence three years ago.

Service of Definite Value to Community

Thus the American Junior Red Cross has grown up in the schools along lines suggested by the needs and desires of the students who are its members, and with the cooperation and assistance of school organizations and officials. To-day, as during the past 10 years, these young citizens can be counted upon for services of definite value to their communities, to their country, and to the world.

For the first time, delegates representing the 600,000 Junior Red Cross members in the high schools of the country attended the National Convention of the American Red Cross, held October 3–6 in the city of Washington. This was especially appropriate in recognition of the tenth anniversary of the junior membership.

More than 40 delegates came from 18 States as widely separated as California, North Dakota, New Mexico, Georgia, and Connecticut. Porto Rico was also represented. The junior delegates shared in the general sessions, and in addition conferences and activities were planned especially for them.

Students in Connecticut between 14 and 21 years of age who are attending a State trade school outside the town in which they live are allowed by the State board of education 50 per cent of the cost of their transportation to and from school, not to exceed $35 per year.

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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By THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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NOVEMBER, 1927

Unabated Interest in American Education Week

THE IMPETUS which the observance of American Education Week has gained in the past seven years appears to have lost nothing in force. Although the Bureau of Education has not continued formally among its sponsors and for that reason has not been in such close touch as in past years with the preparations for it, we have ample reason to know that interest is still strong.

Publications issued on this account by this bureau in 1924 and 1925, namely, "How, Why, and When to Prepare for American Education Week," the "Broadside," "School and Teacher Day," and "The Quest of Youth," are as useful in 1927 as in 1925, and the demand for them has been equally as great as in other years. The Superintendent of Documents, who handles the sale of Government publications, was obliged to replenish his stock repeatedly. Educational periodicals and bulletins of school superintendents for the most part have published the program with information of the purposes in view and instructions to teachers on the subject.

Wednesday, November 9, "Know Your School Day," apparently came in for its full share of recognition. In most places special effort was made to induce the parents to visit the schools on that day. Auditorium exercises were arranged for the occasion, but more often the regular exercises of the schools were carried on as usual in order that the visitors might see the everyday work of their children.

Plans for publication of articles about the schools in local papers, addresses upon appropriate occasions, and other forms of stimulation appear to have been made generally.

All this is as it should be. The American people like to be reminded. We are accustomed to advertising of an emphatic sort. "Publicity" is sought without shame and as a matter of course for organizations and enterprises of the highest type—religious, philanthropic, and educational, as well as financial and commercial.

The man who builds better mousetraps than his neighbors will wait long for the world to make a beaten path to his door if he build his house in the wilderness. The process is too slow for this fast-moving generation. The American of to-day does not hide his light under a bushel. Serious-minded men gravely discuss "publicity methods" for this, that, and the other laudable undertaking; ancient universities maintain their "information bureaus"; and "departments of public relations" are commonly included in the organization of enterprises that depend upon popular favor.

Administrators of public-school systems are obliged to recognize the attitude of the American people which brings about this state of affairs. Not only as a matter of common courtesy but as a plain duty school superintendents must inform their constituents of the progress and the merits of their schools. And every reasonable method must be employed to maintain not only public interest but public enthusiasm.

American Education Week is an excellent method of stimulating that enthusiasm. Its worth has been clearly proved, and it should be continued annually with unabated energy.

Trends are Similar in Secondary Education Everywhere

SECONDARY SCHOOLS of Central Europe appear to be following trends similar to those which are familiar in America.

An order of the Czechoslovak Ministry of Education dated June 17, 1927, revised the curricula of the secondary schools of that country, and through the courtesy of our valued correspondent, Mr. Emanuel V. Lippert, we have received copies of the new schedules. "Monatschrift für das gesamte Schulwesen" for December, 1926, presents the "study tables" of secondary schools of Saxony; and in the number of that journal for February, 1927, an article by N. Mohring contains similar tables for Austria. These documents, with several other schedules of European secondary schools, are before us as we write.

The feature of these schedules which stands out most prominently before American eyes is the magnitude of the figures thereof. Thirty to 36 hours per week are prescribed. In Czechoslovakia the schools are in session 6 days per week, from "8 to 13 o'clock" every day, with an afternoon session of two hours on one day for Classes VII and VIII; total 32 hours. And all those hours are accounted for in the schedule. Class VIII of the gymnasium must study the language of instruction (Czechoslovak or German) 4 periods per week; the alternate language of the country (German or Czechoslovak), 2 periods; Latin, 5 periods; Greek, 6; history or geography, 3; mathematics, 2; nature study, 2; physics, 4; introduction to philosophy, 2; physical training, 2—nine substantial studies and physical training are pursued simultaneously. The length of the periods is not stated, but apparently no breathing spell in the form of a study period is contemplated.

Substantially this plan of organization of the instruction is generally followed in the secondary schools of Central Europe. In Saxony 8 to 11 subjects are studied simultaneously and from 31 to 36 class periods per week are provided. It is to be remembered, however, that in the schools of Central Europe the teacher himself is the principal source of information; textbooks and home study are of much less importance than with us.

Those who scout the suggestion that European students are in general about two years ahead of Americans of equal age may well consider that six school days per week instead of five means just 2.4 years more in a 12-year course. Whatever may be the advantages of European or of American methods the simple question of arithmetic is sufficient in itself to explain the difference in progress which is claimed.

These facts are not new, but they are worth repeating nevertheless. Nor is it new that the tendency is increasing in Europe as well as in America to recognize the needs, not only of the select class of students who are preparing for university study, but also of the great number of young men who will not continue indefinitely in study. That fact is clearly apparent, however, in the new schedules of the Czechoslovakian schools and it appears constantly in the discussions of secondary education in Europe. The developments there closely parallel the developments in this country.

Differentiation of studies is obtained in Central Europe by the establishment of new kinds of schools. The idea of a comprehensive institution with a variety of courses has not gained foothold there. The revolt against the preponderant classical training of the gymnasium led many years ago to the realgymnasium in which modern languages, Latin (but no Greek), mathematics, and natural sciences were taught; and to the realschule, with emphasis on mathematics and the sciences, and with modern languages but no Greek and no Latin.

Sundry modificatons of these have produced other types, including the oberrealgymnasium, the reformed realgymnasium, the oberrealschule, and more recently in Germany the aufbauschule and the Deutsche oberschule. The last-named emphasizes German culture, and the

aufbauschule is primarily a device for continuing the instruction of young people who remain in the elementary school to the end of the seven-year course, contrary to the usual practice of entering the secondary school after three years of primary schooling.

Attendance in the secondary schools of Europe has increased heavily in the past 40 years, though not in such ratio as in the United States. In the classical schools the number of students has about doubled in that time, but the increase in the nonclassical schools has been at least three times as great. Simultaneously with the increased enrollment has proceeded increased practical aspect of the curricula. Which is the cause and which the effect is not in point; the two phenomena have proceeded together. The curriculum of the Austrian gymnasium includes "Handarbeit"—hand work; in Saxony, Oldenburg, and elsewhere "Kurzschrift"—shorthand—is taught in the gymnasia; "Werkunterricht"—industry instruction—appears in a number of the schedules; "Nadelarbeit"—needlework—is commonly a subject of instruction in secondary schools for girls.

The "dilution" of the curriculum which has troubled so many critics of American high schools in recent years is not peculiar to America. Secondary education all over the world seems to be headed in the same direction.

Spain and Costa Rica in Academic Accord

During the recent visit to San Jose of Señor Manuel Garcia de Acilu y Benito, the Spanish minister accredited to the Central American countries, ratifications were exchanged between Señor de Acilu and the Costa Rican Minister for Foreign Affairs which bring into effect a convention negotiated more than two years ago for the purpose of according "mutual recognition to the validity of academic degrees and the incorporation of colleges" in the two countries.

This convention, which is to be in effect for a minimum of 10 years but may be extended indefinitely, provides for the mutual recognition of diplomas and degrees granted by the higher institutions of learning of either of the two contracting countries and looks to the practice of professions in each country by nationals of the other, "subject to all the rules, laws, taxes, and rights which are in effect" in the country for its own nationals.

The Costa Rican Congress approved the convention on June 10, and the ratifications were exchanged on August 25, 1927.—*Roy T. Davis, United States envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, San Jose, Costa Rica.*

French and English Boys Fraternize in Camp

A group of 15 French boys and a master from the College de Calais, from the College Mariette of Boulogne, and from the École Turgot of Paris, were invited this year by students of the Bow School, a Coopers' Company's school of London, to spend with them three weeks in July in a summer camp where it is the custom of the Bow School to spend the last three weeks of the summer term in study and out-of-door life. The camp comprises a tract of 60 acres, with permanent buildings and a hospital, and is situated by the sea at New Romney in Kent. The expenses of the French students were borne by the Coopers' Company, the proprietors of the camp, and the English school, in part from the fund usually used for prizes.

The visit was in return for hospitality extended by French schools to the English boys on their holiday trips to France, and the invitation had the approval of the British Board of Education and the London County Council. Correspondence between individual French and English boys preceded the visit, and each French boy on his arrival was met by his English correspondent with whom he spent most of his time while in camp. French masters each morning had English boys for French conversation; and English masters taught the French boys. It had been a part of the plan to have English and French spoken on alternate days, but constant use of both languages made this unnecessary. The boys fraternized well, and relations throughout the visit were most cordial.

British Prisoners Show Marked Effect of Instruction

A system of nonvocational adult instruction in British prisons is a manifestation of the extension of adult education in Great Britain. During 1925 more than 600 classes were conducted in 29 prisons in which 8,500 persons received instruction.

The purpose of the scheme, apart from the actual instruction of the prisoners, is to give them a better outlook on life through the promotion of new and healthy interests. An educational adviser, a man or woman experienced in educational work, was appointed for each prison to assist and advise prison governors in the development of the work, and a number of tutors and lecturers volunteered their services as teachers. Classes are held in the evening, and no prison officer is present during class sessions. The courses include very little vocational education; they are principally general and cover a wide range of subjects. Attendance is voluntary, and the prisoners usually consider it a privilege to attend. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has established a small educational library in each prison to supplement the usual prison library and the textbooks provided by the Government. It is stated that the effect on the personal conduct of the prisoners has been marked, and the conviction is expressed that an enduring influence will be produced on their after careers.

Americans to Teach English in Prague

By the initiative of Czechoslovak Ministry of Education an association was founded that will establish an English real gymnasium at Prague. This new school will have all rights as Czechoslovak public real gymnasiums have. Preliminary organizational work has been concluded and first class of the real gymnasium will be opened after the summer recess, in the autumn of 1927. At the same time first grade of English elementary school and an English kindergarten class will be opened. To the English real gymnasium evening or afternoon language courses and commercial courses will be attached.

The aim of the English schools is to furnish at Prague occasions for elementary and secondary education of children in the English language. The education will be guided in English and American national spirit, but the curriculum will be similar to the curriculum of Czechoslovak schools of the same grade. The contact of children of diverse nationalities will be a great advantage of the school, and it will bring certainly the pupils of all parts of this school to a perfect mastering of the English language. The teachers will be English and American teachers.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

Pacific Coast to Have an "International House"

An "International House," similar to that in New York, will be built at the University of California, Berkeley. John D. Rockefeller, jr., has donated $1,750,000 for it. Individual rooms will be provided for nearly 500 students, about two-thirds of whom are expected to be from other countries, and about one-third to be Americans. A part of the building will be reserved for women. The plans include social halls, dining rooms, and committee rooms, to facilitate the intermingling of students of different nationalities. Permanent friendships are expected to result which will have a strong influence for international peace.

Germans Turn From Military Exercises to Organized Sports

Municipality of Frankfort on the Main has Built Great Stadium and Employs Teachers for Instruction in Sports. Coaches at First Brought from England but now Are Trained in Local School. Not Regarded as Professional Athletes

By HAMILTON C. CLAIBORNE
American Consul in Charge, Frankfort on the Main

UNEMPLOYMENT in Frankfort during 1921 caused the municipal authorities to develop some plan whereby the unemployed could work instead of drawing the Government dole which is described as not enough to live on and too much to permit death. This was the genesis of the present stadium.

The architects have laid out the grounds in the form of a triangle covering an area of 42 hectares, and so arranged that later extensions might be made without difficulty. The football ground was the first to be built, with a main fairway leading up to the center of the grand stand, and to the right and left of the fairway are situated large training grounds for all sports.

Nominal Charge for Lesson and Bath

The stadium is operated by a limited liability company owned by the municipality of Frankfort on the Main. The main duty of the company is to educate the youth of Frankfort in sports, to cultivate physical fitness, and to help the population to enjoy better health and more happiness. For this purpose lessons are given daily by experienced "Sport Lehrers" who are in the service of the Stadium Co. Anyone can participate in these lessons at a nominal charge of 1 mark per hour, including a hot bath.

Special training tuition is given in the stadium by the different sport unions, in order to prepare the youth of Germany for the Olympic games of 1928.

In track sports the athletes receive remuneration quite openly and at the same time they are allowed to compete in amateur athletic meetings. Recently a trainer in the employment of the Stadium Co., receiving 800 marks per month for his services, competed in two international sport meetings as an amateur. In one he won the amateur title of the country in which he was competing. Germany having done away with the physical training represented by military service has turned to organized sport with much vehemence and much success. Sport has been studied with the same efficiency with which military training was studied before the war. At first, trainers and coaches were brought from England to train the best clubs, and now the State has started the "Hochschule für Leibesübung," a sports university in Berlin. Before a student can enter this school he must first matriculate and pass the German sports-medal test, which is 100-meters sprint in 13 seconds or under; 10,000 meters to be run in 50 minutes; a simple swimming test; high jump, over 1 m. 35 cm.; wide jump, over 4 m. 80 cm.; putting the weight, 8 m. It is the ambition of every German boy to win this medal. At the Hochschule the students study every sport, as well as philosophy, the art of teaching, and medical science. The course covers five years. After graduation as Sport Lehrers, or athletic instructors, they are available for employment with any club or town and receive remuneration according to the "sports ability" of the teacher. From the German point of view these people are not professionals and therefore they are allowed to compete in any amateur meeting.

Athletic Prominence an International Asset

It may be recalled that the victories of a German swimming champion during his visit to the United States and the later success of German athletes at the track and field meet held at Stamford Bridge in England have awakened increased interest in sports and have led to further comment in the press concerning the connection between sport and politics and the importance of athletic prominence as an asset in international comity.

The series of successes which attended the visit to the United States of Erich Rademacher, the German swimmer, is said to have prompted a communication from the German ambassador at Washington to his Government to the effect that a first-class representative of German sports is the best propaganda the Reich can have, and that records such as those established by Rademacher obtain more notice among the sport-loving Americans and are a greater help to Germany than many of the large delegations and commissions which visit the United States.

The local press has also noted that a delegation of German athletes has participated in an athletic congress held in Louisville, Ky., and its members were, during their tour of American cities, received by President Coolidge and were given hospitable reception throughout their journey. Upon their return to Berlin it appears that they were received by President Hindenburg who expressed his satisfaction with their reception in the United States and congratulated them upon the success of their tour.

The great enthusiasm of the German people for sports, which followed the war and has been encouraged by the Government, resulted in a membership of approximately 7,000,000 among the various athletic clubs. The most prominent athletic organizations are: the Central Commission for Sport and Physical Culture, the German National Committee for Physical Exercise, and the German Gymnastic Association (Turnverein). The central commission is alleged to have a membership in excess of 1,500,000, composed chiefly of young men and women who belong to the various labor athletic societies. Its motto of "sport makes the masses healthy" does not, however, indicate its freely admitted purpose of using the health and strength of its members when necessary to combat the efforts of reactionary organizations.

The German National Committee for Physical Exercise has a membership of about 7,000,000, including a number of subsidiary organizations such as the football league. It enters into the field of international sport more than any other German organization and firmly believes that German prestige can be greatly enhanced by successful participation in international contests.

Official report to the Secretary of State.

Intensive Course in Shade-Tree Problems

Protection and beautification of shade trees, an intensive course covering one week, has been inaugurated by the New York State College of Forestry, Syracuse University. Instruction is given by experts on tree life, tree development, and maintenance, and field trips for practical work are a part of the course. The subjects for study are: Pruning trees, physiology of tree growth, fungous diseases, tree characteristics, tree repair, planting and moving trees, insects and sprays, forestry bureaus, and the laws relating to street trees. Registration for the initial course this fall included 40 students from different sections of the State and several from outside the State, among them representatives of telephone, telegraph, and lighting companies who came to obtain information on the installation and maintenance of overhead wires as they relate to shade trees.

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

Playgrounds of the Nation. Florence C. Fox. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 20.) 35 cents.

Laboratory layouts for the high-school sciences. A. C. Monahan. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 22.) 10 cents.

Pension systems for public-school teachers. Nida Pearl Palmer. (Bulletin,1927, No. 23.) 15 cents.

Rural school supervision. Katherine M. Cook. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 24.) 10 cents.

Trends in the development of secondary education. E. E. Windes. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 26.) 10 cents.

List of references on higher education. (Library leaflet, No. 35.) 5 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Service Bureau for Classical Teachers

Teachers of the classics, especially in the high schools, receive effective aid from the service bureau established four years ago by the American Classical League. Young teachers are encouraged to ask assistance in the problems that they meet, and experienced teachers freely send in descriptions of their successful methods. Correspondence is, therefore, an important avenue of the bureau's usefulness, but that is only a part of it. Mimeographed letters, lists of materials of instruction, references to literature, and the like are distributed either gratuitously or at nominal prices; and Latin Notes, a four-page paper, is issued eight times a year. The services of the bureau are free so far as possible, and Latin Notes is sent without charge to members of the Classical League. Miss Frances E. Sabin is director of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, and its address is Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Of 545 courses of study outlined last year by the public library of Cincinnati and Hamilton County, Ohio, four-fifths were devoted to cultural and one-fifth to vocational subjects. The courses in greatest demand were of English and American literature, travel, child study, the short story, psychology, philosophy, and comparative religion.

Parent-Teacher Activities in Wisconsin's Capital

First Association was Organized 27 Years Ago; Now Every School has One. Without Fixed Dues, Enough Money is Raised for Many Useful Activities. "Foreign Association" is Large and Enthusiastic

By MILDRED RUMBOLD WILKINSON

National Congress of Parents and Teachers

MADISON, WIS., organized its first parent-teacher association 27 years ago. After the first association was well under way, the value of cooperative work by teachers and parents was realized, and other associations were organized. In a short time nearly all the schools had similar working groups, but none joined the State congress until the work had developed enough for them to see that by affiliating with both the State and the national congress they would aid in extending the parent-teacher movement to the sparsely settled districts and at the same time they would reap the benefit of cooperative work.

None of the Madison associations have fixed dues, but in the common practice, receptacles are placed conveniently for the members to deposit whatever they wish. After dues to the National and State organizations and subscription to the State bulletin are paid, the funds remaining are used by the associations for the support of their own organizations and to further the work that they have undertaken. Each one of the 24 schools in Madison has its association and all belong to the city council of parent-teacher associations. This council is the clearing house and it unifies the work.

During the war the associations bought bonds; the interest on these bonds is now used to carry out special civic projects. Each association supplies its school with a magazine table and subscribes to the best magazines for both pupils and teachers. Preschool clinics and playgrounds were started by the parent-teacher associations and later turned over to the proper authorities. A member of the city council of parent-teacher associations is on each public committee and is active in all health work as well as in every movement for community betterment. The council has contributed $50 a year for the benefit of underweight and undernourished children in the "Kiddie Camp."

There is a very large and active "foreign association" in which regular and resultful Americanization work is done. The prospective American citizens are very enthusiastic, and are not only willing but anxious for the improvement of their children. Overflow meetings of this association are not unusual; at one meeting there were more than 1,100 fathers and mothers.

The associations aid in the work of the Art Guild, which is helping the schools in art appreciation. Close cooperation is maintained with the Madison Woman's Club in the "news-stand survey," in a citizenship school, and in a better homes meeting.

Mrs. George Zachow, president of the State branch of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers states in a recent issue of the bulletin, that the growth of the parent-teacher associations has been steady and healthy, due to a better understanding of the work and of what it can mean to the children when properly interpreted and administered.

Supervised Research for High-School Students

Less recitation and more study, and less home work and more supervised research, are distinctive features of the new plan of education inaugurated this fall in high-school classes of Highland Park, Mich. Following the system which has been successfully used in the high school of the University of Chicago, courses are divided into four distinct sections: The inventory test or diagnosis, to discover the capacity and previous knowledge of the student; the preview, in which the student will be given a general idea of the course of study; the assimilative period, in which the student with the aid of guide sheets engages in outside reading and research covering the period of the course; and the period of organization and recitation during which the student, in short platform talks or written theses, discusses the material studied during the assimilative period.

Contribution of 5 per cent of their gross cash sales on one day, known as "Trade Day," is the method adopted by business firms of Fairhope, Ala., of cooperating with the Parent-Teacher Association of the city in raising needed school funds.

Conditions in Hawaii Create Especial Need for Home Economics

Training for the Home Promoted by Private Organizations as Well as by Public Agencies. Model House on Wheels a Novel Method of Demonstration for Families Which Can Not be Reached Otherwise. Use of Dairy Products by Orientals is Especially Encouraged. "Home-Making Suites" Develop Thoughtful Housekeepers

By ALMA BROWN
Honolulu, Territory of Hawaii

VARIED are the races living in Hawaii. The Japanese are in the lead by a large majority. Other races in goodly numbers are the Hawaiian the Chinese, the Portuguese, the Filipino, and the Korean, with a sprinkling of the "haole" or white men from the United States, Australia, England, Germany, and elsewhere. The racial mixture, the congested manner in which so many of the people live, and the rate of mortality, which is higher than it should be, create a great need for work in home economics.

Many organizations in the Territory are carrying on some phase of home economics hoping thereby to reduce the rate of mortality through a decrease in the number of cases of malnutrition and through the improvement of the living conditions. Most prominent among these organizations are the Young Women's Christian Association, the Four H Club, the Free Kindergarten and Child's Aid Association, the nutrition department of the public schools, the private schools, the Territorial Normal and Training School, and the University of Hawaii.

The Young Women's Christian Association, under the educational director, Miss Jean Flickinger, has classes in foods, clothing, and art work. The work in foods consists of the training for the position of maid in a household, for the planning, preparation, and serving of meals, and fancy and invalid cookery. The classes in clothing study dressmaking and millinery. The art classes are instructed in color and design, and courses will be given in art novelties, paper flower and rope basketry making.

In order to give still further aid in home economics the Young Women's Christian Association has employed a demonstrator who travels about in the poorer sections of the city of Honolulu in a model house on wheels, giving lessons and demonstrations in foods, clothing, and home decoration. This is a unique way of reaching many who would not otherwise be served. In the coming year the model house is to be transferred to other islands in order that they also may be benefited by its demonstrations.

Home-making suites are commonly provided. This one is in McKinley High School, Honolulu

The Four-H Club is an organization formed as the extension division of the United States experiment station at Honolulu. The club includes both boys and girls, and the work is conducted in cooperation with other organizations and institutions interested in home economics or agriculture.

Girls of the 4-H Clubs demonstrate jelly making from Hawaiian fruits

The girls of the club, under the direction of Miss Mabel Green, are instructed in the art of home making in both clothing and foods, with emphasis on the Hawaiian fruits and vegetables.

The work aims to increase individual production and community activities. The type of work done is largely demonstrational and is given at club meetings, at fairs, and at community centers for the purpose of showing improved methods of work.

The work of the Four-H Club is furthered by various commercial firms who furnish containers for exhibiting Hawaiian fruits and vegetables.

Assists Mothers in Selecting Nourishing Foods

The free kindergarten and Child's Aid Association with the cooperation of the Junior League have been carrying on work in nutrition for the past six years under the direction of Mrs. James Russell. When the work was first begun under Mrs. Russell there were but two kindergartens and only one or two hundred mothers were reached through the monthly club meetings held to assist mothers in selecting nourishing foods for their children. At present there are 12 kindergartens with an enrollment of 1,342 children and an average attendance of 822 mothers at the monthly club meetings. Consumption of dairy products, fruits, and vegetables is stressed. The mothers seem very anxious to cooperate and to learn more about this line of work. The children of the kindergartens are delighted when they reach normal weight and can have their pictures taken with the chart showing the gain in weight.

Recently announcement has been made that the prize of $50 offered by Dr. W. P. Emerson, of Boston, for the best nutrition work accomplished during the year of 1926–27 by teachers who had received their training under him, has been awarded to the 12 kindergarten workers of Honolulu. This surely speaks well for our city and its kindergarten workers.

Public schools.—Nutrition work in our public schools is carried on under the direction of Miss Harriet Stone, who, with seven assistants, is reaching about 43,000 children in the islands.

Dairy products have never been extensively used by the orientals. The use of these products, stressed first by the kindergarten workers and continued by the nutrition workers in the public schools, is gaining ground; of the 43,000 children receiving instruction in nutrition about 18,000 are using milk daily, and for the most part this milk is paid for by the children.

Study Dietaries of Racial Groups

The nutrition workers are making a study of the dietaries of different racial groups in order to carry on more successfully their work in nutrition. One need but listen to a report of the results of their accomplishments to realize the value of this line of work.

Until the appointment two years ago of a supervisor, foods and clothing as taught in the public schools consisted largely of serving school lunches and a minimum amount of hand sewing. The lunches were prepared by the children from the third grade to and including the eighth grade, under the direction of a home-economics teacher, and were served at cost. These lunches consisted of sandwiches, milk, and nourishing soups of meats and vegetables. The purpose was primarily to provide a nutritious dish at least once a day for the school children and also to give in-

Kindergarten children are proud to exhibit their weight charts

struction in the proper scleetion and preparation of food for the family. Little attention could be given to the secondary aim in the rush of eafeteria work, espeeially where large numbers were served. In sewing little eould be aeeomplished other than the simplest handwork, beeause of laek of proper equipment.

Smith-Hughes fund.—The benefit of the Federal aet for voeational edueation was extended to the Hawaiian Islands in 1924 and Mrs. Caroline Edwards was appointed direetor of home eeonomics for the islands under that aet.

Improved Organization of School Lunch

She at onee began the organization of the work with four main objeetives in view. The first objeetive was to improve the organization of the school luneh. This improvement is aeeomplished (1) by the elimination of the ehildren below the sixth grade in the preparation of the school luneh̃es; (2) by having the non-edueational work done by eheap labor, whieh gives more time to teaeher and pupil for real edueational work; (3) by providing the new school buildings with open pavilions where the ehildren may sit while eating, thus affording opportunity to teaeh proper table manners; and (4) by an improvement of menus and the establishment of better business basis.

The seeond objeetive was to broaden the seope of the high-school program in home eeonomies and organize voeational all-day departments in both elementary and high sehools. All-around home-making elasses are being established and mueh stress is plaeed on the "home-making suite," whieh eonsists of a eottage or an apartment in keeping with those in whieh the girls live. In these eottages the girls are trained in the various phases of home making; they will help to make of the future generation more thoughtful home-keepers and better eitizens. In the eottage life eaeh girl has the opportunity to learn to make her own garments and garments for other members of the family, ineluding blouses for boys and entire layettes for the baby of the household. She is taught also the preparation of simple and nutritious food in family quantities, and she learns the how and why of house deeoration. No nursery work is yet undertaken in these cottages but it is sure to follow when the adjustments leading to it ean be made.

Opportunity for learning is afforded the girl who wishes to train for institutional management through the eafeterias in the schools, and for the girl who would earn her living by means of the needle, through classes in dressmaking.

The third objeetive is that of forming adult classes in foods, clothing, and ehild eare. Many elasses have already been started in this work and there is a demand for still more.

Cadet teachers in the normal school plan and present lessons

One glance at the pieture of the adult elass in foods in Honolulu shows how popular these elasses are and how anxious the women of the eity are to learn the best methods in cookery.

The fourth objeetive is the training of teaehers in serviee. This is aeeomplished by means of eourses offered during the summer sessions at the normal sehool under the direction of Mrs. Edwards, through Territorial conferences at the elose of the summer vaeation, and through island eonferenees and written eireulars during the sehool year.

Real Experience in Home Making

Private schools.—The home eeonomie courses in the publie and private schools have praetieally the same end in view, namely, the needs of the pupil; to train her to make the most of the eonditions as they exist on these islands. Many of the private sehools are boarding sehools and in them the girls have the advantage of real experienee in home making in almost all its phases.

The Territorial Normal and Training School offers home eeonomics to prospeetive teaehers over a period of two years and ineludes work in clothing, art, and foods. The primary aim of this institution is to teaeh students to teaeh home economies to the girls, and I hope soon to say to the boys, of the many raees on these islands.

Adult classes are popular and the women are anxious to learn

Many students come with little preparation in home economics and the foundation must be laid. In clothing this foundation is gained through garment construction, with discussions of the problems in clothing; through making costumes appropriate for the activities of the pupils in the training school and of the students in the normal school; and through outfitting rest rooms and dining rooms in the normal-school buildings. It is remarkable how the students by means of paint and brush, curtains, couch covers, and the like can transform dingy, dirty-looking rooms into bright, attractive, and comfortable places.

Weave Articles for Household Use

The weaving of articles from the leaf of the lahala tree is an art that is highly developed in the normal school. The students are taught to weave both useful and ornamental things that are used in homes and are also much sought after by tourists who wish to carry back with them something characteristic of the islands.

As the cafeteria work in the public schools is still, and I hope will continue to be, under the supervision of the home economics director, it is necessary that the home economics students of the normal school be taught the theory and the practical side of cafeteria work. This is done in the cafeteria of the home economics department of the school, where simple nutritious lunches are prepared and served by pupils under the direction of the students in training, who are carefully supervised by a home economics instructor.

Cooking in family quantities, with the cost and the food value of dishes is taught the girls in the home economics department. Food prepared by them has a ready sale to housewives who are too much occupied with other duties to spend time in the preparation of food that can be so easily obtained elsewhere.

Often entire menus for large parties, dinners, receptions, and picnics are worked out and prepared by the students of this department. Students in training are often sought by housewives who are giving large dinners, to assist in the preparation and serving of the meal. Requests are frequently received for students capable of preparing and serving a large dinner without any aid from the hostess. This experience is of great value to the students, for many of them will live in teachers' cottages while teaching and will be expected to do their part in meal planning.

As a practical exercise the senior class with the assistance of the junior class serve in each of the last two quarters of the school year "the governor's luncheon," at which his excellency is entertained. The class work out the menu, its cost and the food value, prepare the food, decorate the table and dining room, set the table, and serve the luncheon in a formal manner.

After as much instruction as can be crowded into the short time allotted to theory, the students begin their practice work under the critic teacher. They prepare plans and present lessons to the pupils in the upper grades in clothing, in Hawaiian arts, and in foods, including cafeteria service, after which they confer with the critic teacher concerning the work already done and the work to be done.

University of Hawaii.—The home economics work of the university covers four years. Six years ago the university had but one student majoring in home economics. At present 41 are enrolled in this department. This shows the progress in realization of the importance of training for homemaking. The work has just been arranged so that in the last two years of the course the student may major in either the science or the art side, according to her preference.

In the department of household science during the past six years animal feeding experiments and food analysis have received much attention. At first this work was carried on by faculty members but for the past two years advanced students have been assisting.

Garment Construction on Proper Lines

The department of household arts stresses garment construction, with due emphasis on proper lines, suitability of materials, and wise selection of accessories. Courses in millinery and in the making of ornamental trimmings are also given in this department.

It is the aim of the university to train students for teaching in the junior and senior high schools, for specializing in other lines of home economics, as well as to train in the various branches of home making.

Conclusion.—In the past two years home economics in the Territory has made rapid advancement, and one can well say a firm foundation has been laid for good work in the future. As time passes, with the helpful work of the numerous organizations interested in home economics, with Mrs. Edwards's untiring effort in giving assistance to the teachers under her supervision, with better training through lengthening the time required in preparation for the work, with the higher standards of the Territorial Normal and Training school, and with the expansion, already planned, of the home economics department of the University of Hawaii, the home life of the islands will be greatly enriched, and the future well-being of the youth of Hawaii will be vastly improved.

Contests in judging clothing are held at the territorial fair

Negroes Freely Patronize Louisville Public Library

More than 7,250 borrowers' cards are in force in the two branches maintained for colored residents by the Louisville (Ky.) Free Public Library. Circulation of books for the year ending August 31, 1926, reached 127,566. Since the opening on September 23, 1905, of the first free public library in the city for colored people, 1,857,077 volumes have been taken out for home use. The two branch libraries have become the center of much of the educational and civic life of the colored people of Louisville.

Training and Qualities Necessary to Success in Engineering

Ancient Builders of Military Roads and Fortifications Did Not Realize That They Were Engineers. Profession Arose with Modern Development of Science. Engineer Must Know and Must be Able to Do

By WILLIAM E. MOTT

Director College of Engineering, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

MOST high-school students have some idea about what they would like to do when they have finished their school or college courses. But often they know very little about the profession which they have picked out—what qualities a man should have to be successful in it, what kind of training he should follow, what kind of work he will do. The preparation that is necessary to become a physician, a minister, or a lawyer is pretty well understood. One goes to a medical school, a theological school, or a law school and you all know in a general way the duties of physicians, ministers, and lawyers. But there are other lines of work or callings about which you probably have very hazy ideas.

Engineering Schools of Recent Growth

Engineering is a comparatively new profession—much younger than either medicine, theology, or law. The first school for the training of engineers was founded only a little more than a hundred years ago. It is true that since the days of the ancients, men have done some of the same sort of work that the modern engineer does. But these men have been usually soldiers, interested in the building of fortifications and roads, for we must remember that the great highways of antiquity were constructed chiefly for the convenience of armies. And the men who built the roads were forced to build bridges and sometimes canals. A good deal was known, therefore, about some branches of engineering before anyone even thought of considering the road builder or the bridge builder or the canal builder as a member of a special profession.

The invention of the steam engine made a great change in our manner of living. Men discovered that steam could do all sorts of tasks which formerly had been performed by human hands or by water power. The men who designed or invented these new machines and engines in time came to be known as engineers.

Later it was found out that electricity could be made very useful and could take the place of steam in certain kinds of work, and there came into being a class of men who devoted themselves to the study of electricity and to putting into everyday use electric power. These men became known as electrical engineers.

And so as our knowledge of science has become greater and greater men have tried to make scientific knowledge useful and practical. They have gotten ideas from physics, chemistry, mechanics, and mathematics that have helped them to invent machines and methods of doing work which have made life more comfortable and labor less difficult. This will explain in a general way how this profession of engineering came into being.

It has been often said that we are living in a mechanical age. That this is the day of machinery is due largely to the engineer. It is natural, therefore, that this profession is one of the most popular at the present time; it has grown more rapidly than that of the lawyer, or minister, or doctor; and it is likely to increase in popularity rather than to decrease, because we are always looking for methods of doing work more quickly and easily.

Nearly every young man is interested in machinery of some kind or other, but because you know something about the automobile or the radio, it is a mistake to believe that, on that account, you will be a successful mechanical or electrical engineer. You must have also the kind of knowledge which can be gained only from books.

Working Knowledge of Mathematics is Essential

Some who are thinking about preparing themselves for this profession are asking "Shall I study engineering?" Here is a definition of engineering given by Dr. George F. Swain, of Harvard University: "Engineering is the science and art of applying, economically, the laws, forces, and materials of nature, for the use, convenience, or enjoyment of man." This means in order to become a successful engineer one must learn something about the principles of science—what are commonly called the laws of nature. One must know chemistry and physics—the more the better; mechanics, or the laws which govern the behavior of bodies, whether at rest or in motion. One must study the materials to be used by the engineer—their composition, properties, manufacture, life, and then one must study mathematics. In fact, in trying to answer the question, "Shall I study engineering?" one should first ask himself, "Am I willing to spend two years after I enter college studying mathematics?" If your marks in high school are very poor, if you have no interest whatever in this subject, the chances are that you will not make a successful engineer. If you become an engineer you will not have to spend your life solving mathematical problems, but a good working knowledge of mathematics gives one a command of methods and ways of looking at problems which can not be obtained otherwise.

Do you like drawing? It is sometimes said that "a good draftsman is born, not made"; but much can be done in developing a knowledge of the principles used in making drawings. Engineering drawing and descriptive geometry provide the means whereby the engineer puts on paper his designs and plans for carrying out his designs.

Should Understand Mechanical Processes

Chemistry, physics, mathematics, and drawing are the basic courses for the training of engineers. Then there are the shop courses which are generally required. The engineer is often compelled to direct the work of mechanics; therefore, he ought to learn something about mechanical processes in his college course. Doctor Swain says, "The engineer must know and must also be able to do. The important thing is the knowing, or the science. The engineer may not actually do a great deal with his hands, but he must at least know how to do it should it be necessary." Hence the need of training in shopwork.

Some instruction in the art of surveying is desirable for all engineers and subjects of a more general nature must be studied, since the engineer has certainly as great need for a knowledge of English, history, foreign languages, and economics as any professional or business man.

The engineering student should not get the idea that a four-year course of study, in any college or university, will make an engineer of him. When he is graduated he is just ready to begin the practical work of his profession. He should have learned the "engineer method," that is, how he should attack a problem, how to analyze and study it, before he draws his conclusions or lays out his design.

The engineer must have an excellent understanding of the English language and be able to speak and write clearly. The successful man in any profession should have some knowledge of foreign affairs. Therefore, the study of one or more of the foreign languages is desirable. History and economics are important aids in many phases of engineering work.

If you wish to become an engineer, get as broad an education in your preparatory school as possible, because the wider and more thorough your training the greater are your chances of success. Do not specialize on technical subjects in your school course. These will come later. Learn as much English as possible, study especially mathematics, foreign languages, history, physics, and chemistry.

In alphabetical order the common branches of engineering are as follows: Chemical, civil, electrical, mechanical, metallurgical, and mining engineering. There is also a new group of courses now offered in many institutions which attracts a large number of young men. They bear such names as administrative, commercial, industrial, or management engineering. These courses emphasize the business side of engineering work rather than design, construction, and operation, but they include those subjects which, earlier in this paper, were spoken of as basic in all engineering work.

Requirements of Different Branches

Now a few words about the different branches of engineering. Chemical engineering deals with the manufacture of those articles which involve chemical reactions. The student follows a rather wide variety of courses in chemistry, and, in addition, he has some instruction in the elements of electrical and mechanical engineering. He must know something about the general principles of engineering because the chemical engineer may be called upon to design, build, and operate a plant which will make chemical products.

The civil engineer, so called in the early days to distinguish him from the military engineer, is the man who designs and constructs buildings and bridges; railways, roads, and streets; waterworks, sewerage systems, and irrigation plants; canals, harbor works, and river improvement projects. His work is very diversified and he is often required to move from place to place as one project is completed and another started.

Main Subdivisions of Electrical Engineering

Electrical engineers design, manufacture, install, and operate electrical machinery and appliances. Power transmission, transportation by electrical power and the various systems of communication by means of electricity are the main subdivisions of the field of electrical engineering.

The mechanical engineer has much in common with the electrical engineer. He deals with the production of power from fuel, water, and wind and its transmission; the design and manufacture of hand and machine tools; the design and building of steel plants and other machinery in endless variety; the automobile and airplane and many other products.

The work of the metallurgical engineer is not so well understood as that of other engineers, although it offers attractive opportunities to young men interested in science. The metallurgical engineer has to do with the extracting of metals from the minerals or ores and in working these metals into forms which can be used in commerce. He must know their properties and treatment in order to fit them for uses in our everyday life.

Excellent Opportunities for Mining Engineer

Mining is one of the oldest occupations. Through it we obtain much of the raw material which we need for commerce and manufacture. The main divisions of mining are metal mining and coal mining. Coal mining is growing in importance and many mechanical improvements are being made in the coal fields, so that a young man well trained in mining theory and practice will find excellent openings and many opportunities for advancement.

There are certain subdivisions of the work of all engineers. First comes design—not that the young graduate begins his practical work by designing machines and structures, or drawing up plans and projects. Far from it! Years of apprenticeship and training may be necessary before he can originate or create something new. Designing is one of the chief functions of the engineer. Construction and manufacturing are the same thing, though we say civil and mining engineers construct their bridges or mining structures, while the chemical, electrical, mechanical, and metallurgical engineers manufacture their machines or products.

Many Engineers Required for Administration

But the engineer's design will not run itself. It must be looked after, guided, supervised, directed, and many engineers are employed in these tasks which may be summed up by the words operation and administration. The management of employees is usually one of the duties of an operating engineer. There are also many opportunities for young men to become sales engineers.

Finally, research offers an attractive field of work for the engineering graduate. A few men are eager to take up what is commonly called pure research; that is, the search after new scientific discoveries. Applied or commercial research has to do with the making of new materials or the discovery of new and simpler ways of doing things.

The engineer leads a strenuous life and good physique and sound health are important. A physical handicap will limit one's opportunities for employment. It must always be remembered that the college course is the beginning of the technical training. The successful engineer remains a student to the end of his days, and "book learning" must keep pace with technical knowledge and skill.

With intelligence, good training, good health, a liking for creating things, an ability to work hard and be patient, the young engineer need not worry about opportunities for advancement. They will come to him as he shows his ability to accept responsibility and to do well whatever he is assigned to do.

Care for Virginia Teachers Threatened with Illness

A "preventorium" for Virginia teachers who need preventive medical treatment has been provided by the Virginia Education Association. It will be located at Charlottesville, in the hospital unit of the University of Virginia, now under construction, and will embrace 20 rooms, accommodating 20 patients at a time. Under the arrangement entered into with the university, a contribution of $40,000 is made by the association toward the cost of the building, $20,000 of which has already been paid, the remaining $20,000 to be paid upon completion of the building.

The charge to teachers will be $4 per day, with a minimum charge of $15 to any patient. This will cover the cost of professional service, room, nursing, board, etc. Physicians and surgeons of the hospital agree to make no charge to patients in the preventorium. Their services include examinations, diagnoses, laboratory tests, X-ray examinations, operations, prescriptions, medical treatment, nursing, and other necessary services.

Arrangements with the university for operation of the preventorium are practically the same as the arrangement now in effect with the Catawba Sanatorium for tuberculous patients, where the association has for several years successfully maintained a teachers' pavilion.

Entomology and Botany for Rural Schools

A nature study project involving a special study of common birds and insects for seventh grade pupils and a similar study of trees, flowers, and weeds for pupils in the eighth grade are in preparation by the department of public instruction of Michigan, for use in rural agricultural schools. The work will combine home and school activities, and may be correlated with regular courses in English, geography, agriculture, and general science; it will be a prerequisite for courses in botany and zoology. It is expected that the course will be given by regular teachers, supervised by the teacher of agriculture.

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian, Bureau of Education

BUFFALO EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL. Adult education in a community; a survey of the facilities existing in the city of Buffalo, New York. New York, American association for adult education [1927] xv, 192 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

The Buffalo educational council is composed of representatives of the various institutions and organizations in Buffalo working in the field of adult education. Its president is Dr. Samuel P. Capen, chancellor of the University of Buffalo, and C. S. Marsh, dean of the evening session of the same university, was director of this survey. The first part of the report presents a study of the facilities in Buffalo for adult training in all grades, together with certain general considerations and also recommendations for improvement of present conditions. The second part relates to the individual adult student—his personal characteristics, the problem of getting him back into classes, and his program of studies.

CHASE, JOSEPHINE. New York at school; a description of the activities and administration of the public schools of the city of New York; in collaboration with the school authorities. New York, Public education association of the city of New York, 1927. xii, 268 p. 8°.

This is said to be the first book produced which presents a comprehensive picture, concisely expressed, of the New York city school system as a whole, in a form in which the average citizen may see its numerous activities in relation to one another. The work of the schools is here described in a noncritical way, without any attempt at appraisal, by sketching briefly the origin of the several activities, regular and special, from the kindergarten to teacher-training, the way in which they are being carried on, and their purposes.

DAWSON, EDGAR, *and others*. Teaching the social studies. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xvi, 405 p. maps. 8°. (Teachers' professional library, ed. by Nicholas Murray Butler.)

Nicholas Murray Butler says in his introduction to this book that it offers an analysis and an interpretation of the social sciences as educational material which are in many respects novel and in all respects helpful to the intelligent teacher. Professor Dawson emphasizes what he believes to be the underlying and informing purpose of all instruction in the social studies—a faith that the progress of the race may be advanced through social use of scientific knowledge about the character of mankind. Eight chapters by specialists follow, dealing respectively with geography, biology, psychology, economics, political science, ethics, history, and sociology. The concluding chapters take up objectives, the curriculum, and methods of teaching the social studies; also laboratory aids, tests and examinations, and qualifications and training of the teacher.

ENGELHARDT, N. L., *and* ENGELHARDT, FRED. Public school business administration. New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, Bureau of publications, 1927. xiv, 1,068 p. tables. 8°.

For this volume the business management of schools has been interpreted as including most of those aspects of school administration which are not directly related to classroom instruction, the training and supervision of teachers, the selection of textbooks and educational equipment, and the determination of the subject matter of the curriculum. The purpose is to set up standards and to suggest practices in all phases of fiscal management, and to indicate the problems arising in the field of the maintenance and the operation of school buildings and in the care and use of equipment. The authors undertake to state the general principles which should guide in the determination of practices in certain aspects of school business administration.

JUDD, CHARLES HUBBARD. Psychology of secondary education. Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1927] xiv, 545 p. diagrs. 12°.

The scope of the treatment undertaken in this work is broader than is the scope of the author's earlier book, "Psychology of high-school subjects," which the present volume supersedes. In the preface we are told that the heart of this book is an analysis of the mental processes which pupils exhibit in studying particular high-school subjects, while new general material has been incorporated which aims to extend the discussion to all phases of secondary education. The author has utilized the results of recent research, experience, and reflection in his subject.

LA RUE, DANIEL WOLFORD. Mental hygiene. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. x, 443 p. diagrs. 8°.

The appearance of this book is an indication of the increasing attention which is now paid to the study and teaching of mental hygiene. This volume is an introduction to the science of mental health, for the information of teachers and others interested. It shows how a fine, strong, hgyienic, happy personality may be developed, as a basis for social service of any sort, especially in dealing with children, for which appropriate directions are given in the concluding section of the volume.

O'ROURKE, L. J. Self-aids in the essentials of grammatical usage. Washington, D. C., Educational and personnel publishing company [1927]. vi, 202 p. 12°.

This manual presents a method of drill in the essentials of English usage. The content of the book is based upon the results of research studies, such as the study of frequency of error by Charters and Miller, the seven-year program of Stormzand and O'Shea, with the resultant error quotient, and additional studies made by O'Rourke. Charts are included which show graphically the effective results of use of the book reported by teachers in junior high schools in Washington, D. C.

SHAW, FRANK L. State school reports. New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1926. 3 p. l., 142 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Teachers college, Columbia university. Contributions to education, no. 242)

This study traces the history of State school reporting, discusses the activities of State school departments, and shows the place that the annual report should occupy in the program of a State school organization. It analyzes current reports, pointing out their merits and defects. Finally, it gives a list of practical suggestions as to what material should be included in an annual report and how it should be arranged and presented.

UHL, WILLIS L. Secondary school curricula. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xx, 582 p. tables. 8°.

For a background to his discussion of present-day curriculum problems, the author begins by tracing the origin and development of secondary school curricula from primitive times to the present, thus revealing some principles of curriculum construction which apparently have always operated. He points out some of the relative advantages and weaknesses of the various bases for formulating the curriculum, and in conclusion attempts to crystallize a code of basic principles of curriculum construction and administration.

WALLIN, J. E. WALLACE. Clinical and abnormal psychology; a textbook for educators, psychologists, and mental hygiene workers. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton Mifflin company [1927] xxii, 649 p. front., illus., tables, diagrs. 12°. (Riverside textbooks in education, ed. by E. P. Cubberley.)

Dr. Wallin is author of an earlier volume in this series dealing with instructional procedures with handicapped children. The present textbook is primarily concerned with psychological methods and diagnostic technique, with a consideration of the causes for and the educational implications of each type of mental defect.

WILLIAMS, JESSE FEIRING. The principles of physical education. Philadelphia and London, W. B. Saunders company [1927] xxv, 17–481 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

Doctor Williams gives in this volume those methods which he himself has practiced in the development of individuals. The four aims of the book are specifically: First, the development of the organic systems of the individual through physical activities, so as to give vitality, health, strength, and power; second, the development of the neuro-muscular system, particularly in relation to its control over certain fundamental skills; third, the development of favorable attitudes toward play; fourth, the development of standards of conduct by instilling standards of fair play.

WOOD, THOMAS DENISON *and* CASSIDY, ROSALIND FRANCES. The new physical education; a program of naturalized activities for education toward citizenship. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xiii, 457 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

The natural program in physical education, as used in the department of physical education at teachers college, Columbia University, New York city, has now had 15 years of scientific research in the formulation, application, and testing of theory and practice. The material is now formulated for publication in response to a growing demand for a text and guide in the natural program. It is a program of physical-education activities which is organized with full respect for human nature and its desirable original, inherited impulses, and is intended to serve the needs of each individual and each social group.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1927

BRING THE COLLEGE TO THE STUDENTS

ITH the rapid spread and development of the junior high school, there is no reason any longer for retarding the abler students. Sufficient progress has been made with intelligence and other tests to select a sufficiently numerous student body in the larger high schools not for rapid advancement but for intensive treatment. The American and English student shows a healthy resistance to overwork, and there is adequate evidence that there is no danger of overburdening boys or girls by completing the present high-school requirements by sixteen. The next step beyond this is not to send such students to college but to bring the college to them. The introduction of junior college work into the high school for those who are known to be capable of profiting thereby is the logical corollary to the establishment of the high school. Then only will the American high school be on a par with European secondary schools.

—I. L. KANDEL.

TEACHER'S FUNCTION TO PROVOKE PERSONAL THOUGHT

LL TRUE EDUCATION above rudimentary mechanical training is in the main self-education with assistance under guidance and stimulation. The tutor can help, but he can not supply the place of effort on the part of the student. Massage does not take the place of exercise in developing strength—a truth that applies not only to the learning of a definite subject, but still more to preparation for the battle of life. So far has this been forgotten that to the public, and probably to most members of the teaching profession, the words "education" and "instruction" are synonymous; whereas in fact instruction is a means and only one means to education. For that reason there has been a tendency to teach too much and study too little. What we need is to provoke personal thought as compared with receptivity, and this is exactly the function of the tutor. It is his business, not to supply the student with information, but to tell him where he can find it; not to present to him ideas, but to make him work them out himself by reading and discussion—in short, to help the student to educate himself from books and other material within his reach

A. Lawrence Lowell

SCHOOL LIFE

Volume XIII
Number 4

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1927

THE DAIRY PROJECT OFFERS A WIDE FIELD OF STUDY

Published Monthly [except July and August] by the Department of the Interior
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CONTENTS

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SCHOOL LIFE

Published Monthly, except July and August, by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education
Secretary of the Interior, HUBERT WORK - - - - - *Commissioner of Education*, JOHN JAMES TIGERT

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Time Has Come for Clear Definition of Institutional Functions

Flood Tide of Students is Overtaxing Facilities of Higher Educational Institutions and Has Projected New and Serious Problems. Constantly Increasing Cost will Serve as Check upon Indefinite Growth. Raised Requirements Have Reduced Some Unwieldy Student Bodies, and Some Universities Have Abandoned Two Years of College Work. Proper Emphasis upon Extracurricular Activities is Desirable

By HUBERT WORK
Secretary of the Interior

NOTHING is constant but change, and we may have arrived at a point where the modern university requires careful definition. What is the function of higher education at the present time? What are its objectives? What is the relation of the college to the university? What have we a right to expect of those who have enjoyed the opportunities and privileges of higher training at nominal cost to them, but at enormous costs contributed from many sources?

Before the late war, the American college differed little in certain respects from a manufacturing concern. A plant was erected, a faculty employed, and sources of income sought and established either through public taxation or by private bounty. These arrangements required raw material for fabrication, a student body, and active efforts were made to gather it. Advertising campaigns were waged; field agents were sent out to court patronage and good will. There was hardly a college or university that was not eager for more students.

Student Bodies Numbered in Thousands

A flood tide of students has set in, compelling more teachers, requiring additional buildings, overtaxing the facilities and accommodations of universities and colleges. Where student bodies were listed by hundreds they are now numbered in thousands. Resources which yesterday appeared ample are to-day inadequate to meet the demands of those who seek higher learning. Some of the causes for this quest are readily discernible, chief among which, no doubt, is the era of unprecedented prosperity which we have enjoyed in recent years. Other things being equal, the patronage of the colleges and universities is directly correlated with the economic resources of the people. It is fair to suppose that a new intellectual interest has been awakened, but it is certain that never before have so many of the American people had the means to seek and secure the advantages of a college education.

How Shall Students be Selected?

The present situation in the colleges and universities has projected new and serious problems upon those responsible for their administration. Should all who apply be admitted? If so, how are they to be accommodated? If some are to be eliminated, how is the selection to be made? If there is to be a wider enjoyment of the privileges of higher education, how should this affect the curriculum and the functions of the university and the college? These are queries presented to our Government Bureau of Education and the scholarly minds of educators are taxed to answer.

A university is the resultant of many social forces. It is the complex of varied factors, some of which are not readily isolated or abstracted. At the present moment, higher education seems to be the fashion, a passion of the American people, as politics or religion.

Beginning with a single small institution in the early part of the seventeenth century, facilities for higher education are now offered in nearly a thousand universities and colleges in the United States. I am told that these institutions at present have an enrollment of more than 800,000 students, which is approximately the number of students enrolled in colleges and universities throughout the rest of the world. This insinuating vine of higher learning has crept into all sections of the nation and blooms in the smallest communities. It is the culmination of that democratic aspiration in the hearts of the pioneers who first settled in America and whose descendents have developed it.

Can not Extinguish Aspirations of Centuries

Many have coveted learning as an intellectual pleasure, others as a possible equalizer of natural inequalities. The hope has always existed that somehow, through the advantages of education, the weak might be made strong, the poor might be made rich, and the slow might be made swift, that the burden of existence might be eased. Vain hopes often, but it is unlikely that an aspiration which has burned for three centuries in the heart of the people will suddenly be extinguished.

Nevertheless, the enormous and constantly increasing cost of maintaining our high schools and huge higher educational machinery will in itself serve as a check on an indefinite growth in our universities.

Principal portion of address before the Associated Pennsylvania Clubs, Washington, D. C., Nov. 7, 1927.

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The time has come when economic necessity as well as sound educational procedure requires clear definition of institutional functions. We can not afford to take long forward steps in our expansion of higher education until we can answer more definitely than now seems possible the question of the place of the college and the university in the scheme of modern society. Educators say that no new institutions should be established and old ones should not be enlarged without a definite program and after articulation has been carefully determined.

Many Higher Institutions Have Been "Surveyed"

As a layman, I would not indicate the course that higher education should take. This is a question to try the mettle of the boldest spirits among our educational leaders. That this is the important prevailing problem among them is indicated by the fact that more than two-score institutions of higher learning, at their request, have been surveyed by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior and advised as to readjustments of their curricula, since I have been its Secretary. These include 12 universities and colleges in Oregon, under a State law requiring institutions of higher learning in that State to be accredited by the United States Bureau of Education; 13 colleges and universities in Arkansas; the State University of Arizona; the higher educational systems of Massachusetts, Kansas, and Tennessee; the Agricultural College and the State College for Women in North Carolina; the State Industrial College of Georgia; Western Reserve University and Case School of Applied Science; the University of Utah and the State Agricultural College; and the State University of New Jersey. The department is now engaged in a study of 78 Negro universities and colleges at the request of the presidents of the institutions, and is making a survey of the 69 land-grant colleges.

Restlessness Can Not be Ignored

It is apparent that some solution must be found to the problems which have been raised. A well-known writer has recently advocated the abolition of the university and the college, as outworn institutions, whose functions can be better performed by other agencies and organizations in the society of the future. This is, of course, an extreme view, but we can hardly ignore the restlessness which is manifest in educational circles.

Conditions have a great tendency to right themselves, but this can be hastened by intelligent direction. Already student bodies are being made less unwieldy through special raised requirements, and over-grown institutions are bravely attempting selection. It appears that a number of leading American universities have already indicated their purpose to abandon the first two years of the curriculum in liberal arts, long discussed. This will enable the smaller colleges to have a more definite place in the general plan of education. After two years of grounding in the languages, mathematics, and the sciences, students will be prepared to enter the universities for intensive training along professional lines or for the discovery of new knowledge through research and investigation. At present, lacking definite purpose and with only vague objectives, students are herded through some of our big institutions with little contact with instructors and with little thought for the future's demands.

Foundation Training Often Not Coherent

The general education now offered as a basis for specialized professional training and higher intensive scholarship is too often not coherent. The foundation it offers must prove inadequate to support a scholarly or professional structure. We have, on the one hand, those who have been polished in college but who have not obtained the necessary knowledge or skill to do one thing well, and, on the other hand, the ignorant specialist. Overeducation of mediocrity and undereducation of superior ability are both community evils. Most men could do twice as much if correlated and systematized, and do it better, if they would. This is largely true of school pupils also, if the value of five minutes be stressed.

If the university of the future will leave the task of preparation to the high school and the college, it ought to be able to rid itself of unwieldy masses of unfitted students and perform its proper function in the fields of professional training and the discovery of new truths. I do know that boys can be kept in universities until too old to learn how to make a living.

Must Determine What Function is Performed

We in America have reached the point where we need not only to define the place of the college and the university in the scheme of education, but, likewise and more important, we must determine what function the institution of higher learning is performing in our society. Is it the purpose of our colleges and universities to provide adornment for the intellects of persons of leisure; to enable the masses to secure the means of livelihood and enter avenues leading into the higher professions; to furnish a few years of irresponsible, but happy, social environment; or to create the possibility of fame and renown through athletic prowess or literary achievement? Are the purposes of higher learning to be found in one or all of these or similar directions? These questions are easily asked, but it can not be said that there are one or two important services for the college or university to perform and that coincident results may be regarded in the light of by-products.

Extracurricular Activities must be Incidental

I think we can agree that the primary objects of going to college should be to secure worth-while information that will enable men and women to succeed in after life; mold sterling character, create worthy citizenship, and perpetuate all that civilization implies. If so, the curriculum of studies should provide, for the most part, the means of attaining these ends. Doubtless, the extracurriculum activities contribute in a measure to the desired results, but it should be remembered that the athletic life, the fraternal, dramatic, and other social organizations are but subsidiary and incidental to the main purposes of the curriculum, and that students who majored in them are likely to be troubled in the world.

Athletics were introduced into the college, and are justified in our educational philosophy, on the theory that strong minds develop in strong bodies and that through the medium of wholesome games, bodily strength is generated and maintained. But should athletics occupy as important a place in the minds of students and alumni as the serious work of the institutions, suggesting to students that we consider athletics a more significant phase of college life than the acquisition of sound learning or the training for good citizenship—"mistaking pastime for life's highest aim"?

More Wholesome Condition is in Prospect

We see indications that college and university authorities are moving to place proper emphasis and perspective upon the several institutional activities. A right and sound theory of education demands that the more essential things be first, and the lesser regulated. Some of our greater universities are beginning to frown upon overbuilt stadia, commercialized athletic practices, and unwarranted inducements for bringing star athletes to college. Our sister institution, the Pennsylvania State College, recently took high ground when its athletic council determined to abolish scholarships provided for athletes, and announced that in the future no "scouting" will be done in order to discover in advance the character of play of visiting teams. All may not agree with this policy, but I believe that substantially all of the alumni who have the welfare of the institution at heart will regard such steps as wholesome. They indicate that we are commencing to reevaluate the activities and objectives of the modern university.

I do not wish to be understood as decrying these activities in toto. Athletics

have a legitimate place in the school and the college. They provide a wholesome safety valve for the energy and enthusiasm of youth and are a medium for creating institutional spirit and loyalty. Fraternal organizations also have an important place in providing an opportunity for the development of the humanitarian and social instincts, but all of these are subject to limitation and by their excesses create problems on the campus.

We stand before the world to-day, the richest and most powerful nation of all time, but it may be questioned whether America is able to make a spiritual and intellectual contribution to civilization proportionate to her material resources. Our favored economic and political position at the present time may be accounted for in large measure by our steadfast faith and adherence to the principle of free universal education and the success with which we have pursued our aspirations. Serious purposes must be clearly defined; instrumentalities for the consummation of these purposes need be provided; minor objectives should be subordinated to great ends; and the future faced with courageous devotion and unswerving adherence to the visions we may be gifted to see.

American School in Mexico Needs Books

In Mexico City is an institution that is unique in foreign countries—an American school with grades from kindergarten through high school, from which students are admitted without examination to those colleges in the United States that receive students on certificate.

The teaching staff is composed of American men and women who have come from institutions in the United States. The control is under a board of trustees of American residents. Out of 700 pupils 50 per cent are Mexicans; the remainder American and other nationalities. Some are from the families of the highest Mexican officials of the country. Ambassador Morrow has just placed his daughter in this school.

An adequate home in building and grounds, free from debt, has lately been provided by local residents and patrons of the school. Two essentials are still lacking, a real library and an auditorium.

The undersigned, as a member of the library committee, is seeking to enlist the interest and help of American publishers in this work, which offers an opportunity to strengthen and improve the relations between the United States and its southern neighbors through education and right information. Good books are messengers of amity, peace, and progress. The people of Spanish-American countries need to know and understand better the history, character, and life of the people of the United States. The youth of to-day will be the citizens to-morrow.

The chairman of the library committee is Mr. Alexander W. Weddell, the American Consul General here. He believes with the writer that this work is not only worthy but highly important. We are submitting the matter to leading American publishers in the hope that they will respond with a donation of selected volumes in any number, large or small, from their own publications—books suitable for a school library used by pupils of all ages. We are preparing a bookplate on which the name of the donor will be inscribed in each volume.—*S. W. Rider, Apartado 123 Bis, Mexico City, Mexico.*

Graduate schools of education were attended this summer by the county superintendent and 11 of the 13 principals of township high schools in Kosciusko County, Ind. The two principals who did not attend hold M. A. degrees. Of the 189 teachers of county schools, 80 per cent spent either the summer or the previous school year in study in colleges or normal schools.

Story of the Christmas Seal Drive in Oak Park High School

Students Raised $8,694 This Year by Sale of Christmas Seals. Interest Stimulated by Competition Between Boys and Girls; and the Girls Always Win. Idea of Service to Others Is Inculcated

By JOHN BRUNN
Student, Oak Park (Ill.) High School

BEHIND the double-barred cross which led the Crimean soldiers to victory another army wages a war, but far different from that of the ancient soldiers. It is now not a war to kill men, but to save them. Each year, in the month of December, Christmas seals are sent to the Oak Park High School of Oak Park, Ill., and it is the duty of each student to take his share and sell them. Duty, yes, but even more, a privilege and a pleasure. Some people, unacquainted with the drive, can see neither romance nor interest in the idea, but the Oak Park High School for eight years has been engaged in the drive at Christmas time, and each year has found steadily increasing enjoyment in this service to the community.

Humanity thrives on a good fight, and in the Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, the boys are pitted against the girls in the contest. The battle is fought in a desperate frenzy by the boys, since they have been forced to accept defeat for a number of years, as far back as the girls care to remember, but each new year brings them a chance to attain their rightful position.

As a result of the friendly competition, a real work is done in the community. Perhaps the most tangible evidence is the neat, stucco building situated in the center of 75,000 people, called the Oak Park Health Center. It is here that a trained nurse has her office., and booklets on the care and prevention of tuberculosis are distributed. Here, too, an eminent physician holds weekly chest clinics at which he examines the many who come for help. But all the work is not done in the health center. In the year 1926 the nurse made 2,569 home visits that she might properly investigate cases.

The Oak Park Health Center requires money with which to operate. Water, heating, gas, salaries, electricity, and many other little things are paid for by Christmas seals. In the few weeks that seals are sold enough money is raised to support the activities of the center—and more. The money required for one year is about $5,000, and since the students are able to send more than $8,000 the health center sends the surplus money to centers which are not self-supporting.

Undoubtedly these students and all others who took part in the drive obtained a great deal of good from it. Salesmanship was taught, but there was a value greater and far more important received. This was the idea of service to others. The scholastic side of life is well taken care of in the schools by the studies, the social life by the clubs, the physical side by athletics, but the idea of having a brotherly feeling for others is taken care of by the stamp drive. Realizing the value and joy of service is one of the greatest things that can be learned.

The Oak Park High School has worked for 10 years persistently and willingly on this project. It has made possible the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis in its community. It has supported 236 clinics at which people were examined in 1926. It has contributed an average amount of $7,250 in the last five years. It pays a full-time specially trained nurse, and it can proudly write after its name, "Holder of world's record in sale of Christmas seals."

Portions of essay which won first prize.

Foreign Projects of Children's Fund of American Junior Red Cross

Fund Established to Continue Relief Work Begun During World War. Enterprises Undertaken in Many European Countries, Asia, and American Islands. Outstanding Project is Maintenance of Albanian Vocational School

By ELLEN McBRYDE BROWN
American Junior Red Cross

NATIONAL CHILDREN'S FUND was established in 1919 by the American Junior Red Cross to continue the relief work for children begun in Europe during the World War by students in American schools. The earliest projects were in France and Belgium. Since then, enterprises have been undertaken in almost every country of Europe, in some parts of Asia, in our own country, and in the islands of the sea. The million and a quarter dollars invested was earned or saved by personal sacrifices.

Children's Fund Stimulates Local Activity

Most of the projects are in time taken over by people in the country concerned, often by Junior Red Cross groups. The organization of such groups in some 40 countries has been inspired and in some cases helped by the children's fund. About 25 Junior Red Cross magazines are now published, and some of them are underwritten temporarily by American juniors. This is valuable service because some countries lack suitable children's literature.

Some of the calls upon the children's fund continue from year to year. Such is its use for disaster relief abroad, for example, aid to Japanese boys and girls after the earthquake. The fund finances the annual shipment of Christmas boxes for many children who have had little Christmas since the war. These boxes go to 18 European countries and to Haiti, Porto Rico, the Canal Zone, the Virgin Islands, and Guam.

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Albanian boys enter heartily into American sports

Enterprises more or less temporary are so numerous and so varied that description is difficult. Among those which might be called health projects are providing playgrounds and clubhouses and teaching children how to play; furnishing school lunches and equipping school kitchens; and establishing sanitariums and camps for tubercular or undernourished children. To mention some specific instances, the fund has helped to combat blindness among Chinese children, to open dental clinics in Iceland and in the Philippines, and to provide instruction in swimming and life-saving in Estonia. By such means our school children have introduced the "health game" by which boys and girls all over Europe are competing in health-giving activities.

In the field of art, the children's fund has provided materials for handwork in the native arts of Rumania, Hungary, Greece, and other countries. It kept in existence the famous children's art class of Professor Cizek at Vienna.

Direct Service to Educational Enterprises

The following are examples of projects giving direct service to educational enterprises: Establishing a school for cripples in Prague; supplying seed and tools for agricultural undertakings, including the famous medicinal herb gardens of Poland; and helping found orphanage schools in eight countries of Europe.

In all children's fund undertakings the aim is immediate relief and also the initiation of projects providing such occupation to the boys and girls helped as will restore a normal outlook on life and inspire confidence in their own ability to help themselves and others.

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The school shop at Tirana has the only modern plant in Albania

Copyright A. R. C.
Boards for the new building were sawed by primitive methods

These comprehensive projects are intended also to benefit students in our own schools. They give practice in earning and handling money, enable the pupils to put knowledge into practice and aid in unifying the curriculum. The civic value of this continuous experience in national and international cooperation is evidenced in many ways. For example, in Shoumen, Bulgaria, there is a school for Russian refugee boys and girls. This school was "adopted" by the Bulgarian Junior Red Cross which owes its origin to assistance from America. When, out of their slender resources, the Bulgarian children attempted to help these destitute refugees, the American children's fund furnished materials for the Bulgarians to use in making clothing for the Russians. The international cycle was completed during the Mississippi flood when these Russian refugees sacrificed their breakfasts for several days and sent the money saved for the relief of American children.

Albanian Vocational School at Tirana

Among the most striking of present undertakings of the National Children's Fund of the American Junior Red Cross is support of the Albanian Vocational School at Tirana. Of this school it has been said that "perhaps nowhere else in the world is so much real bedrock educational work being done with less equipment and less expenditure." President Ahmet Zogu considers the school as "Albania's most priceless asset."

The vocational school was opened in 1921 by the American Junior Red Cross and is still largely maintained by them, although ultimately the school, with the aid of the Government, will be able to take care of itself. At the time of its founding, there were only three other secondary schools in the country and no industrial or technical schools.

At the end of the first year the Government turned over to the school the unfinished "Albanian College" begun by the Young Turks in 1910. Everyone helped with the building. Timber was cut in the national forest reserve on the 27th of the month because if cut on that lucky day it would last for 700 years. The logs were floated to the sea and up the coast to Durazzo where an abandoned military railroad was rehabilitated to carry them to Tirana. Boards were cut from them by great handsaws as had been done for many generations. Bricks were made by workers from Kavaja, from time immemorial the pottery center of the country. Prisoners were sent by the Government to dig the foundations. The walls were laid by the men of Dibra who are said to be "born with trowels in their hands." The boys of the school worked enthusiastically. When completed, it was the finest building in Albania. This building and the installation of machinery for the first instruction in manual arts was under the supervision of a mechanical engineer who is a native Albanian and a graduate of the University of Malta. At the dedication ceremonies he started the machinery of the only thoroughly modern plant in the country with the words: "You revolving irons, which obey those who are able to order you, I order you to be obedient to the boys of the Albanian Vocational School in the formation of the Albanian Industrial State. Take your good and eternal way and be it the will of the Great God that you may help this State as you have helped other States and that you may prepare a suitable place for this Nation among the places of other nations which are the wonder of the world."

Instruction is in English Language

Admission to the school is by competitive examination in the elementary schools. Instruction in mechanics, carpentry, electricity, and agriculture is in the English language at the request of the Albanian Government, since the native language, long suppressed by the Turks, does not contain the essential technical terminology. There are now about 200 students and 16 teachers. The school has a student council, a student bank, a cooperative store, a dramatic club, athletic teams, and an unusually good school paper, "Laboremus," printed by the students themselves.

The spirit of the students is shown by the strenuous efforts and sacrifices they

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Steel plows drawn by a tractor have superseded the ancient equipment

make to enter and remain in school. A cobbler's apprentice in Durazzo walked 40 miles to Tirana and presented himself to the director with the words: "I am 13 years old. I have no money and no tools, but my mind desires knowledge as a desert desires rain. If you will buy for me a set of cobbler's tools, which will cost 100 lira, I will work every hour I am not studying or sleeping. I will make and mend all the shoes for the school. When I am a man I will pay back the hundred lira."

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Approved methods of irrigation are taught to schoolboys

The school has already accomplished much for itself and for the country as a whole. Tirana is the only town in Albania with electric lights. These are supplied by a plant maintained at the school and operated by the boys themselves, who are keenly anxious to "make" the light plant crew. The school has one of the three ice plants in the country. The school shops make woodwork for public buildings. It has been recommended that the new American Legation in Tirana be built by the boys. The machine shop makes apparatus which would otherwise have to be imported at heavy expense. A tractor, something unheard of before in Albania, plows the school farm. An example of repair work done outside the school was the engine of the village mill at Cherma which had broken down and remained unused for seven years because nobody knew how to repair it. The people had been carrying their wheat 15 miles over rough mountain trails to another mill until the boys at the school repaired the engine.

Have Opportunities Unknown to Fathers

In 1926 the first class was graduated. One of the graduates, speaking for the class, said in part: "No words of ours can express our gratitude toward you, boys and girls of that other land, which save for our own, is the dearest land of all. Our mothers and fathers, unfortunate in that they had no opportunities for school, fortunate in that their sons have had such opportunities, from the deepest well of their hearts send their greeting and thanks to the mothers and fathers of the children of the American Junior Red Cross for the blessing they have bestowed."

New Nebraska Law Requires Character Education

A course of study in character education, published recently by the Nebraska State Department of Education, was introduced this fall in schools of the State. This is in conformity with an act passed by the 1927 session of the legislature, requiring that beginning this year special emphasis be given in schools to morality, courtesy, obedience to law, respect for the flag of the United States, the constitutions of the United States and the State of Nebraska, and other attributes which tend to promote upright citizenship. Separate outlines are provided for the nursery school and kindergarten, primary grades, intermediate grades, and junior and senior high school.

As time for preparation of the course was limited, the present text is considered tentative, and it is expected that constructive criticism by teachers and citizens will assist in the development of a course that will enable the schools to accomplish all that they can be fairly expected to achieve in character education.

Free Instruction in Italian for Finns

Count Pagliano, the Italian minister to Finland, has decided to organize in Helsingfors free courses in the Italian language, in order to bring closer Italian and Finnish relations. Two different courses will be arranged, both free of charge. The first course will give instruction in grammar and the second course will give instruction in conversation on musical, legal, technical, and military matters. In each course two lessons a week will be taught by natives of Italy. In addition to this, a small reading room will be established for persons who desire to read Italian newspapers and periodicals. An information bureau for students will also be maintained, which it is hoped will prove to be especially useful for professors and students in the university and high schools and for journalists and persons who intend to travel in Italy.—*Barton Hall, American Chargé d'Affaires, Helsingfors.*

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The farm had been worked for generations, but only the surface soil had been turned

Visual Education Aided by Parent-Teacher Associations

Associations Throughout the Country are Supplying Visual Equipment to Schools Which Can Not Procure it Otherwise. National Congress of Parents and Teachers Maintains Active Committee on Motion Pictures

By MILDRED RUMBOLD WILKINSON
National Congress of Parents and Teachers

VISUAL education is becoming an important factor in both home and school life. The visual department of the Los Angeles public schools made a test of the educational value of the motion picture. In a third grade a class was shown the film of "Nanook of the North" which was supplemented by lantern slides and exhibits. Another class of third-grade children was given the usual verbal instruction upon the subjects covered by the film. Later the same examination was given both groups, with the result that the group receiving the information through the eye showed 37 per cent greater knowledge than the other group.

In every part of the country, especially in the rural districts, parent-teacher associations are aiding the schools by supplying visual education equipment where it is most needed and when the school budgets are inadequate.

It is estimated that in the United States from fifteen to twenty million people attend the movies regularly, Eighty per cent of this number are under 24 years of age, and it is this group of young people which constitutes "the community movie problem."

Booklet Contains Useful Suggestions

Mrs. Morey V. Kerns, of Philadelphia, Pa., is the motion picture chairman for the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. She has recently published a booklet called "Motion Pictures" which gives suggestions for committee work, an alphabetical list of recommended films with blank pages for supplementary lists, names and addresses of motion picture distributors, sources for nontheatrical pictures, and a short bibliography on the subject. This booklet may be obtained at a nominal price by writing to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington, D. C.

The University of California has issued a booklet of classified films of 1 to 12 reels, covering many subjects. These films can be rented by schools and clubs. The executive secretary of the visual instruction department states that an average of 770 motion-picture films and 22 sets of slides were distributed monthly last year. Many other universities are carrying on similar work.

The Los Angeles Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations has a regular meeting the first Wednesday of each month for all motion-picture chairmen for discussion and information on the motion-picture problem.

In the fourteenth district of California one Congregational Church shows films that are listed in the Child Welfare Magazine. In this district the movie theater manager cooperates with the Analy Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations in furnishing tickets to some of the educational films for children who can not afford to buy them.

State Congress Adopts Fixed Policies

Mrs. Ercel McAteer, assistant director of the visual education department of the Los Angeles schools, has been appointed State chairman of visual education for the California Congress of Parents and Teachers. Mrs. McAteer attended the State board meeting in Santa Cruz in August and presented the following policies of her department, which were accepted:

1. Cultivate the taste of both adults and children for worth-while photoplays and give them pleasure of a finer kind.
2. Introduce the child to the wonders and beauties of nature.
3. Help the child to understand people and inculcate ideals of character and conduct.
4. Bring about closer affiliation of district film chairmen and those persons in the various school systems immediately interested in visual education.
5. Cause a fuller realization of the definite obligation of parents to children for a more careful selection of the films they permit their children to witness.
6. Make a careful list of the finer productions.
7. Formation of adult groups for the study of the psychological effect of different types of photoplays upon children.
8. Adult survey of exhibitor's reaction to public desires in smaller communities.
9. Encourage parent attendance not only for chaperonage but for mutual discussion, enjoyment, and companionship.

For the past four years the better films committee of the Nashville (Tenn.) Council of Parent-Teacher Associations has visited motion-picture and vaudeville shows reporting those meeting their approval and making no mention of the others. This report is sent to the motion-picture chairman of each association and the reports are placed on the bulletin boards in the schools for the benefit of parents and students.

The motion-picture chairman of New York branch is giving cooperation to towns and rural districts desiring junior movies.

Yale University has done a big thing for visual education by dramatizing the history of our country from Columbus through the Civil War, and at great expense has made these films available to organizations throughout the country. The University of Indiana having leased these films is renting them to schools and organizations, and the motion picture chairman of the Indiana branch is cooperating with the bureau of visual instruction of the university by working with the parent-teacher associations throughout the State in procuring these films for their schools.

Child Welfare Magazine, the official organ of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, carries a monthly article by Mrs. Morey V. Kerns on "What to See in the Movies." Mrs. Kerns says in her booklet: "Our National and State organizations, reaching as they do into the very hearts and homes of our people, should ever keep before them that the film is the most potent factor in young life at the present time and the entertainment film is the problem that needs more specific attention from every one of the 18,000 units which make up the National Congress of Parents and Teachers."

Ceramic Arts in Detroit High School

Knowledge of ceramic art in its relation to historic periods as well as from a technical standpoint is the aim of the pottery course in Eastern High School, Detroit, Mich. The school possesses a collection of Indian, Italian, Spanish, Japanese, and modern pottery, and frequent visits are made to the Art Institute to study historic examples. In the second semester Indian, Egyptian, and Grecian work illustrate the progress of pottery, and students are expected to produce pieces typical of those periods. Visits to a commercial pottery are made by advanced pupils to observe modern methods. Pottery courses in evening classes are identical with those in the high school, and are attended by many teachers and commercial artists. Work of high order is done.

A kitchen open to full view features the cafeteria in Frances E. Willard School, Long Beach, Calif. It enables pupils to observe all methods used in the preparation of food and at the same time those charged with the duty of supervision can see pupils as they are eating at the tables.

Secondary Schools of Southern and of North Central Association

North Central Schools Are in General Larger than Southern Schools. Greater Proportion of Graduates of Southern High Schools Go to College. North Central Teachers Show the Better Academic and Professional Training, for all Must Hold Degrees. Too Many Teachers Are Overloaded in Both Associations. Extracurricular Activities Better Developed in Southern Association

By JOSEPH ROEMER

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Florida; Secretary to the Commission on Secondary Schools, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States

(*Continued from* SCHOOL LIFE *for November, p. 48*)

AS MENTIONED in the part of this article which appeared in the November number of SCHOOL LIFE, this study is similar to studies issued at intervals by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The latest of these studies of the North Central Association is entitled "Our Secondary Schools," and was prepared by Dr. C. O. Davis.

In order to compare conditions in the areas covered by these two standardizing agencies, a comparison is made here of a few of the important phases of the work. The purpose of it is merely to give one a bird's-eye view of the conditions in the two areas. The reader must bear in mind that the data for the North Central Association are for the year of 1924–25 and the Southern Association for the scholastic year of 1926–27. The comparative data follow:

Comparison of certain items of the secondary schools of north central and southern associations

Items	North Central Association (1924–25)	Southern Association (1926–27)
States included	20	11
Secondary schools accredited	1,797	844
Teachers employed	30,732	11,807
Pupil enrollment	678,935	283,127
Schools enrolling more than 1,000—per cent	9.0	4.8
Schools enrolling fewer than 100—per cent	13.3	17.9
Average number pupils per public school	432	371
Average number teachers per public school	19.5	14.4
Median number periods in school day	7 or 8	7 or 8
Median number days actually in session	180	177
Median length of class period	41 to 45	41 to 45
Units required for graduation	15	16
Typical number grades in high school	9 to 12	8 to 11
Boys in total enrollment—per cent	47.5	47.1
Average number pupils per teacher	23	24
High-school graduates	109,932	44,533
Boys in high-school graduates—per cent	43.8	43.2
High-school graduates going to college—per cent	37.9	48.2
Boy graduates going to college—per cent	42.4	51.2
Nonresident pupils—do	12.9	9.3

Comparison of certain items of the secondary schools of north central and southern associations—Continued

Items	North Central Association (1924–25)	Southern Association (1926–27)
High-school principals who do no teaching—per cent	29.9	26.6
Teachers of academic branches—per cent	67.8	84
Academic teachers new to particular school—per cent	27.2	24.4
Vocational teachers new to particular school—per cent	24.6	24.6
Academic teachers with bachelor's degree—per cent	80.9	80.4
Academic teachers with master's degree—per cent	12.5	11
Academic teachers with Ph. D. degree—per cent	.9	.2
Vocational teachers with bachelor's degree—per cent	45.6	60
Vocational teachers with master's degree—per cent	2.9	2.6
Vocational teachers with Ph. D. degree—per cent	.7	0
Academic teachers with 15 hours in education—per cent	82.8	68.9
Academic teachers with from 11 to 15 hours in education—per cent	12.8	11.7
Academic teachers with some training in education but less than 11 hours—per cent	3.3	10
Academic teachers in summer sessions since 1920—per cent	47.7	61.7
Vocational teachers in summer sessions since 1920—per cent	55.1	48
Academic teachers with no experience—per cent	6.8	6.6
Academic teachers with more than 5 years' experience—per cent	55.8	55.5
Vocational teachers with no experience—per cent	6.5	6.1
Vocational teachers with more than 5 years' experience—per cent	54	46.9
Academic teachers teaching 6 or more classes daily—per cent	18.4	13.7
Academic teachers teaching 5 classes daily—per cent	53.6	54.2
Vocational teachers teaching 6 or more classes daily—per cent	21.6	18.8
Vocational teachers teaching 5 classes daily—per cent	31.3	28.6
Academic teachers teaching fewer than 150 pupils daily—per cent	88.1	90.3
Vocational teachers teaching fewer than 150 pupils daily—per cent	87	92.5
Academic classes enrolling more than 30 pupils—per cent	10.6	9.9
Vocational classes enrolling more than 30 pupils—per cent	13.9	7.6
All teachers devoting some time to extracurricular activities—per cent	34.6	43.6
Median annual salary of teachers (approximately)	1,800	1,650
Having full-time librarian—per cent	31.6	23.8
Having part-time librarian—per cent	55.1	55.8
Having some form of supervised study—per cent	47.2	63.5
Using figures in recording marks—per cent	48.8	57.7
Using letters in recording marks—per cent	49.1	37.7

Comparison of certain items of the secondary schools of north central and southern associations—Continued

Items	North Central Association (1924–25)	Southern Association (1926–27)
Employing a system of honor points—per cent	26.9	19.8
Having national honor societies—per cent	15.8	4.6
With pupils belonging to secret societies—per cent	6.5	4.8
With pupil government organizations—per cent	39.3	45.2
Having teacher pupil councils—per cent	57.7	55
Schools having paid school physician—per cent	13.3	13.4
Schools having paid school dentist—per cent	6.4	4.7
Schools having paid school nurse—per cent	32.5	23.6
Schools having paid athletic coach—per cent	79.7	86.9
Schools favoring 60-minute class period—per cent	48.4	51.6
Having same salary schedule for elementary and high school teachers with same qualifications—per cent	17.9	20.6
Giving inexperienced teachers fewer classes—per cent	46.7	49.2
Schools publishing paper—do	64.5	54.7
Schools having football teams—per cent	85.9	80
Schools having—		
Auditoriums—do	84.5	91.7
Gymnasiums—do	82.6	47.5
Swimming pool—do	10.7	8.5
Shower baths—do	83.7	76.8
Rest room for teachers—do	68.6	69.8
Health clinic rooms—do	26.2	30
Library room—do	82.2	90.6
Lunch room—do	53.5	53.4
Club room or activities room—per cent	18.6	27.2
Manual training room—do	82.2	38.9
Home economics room—do	89.3	76.5
Music room—do	59.6	63.5
Fine arts room—do	30.5	18.8
Boy or girl scout room—do	9.4	9.1
Adequate athletic and playground field—per cent	75.4	80
Electric lighting—do	96.7	92.8

On the whole one is struck in reading these comparative data by the great similarity of conditions in the two associations. In fact, in many instances there is very little, if any, real difference.

It is evident that the North Central Association secondary schools are larger than those of the Southern. Nine per cent of them enroll more than 1,000 pupils and only 4.8 per cent of those in the Southern Association enroll more than 1,000. Again the average number of

pupils per school in the North Central Association is 432, and in the Southern Association, 371; and the average number of teachers per school is 19.5 for the North Central Association and 14.4 for the Southern Association.

Again, it is interesting to note that a larger percentage of the high school graduates go to college in the Southern Association than in the North Central Association. The percentages are 48.2 per cent and 37.9 per cent, respectively.

A much larger percentage of all the teachers are vocational in the North Central Association than in the Southern. In the North Central Association 32.2 per cent of all the teachers are vocational, and in the Southern Association only 16 per cent are vocational.

The North Central Association requires all teachers to hold degrees from standard colleges, while the Southern Association requires 75 per cent to hold degrees. In actual practice, the North Central has 94.3 per cent of its teachers with a bachelor's degree or more, while the Southern Association has 91.6 per cent with bachelor's degrees or more—an advantage of 2.7 per cent in favor of the North Central Association

Of the vocational teachers in the North Central Association, only 49.2 per cent have bachelor's degrees or more; while 62.6 per cent of the vocational teachers in the Southern Association have bachelor's degrees or more—an advantage of 13.4 per cent in favor of the Southern Association.

North Central Teachers Better Trained

Again, 82.8 per cent of the academic teachers in the North Central Association and 68.9 per cent in the Southern Association have had 15 or more hours in education; and 12.8 per cent in the North Central Association and 11.7 per cent in the Southern Association have had from 11 to 15 hours in education. In other words, 95.6 per cent of the teachers in the North Central Association and 80.6 per cent of the teachers in the Southern Association have had 11 or more hours in education. This is an advantage of 15 per cent in favor of the North Central Association teachers.

Although the academic teachers of the North Central Association are better trained academically and professionally, the teachers of the Southern Association are attending summer schools in much greater numbers to make up the deficiency. Only 47.7 per cent of the teachers in the North Central Association have attended summer school since 1920, as compared with 61.7 per cent of those in the Southern Association.

There seems to be a decided tendency, in the North Central Association especially, to overload the teacher—18.4 per cent of all academic teachers teach six or more classes daily, as compared with 13.7 per cent in the Southern Association. This same tendency is seen also for the vocational teachers—21.6 per cent of them in the North Central Association and 18.8 per cent in the Southern Association teach six or more classes daily. A study of the percentages of classes enrolling over 30 pupils bears out still further this situation.

It is interesting to note that 47.2 per cent of the schools in the North Central Association, and 63.5 per cent of those in the Southern Association have some form of supervised study. This means that 16.3 per cent more schools in the Southern Association than in the North Central Association have supervised study.

Honor Societies not Common in South

Nearly four times as many North Central Association schools have national honor societies as Southern Association schools have. This is probably due to the fact that the organization is rather sectional as yet in its development, and that it is in the North Central territory.

Again we can say, in general, that the southern high school has its extracurricular activities better developed than the North Central high school does. This is shown by both the number of activities and time teachers devote to that work.

The North Central high school far outstrips the Southern high school in its equipment for industrial education for both boys and girls. The Southern high school seems to be a bit stronger on equipment for athletics, physical education, and the extracurricular activities, and the North Central high school leads in its equipment in gymnasiums, swimming pools, and shower baths. This last seeming weakness on the part of the southern high school is due largely to the climatic conditions which render this equipment unnecessary in many instances.

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Evening Manual Training School for Adults

A pupil absent two or three times without valid excuse is dropped from the roll and his place filled from the waiting list in the manual training department of Evening School 60, Buffalo, N. Y.; consequently the attendance of the 30 pupils enrolled is nearly perfect. The school has a modern well-equipped cabinetmaker's shop to which only adults are admitted. Many of the pupils are newly married men interested in making furniture for their homes. The wives or sweethearts of a number of the men at the same time attend evening classes in reedwork and sewing for the purpose of making home furnishings.

London Schools Emphasize Open-air Education

Arrangements made by the London County Council for the furtherance of open-air education include out-door activities for normal children and remedial measures for those who are anæmic or debilitated. In favorable weather physical exercises are taken in the school playground, and classes often adjourn there for other subjects. In all new schools efforts are being made, by cross ventilation and casement windows, to secure to the normal child the maximum amount of fresh air and sunlight. For ailing children, day and residential open-air schools and open-air classes have been opened.

The residential open-air schools are the King's Canadian School for boys in Bushy Park, near Hampton Court; Wanstead House School for girls at Margate, and Barham House School for boys and girls at St. Leonards-on-Sea. Children usually stay at these schools from four to six weeks. They are admitted on the certificate of the school doctor; their fares to and from the school are paid by the Council. The dietary is approved by the school medical officer. The amount of the parental contributions toward maintenance is decided by the school care committees.

The day open-air schools accommodate boys and girls who have been selected by the school medical officer from those children in the neighboring elementary schools who appear likely to benefit from an education under open-air conditions. Six such schools have been opened, and it is probable that three more will be opened in the next few years. The physical condition of the children is kept under regular observation. Three meals a day are provided at the schools, and the parents are required to pay for these in accordance with their means. The average length of stay at day open-air schools is about 18 months.

Open-air classes are also held in parks, playgrounds, and other open spaces. The classes may be composed of children from one school only or from a number of neighboring schools. Special furniture and equipment, including awnings and wind screens, are supplied.—"*The London Education Service,*" *1927, published by the Education Committee, London County Council.*

A perfect score was made by more than 500 of the 900 school children of Detroit who participated recently in a music memory test, the concluding feature of a concert course provided for public-school pupils by the Detroit Symphony Society.

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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By THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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DECEMBER, 1927

Public Education Services of London and New York

"THE LONDON Education Service," eighth edition, with accompanying "Fundamental Statistics, 1927," has just come to us from the education officer for the London county council, Mr. G. H. Gater. A highly illuminating and attractive document it is, substantial in subject matter, impeccable in English composition, and artistic in appearance. It sets forth in detail the education services of the great city which by its imperial circumstances as "the largest local educational authority in the world," and the metropolis of the Empire, as well as by its outstanding experimental and pioneer work, is the archetype and exemplar for the smaller education authorities of Britian and the authorities overseas. American schoolmen may read the book with profit even though they may patriotically consider that in many respects achievement in this country has been superior.

Comparison with America's greatest city is naturally suggested because of similarity of magnitude, whether New York may or may not claim that educational leadership in America which the London school officers clearly feel their right in British public education.

Neither the administrative county of London nor the city of New York includes the whole of the area which is in fact a part of its metropolitan community. The "outer ring" of London holds a population nearly equal to that of the county itself; and New York City reaches far beyond its formal boundaries. Much of New Jersey is so closely connected with it by business and social interests and by telephone, ferries, and tubes that the congeries comprises a single city, divided only by political lines. But the administrative units of London and New York afford the only bases of comparison that we have.

The population of the county of London in 1926 is estimated by the registrar general at 4,615,400. That of New York City at the same date is estimated by the Bureau of Vital Statistics at 5,924,139. London embraces an area of 74,850 acres; New York, 191,681. Considering the whole, London's population is the more congested, for New York takes in Queens and Richmond Boroughs, which are in part of suburban character; Manhattan Borough has about 170 inhabitants to the acre. Similar congestion undoubtedly exists in some of the districts of London.

Both cities maintain schools for normal children of all ages and classes, for children who are defective mentally, physically, or morally, for youths beyond the compulsory school age, and for adults; and both do much of welfare work supplementary to education. Many differences appear, of course. London schools may receive children as young as 2 years old, but the one nursery school maintained and the eight others aided by the London county council do not provide for any considerable proportion of the population of that age. They are usually in the poor districts and receive children whose social condition or health is unsatisfactory. Kindergartens, but no nursery schools, are supported from public funds in New York. The school board of Los Angeles, Calif., however, maintains 16 or more day nursery schools, receiving babes as young as 9 months old; and Grand Rapids, Kalamazoo, and Chicago have infant schools which are public in all respects except that salaries of teachers are paid by private organizations.

Upon entering school, normally at 5 years of age, it is customary for the London child to be enrolled in the infants' department. He is usually transferred to the "senior department" at about the age of 7.

Ninety-five per cent of the full-time pupils of London are instructed in the elementary schools, whose curriculum covers seven years. At about the age of 11, or in Standard V, the ablest pupils are chosen for transfer to secondary schools, which are commonly preparatory to higher study and emphasize the humanities. Twenty-eight secondary schools are "maintained" by the county of London and 51 are "aided"; their enrollment is 32,047.

The pupils next in ability to those selected for the secondary schools are transferred to "central schools," which are apparently considered a part of the elementary system, but they retain their pupils for 4 years, or until about the age of 16. They have a general curriculum but they stress business and industrial subjects. Seventy-four schools of this type are reported, with 936 teachers and 23,300 pupils.

Those who are left in the elementary schools after this double skimming are of a lower order of ability. They may remain in school until the end of the school year in which they reach 14, but few continue after that age.

Fees are required for instruction in the London "higher schools," but exhibitions, bursaries, and scholarships provide wholly or in part for about 25,000 pupils.

It is in the development of high schools that American cities, with New York leading in numbers, excel all others. London has but 55,347 students in secondary schools and central schools combined; but in her high schools and junior high schools, New York enrolls 215,783 pupils—nearly four times as many.

For the training of teachers London conducts five training colleges, two of which are residential institutions. The majority of the students take a course extending over two years, but the curriculum of the London Day Training College covers four years. The enrollment in the five colleges was 1,398 in 1926. New York maintains three teacher-training schools, with 4,477 students enrolled, but the College of the City of New York, principally for men, and Hunter College, for women, also prepare teachers for both high and elementary schools.

Both these are institutions of collegiate grade, and both are supported by the city of New York, but each has a board of trustees separate from the city board of education. The University of London is not controlled by the London county council, but the London Day Training College is maintained entirely by the council, although it is one of the schools of the university. Considerable annual grants are made by the council to other schools of the university and to the university itself.

Highly profitable it would be to describe the special schools of London or of New York—the trade and vocational schools, the school medical service, the men's institutes, and a score of other features of each school system; but to do so would require a volume.

Comparisons of many of the statistical items common to both cities are difficult or impossible because of differences in terminology. What American can read with understanding statistical statements in which the student personnel in four successive classes of schools are described as "Pupils. Average roll," "Average attendance," "Pupils," and "Enrollment"? How can these be combined to form a total? And what conclusion can we reach when the "total number of pupils in elementary schools" is reported in 1925 as 665,000, and the "total number in attendance" in 1927 is said to be 629,083? It can only be conjectured whether either of these is properly comparable with the 878,399 different pupils enrolled in the

kindergartens and elementary schools of New York in 1926.

To compare costs is equally difficult. Only one common item can be compared with reasonable confidence. The "estimated total gross maintenance expenditure on all education services" for the London county council is stated at £12,764,595, or, at the normal rate of exchange, $62,035,932. And the "total disbursements from all funds for all purposes" by the New York board of education for the year 1926 was $122,630,006.45, or $20.70 per capita of the estimated total population. This does not include the cost of the two colleges of the city, which do not appear in the accounts of the board of education; but the total for London does include £100,635 granted to university education. Subtract this and the remainder, $61,546,846—that is, $13.33 per capita of estimated total population—would seem to be comparable with the total expenditure of the New York City Board of Education.

Pensions Involve no Expense to Nashville Teachers

Contributions to the pension fund are not required from public-school teachers of Nashville, Tenn. Taxation not exceeding one-tenth of 1 mill of assessed valuation provides the moneys required.

Pensions correspond with the pay of beginning teachers, the idea being that the beginning teacher receives the minimum for living requirements. The pay of the pensioner varies from time to time, therefore, with the changes in the pay of beginning teachers. This unique provision will prevent the distressing conditions that came to pass during the inflated period when set pensions did not provide a living.

The salary scale adopted in October, 1927, provides $1,200 a year for beginning teachers, although 20 "cadets," teachers in training, receive $720 a year each. No pension may exceed one-half the salary of the teacher at the time of his retirement, however, and it happens that the smallest pension paid is $600 a year. Seventeen teachers are now on the retired list.—*H. C. Weber, superintendent of schools, Nashville, Tenn.*

Services of a trained librarian are available for pupils in junior and senior high schools of Denver, Colo., and similar service will be gradually extended through the elementary schools. Since 1920 school librarians have been placed on the teachers' salary schedule, and the same standards are required for them as for teachers. A supervisor of libraries was appointed in 1924.

How Teachers May Aid The Medical Inspection Program

By FLORENCE A. SHERMAN

Assistant Medical Inspector of Schools, New York State Department of Education

BY BELIEVING in periodic health examinations and having one at least once a year.

By showing a keen interest in health and in the school health program, thus stimulating the interest of children in it.

By urging the appointment of the school doctor as early after the opening of school as possible, in order to permit the follow-up of defects found and bring about as early as possible corrective needs.

By recording the weights and measurements of children before the doctor comes and making, if possible, the vision and hearing tests.

By assisting the doctor when he makes the physical examinations, noting the findings on the physical-record cards, talking over with him the individual child found to have defects, in order to be better able to aid in the corrective measures.

By preserving carefully all health records, keeping them intact and in the classroom so that they may be available at all times to the school authorities.

By seeing that the health records of every child are sent on from grade to grade and from school to school, thus aiding in developing a constructive health record and making it of real value.

By going monthly over the health records of children found to have physical defects, in order to learn if corrections needed have been made, noting same on the cards; and when nothing has been done, talking with the child, urging the importance of attention to the doctor'sfindings, sending a note home to the parents—or, better still, seeing them personally. Thus aiding in the follow-up work and securing as soon as possible a clean bill of health for every pupil; 100 per cent health for her class should be the teacher's goal.

By knowing of the hospitals in her vicinity which are extending relief to financially handicapped children, communicating with the district superintendent or the medical inspection bureau for further information relative to the same.

By knowing the health officer of the town or district and cooperating closely with him in case of contagious diseases.

By becoming familiar with the various health agencies in the locality and working harmoniously with them.

By working in close cooperation with the district nurse, if there be one, continuing the monthly follow-up of children having physical defects, and so supplementing the home visits of the nurse.

By knowing, if possible, the parents of every child, assuring them of personal interest in their child and of the desire to work with them in every possible way.

French Museums Offer Busts of Great Americans

Exact replicas in plaster or bronze of busts of Washington, Franklin, La Fayette, and John Paul Jones, originally modeled by the famous French sculptor, Jean Antoine Houdon, are offered to American schools and institutions by the National Museums of France. Houdon came to the United States at the invitation of the American Congress for the purpose of making a statue of Washington. He became acquainted with many of the leading men of the country and sincerely admired them.

The originals of the busts of Washington and Franklin from which it is now proposed to make casts are in the Louvre; the bust of La Fayette is in the Chateau of Versailles, and that of John Paul Jones is in the Pennsylvania Academy, Philadelphia. The casts were executed in the ateliers of the National Museums by expert artists, either in plaster patiné as the originals or in bronze mounted on marble pedestals. Circulars describing the busts and the conditions under which they are obtainable may be had of A. Gaulin, American Consul General, Paris, France.

Early European Associations of Teachers

On the occasion of the establishment of the new international organization of European teachers it was stated that the first teachers' association was established in France in 1833; in Bohemia in 1840; in Holland in 1844. The National Union of Teachers was established in England in 1870; Deutscher Lehrerverein in Germany in 1871; Bond van Onderwijzers in Holland in 1874; Zemský ústřední spolek učitelských jednot in Bohemia in 1880; Ústřední spolek učitelských jednot in Moravia in 1883; Féderation des Amicales d'Instituteurs in France in 1901.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

Comprehensive Survey of Land-Grant Colleges is Inaugurated

Conception of Undertaking Originated in Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. To be Directed by Bureau of Education upon Invitation of Executive Committee and with Approval of President, of Secretary of Interior, and of Secretary of Agriculture. Congress also Approved and Appropriated $117,000. Work Fully Organized and Already Under Way

By JNO. J. TIGERT, *United States Commissioner of Education*

THE Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, is inaugurating a comprehensive survey of the work and activities of all the land-grant colleges in the United States and Territories. A study of the extent and character of this survey has never been undertaken by the bureau or any other agency. The conception of this undertaking did not originate in the Bureau of Education or the Federal Government. The impetus came from the institutions involved. The presidents of the land-grant colleges have been discussing the possibility for such a study for some years. After a careful consideration of the possible agencies for making the study, the heads of the land-grant colleges, through their official organization, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, formally broached the matter of securing the cooperation of the Bureau of Education early in the spring of 1926. Through its executive committee, the association invited the cooperation and suggestions of the Bureau of Education, upon the advice of the Secretary of Agriculture.

Bureau of Education Will Direct Work

On April 22, 1926, the Commissioner of Education wrote Dr. A. F. Woods, then President of the University of Maryland and chairman of the executive committee of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, that the Bureau of Education "would not care to enter into any arrangement to participate in such a survey except upon the basis that the Bureau of Education be in charge and direct the work. The importance of the task, the conflicting factors involved, and the necessity that the survey agency be free from any possibility of the charge of undue interest, make this an essential consideration."

On May 21, 1926, a formal invitation was received through Doctor Woods, acting on behalf of the executive committee of the Land-Grant College Association, upon the conditions suggested by the Bureau of Education. In his letter, Doctor Woods stated "The time has come when the colleges, themselves, feel that there should be a national study of these agencies, with a view to determining how well they are fulfilling the purposes for which they were established and what changes or modifications, if any, are necessary in order to enable them to more effectively meet the new situations that are arising. We feel that such a study is a national problem, having to do with the work in all of the States, and that the investigation should, therefore, be headed by a national agency, and the natural agency for the study is the Bureau of Education.

"I have taken the matter up with the members of the executive committee and I am now, on behalf of that committee, officially requesting you to make provision for such a study.

"I can assure you that the executive committee, as well as the colleges themselves, will give every possible cooperation in this study and I am certain from it will result policies that will be of great value in the future development of these colleges in their relationship to our agricultural and industrial life."

Upon receipt of this communication, the Commissioner of Education discussed the matter with the Secretary of the Interior, who immediately gave his approval to the project. On May 25, 1926, the Commissioner of Education formally accepted the invitation of the Land-Grant College Association to undertake the study of the land-grant colleges.

Secretary Approved Acceptance of Invitation

In his letter to President Woods, the Commissioner of Education stated: "I have discussed with the Secretary of the Interior the invitation extended by your letter of May 21, 1926, in behalf of the Land-Grant College Association. It is with his hearty approval that I accept this invitation to undertake to provide for a general survey of the land-grant colleges by the United States Bureau of Education."

The Secretary of the Interior, Hubert Work, presented the matter to President Coolidge. The President gave his approval and authorized the Director of the Bureau of the Budget to include an item for the study in the estimates for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1927.

When the project was submitted to the Congress during the hearings on the appropriations for the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Congress gave assent immediately, with the result that an item of $117,000 was included in the appropriation to enable the Secretary of the Interior, through the Bureau of Education, "to make a study of the organization, administration, and work of the land-grant institutions," $61,000 being available in the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1927, with the provision that specialists and experts for this investigation might be employed at rates to be fixed by the Secretary of the Interior to correspond to those established by the classification act of 1923.

With the funds thus provided, and with the enthusiastic approval of the President, the Congress, and the Secretaries of the Interior and Agriculture Departments, the Bureau of Education entered upon the work of organizing the survey.

Establishment of the Land-Grant Colleges

Before entering upon a description of the plan of the Bureau of Education for this study it might be well to recall the circumstances of the establishment of the land-grant institutions. It is well known that these institutions originated indirectly as a result of Federal policy in education, which is set forth by President Coolidge in a recent address delivered at the South Dakota State College, one of the land-grant institutions.

In this address the President said: "During the administration of President Buchanan the Congress had passed a bill providing for a grant of land in the several States to establish educational institutions in agriculture and the mechanic arts. This bill had been vetoed. It is said that Jonathan B. Turner was the author of this measure, and that, before he was nominated, Lincoln had told him that if he were chosen President the proposal would have his approval. Representative Morrill, of Vermont, later Senator for many years, fathered the bill in the Congress and it bears his name. It was passed and signed by President

Lincoln on July 2, 1862. Under its provisions 30,000 acres of public land for each of their Senators and Representatives in the Congress were given to each State to be used for the support of a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. Under the terms of this law the States have established these institutions, which in the past 50 years have played such an important part in the agricultural life of our country."

Senator Morrill Overcame Strong Opposition

Too much credit can not be given to Senator Morrill for the vision and statesmanship which he displayed in fathering this act amid a storm of opposition and ridicule. The Legislature of Michigan had authorized the establishment of a State agricultural college in 1857, but agricultural education was not at that time recognized as a legitimate part of the program of higher education. The old-established universities and colleges looked with suspicion upon this new principle in the realm of higher education. "Waste of public lands and of private fortunes," "another illustration of the folly of attempting to make a purse out of a sow's ear," "a doctrinaire experiment that would end in failure," were some of the gibes poked at Senator Morrill's plan. Senator Morrill, undaunted by these criticisms, supported his measure with great ability and more than ordinary eloquence. He made the following fervent plea for the passage of the act: "Pass this bill and we shall have done something to enable the farmer to raise two blades of grass instead of one; something for every owner of land; something for all who desire to own land; something for cheap scientific education; something for every man who loves intelligence and not ignorance; something to induce the farmer's sons and daughters to settle and cluster around the old homestead; something to remove the last vestige of pauperism from our land; something for peace, good order, and the better support of Christian churches and common schools; something to enable sterile railroads to pay dividends; something to enable the people to bear the enormous expenditures of the National Government; something to prevent the dispersion of our population, and to concentrate it around the best lands of our country—places hallowed by church spires and mellowed by all the influences of time—where the consumer will be placed at the door of the producer; something to increase the loveliness of the American landscape."

Growth of the Land-Grant Colleges

The Morrill Act of 1862 provided that "the income from these lands should constitute a Federal fund, the capital of which shall be inviolably appropriated by each State which may take and claim the benefits of this act to the endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one college where the leading objects shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislatures of the States may respectively prescribe, in order to permit the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

As a result of the original act, fathered by Senator Morrill and signed by President Lincoln, together with amendments and supplementary acts, there have developed 69 institutions in the United States and its Territories. There exists to-day at least one such institution in every State in the Union and one each in Porto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska. Massachusetts has two such institutions, and in 17 of the Southern States there is an additional institution provided exclusively for colored students. In approximately one-half of the States the land-grant college is an integral part of the State university, located in the same city or town, but 24 of the land-grant institutions are set up in separation from the State university and under different administration, or exist in States where there is no State university. These separated institutions are styled in various ways, but usually pass under such titles as "State agricultural college," "College of agriculture and mechanic arts," "Institute of technology," and the like.

Institutions Have Grown Prodigiously

These several institutions developed very rapidly after the passage of the Morrill Act, and have grown prodigiously. It is probably fair to say that they have exceeded even the rosy hopes entertained by Senator Morrill.

Traditionally, higher education had no relation to the development of agriculture or other practical arts. The primary purpose of the first institutions of higher learning in this country was to serve the church. All the colonial colleges except one were denominational, and anywhere from one-third to one-half of the students graduating from Harvard, Princeton, Yale, Brown, and similar institutions went into the ministry. Previous to the passage of the Morrill Act, both Michigan and Maryland had undertaken to establish agricultural colleges, but agriculture was not yet recognized as a science nor as a legitimate phase of the college curriculum.

The passage of the Morrill Act coincided with the beginnings of the application of science to industry, which has so enormously multiplied since that day. Perhaps it is this coincidence with the inauguration of the modern scientific era which accounts in a large measure for the rapid strides that we have made. Nevertheless, students and funds have come with ever increasing volume to the doors of these institutions dedicated to the development of agriculture and the mechanic arts. Tens of thousands of dollars became hundreds of thousands, and hundreds of thousands became millions.

In 1926, there were approximately 6 times as many students in the land-grant colleges as there were in 1905; receipts were 11 times as great, and the value of the property had increased five-fold. The growth of the land-grant colleges can be seen at a glance from the following data collected by the Bureau of Education:

Institutions attended primarily or exclusively by white students

	1905	1926
Instructors	4, 103	22, 245
Students	48, 593	314, 785
Degrees conferred	4, 067	24, 112
Libraries (volumes)	1, 650, 153	6, 622, 637
Receipts	$11, 766, 934	$126, 089, 148
Value of property	$77, 489, 937	$397, 110, 979

Institutions exclusively for negroes

	1905	1926
Instructors	370	1, 115
Students	6, 381	13, 259
Degrees conferred	0	140
Libraries (volumes)	39, 981	55, 199
Receipts	$574, 021	$3, 130, 353
Value of property	$4, 007, 508	$8, 853, 134

The Bureau of Education did not collect figures on expenditures until 1925. In 1926 the institutions primarily or exclusively attended by whites expended $123,461,679, and the institutions attended exclusively by negroes expended $2,898,977.

Half the Cost Paid by States

At the present time approximately 50 per cent of the revenues enjoyed by the land-grant colleges is derived from the States, and something over 10 per cent comes from the Federal Government. Other sources of income are tuition and fees, private gifts, etc. Since the passage of the Purnell Act, which gives additional money to the land-grant colleges, over $14,000,000 goes into these institutions either directly or indirectly from the Federal Treasury. This includes moneys expended in extension activities as well as resident work.

The material development of the United States, particularly in the West, has resulted in large measure from the activi-

ties of the land-grant colleges. Previous to their establishment farmers knew nothing of the scientific analyses of soils. The fertilization of crops by chemical formulæ was not practiced, nor did men know how to destroy noxious diseases by the artificial culture of serum and toxins. Much of the industrial progress of the United States has resulted from the research and engineering science emanating from the schools of the mechanic arts.

Thus, agriculture and manufacturing have been stimulated and propagated through these institutions. Quoting again from the recent address made by President Coolidge at the South Dakota State College, the President said:

Productivity Has Been Greatly Stimulated

"It has been under their (agricultural colleges) inspiration that the amount of production for each person employed has been so highly increased and the productivity of the soil so greatly stimulated. They created a vast agricultural empire lying between the Alleghenies and the Rockies, which has furnished an increasing food supply to meet the demands of our growing population."

The President goes on to express the thought that, indirectly, the land-grant institutions were a decisive factor in winning the World War, as the European nations were dependent to a considerable degree upon this country for foodstuffs made possible through scientific agriculture, and he adds that these institutions have been spiritual values to American civilization which equal or surpass the economic results.

Plan and Organization of Study

Details have not been completely worked out nor is space available here to give a comprehensive outline regarding the plan of the survey. Three general principles have been set up by the Bureau of Education as a basis for the work:

(1) The Bureau of Education regards the survey as a national study of the accomplishments, the present status, and the future objectives of the land-grant type of education and not a collection of surveys of individual institutions.

(2) The bureau feels that the success of the survey depends largely upon the impartiality and thoroughness with which it may discover facts and make constructive recommendations. Therefore, it will be the policy of the bureau to maintain entire control of the work and assume responsibility for the report. At the same time, it is planned to utilize to the fullest extent all of these groups, agencies, and individuals who are now organized to carry on and promote the interests of special aspects of land-grant college education. The leaders and the rank and file of land-grant college education will be freely consulted and given opportunity to express opinions. Close contact will be maintained with the services in the Department of Agriculture which articulate with the land-grant colleges. The personnel for the survey staff outside the bureau's permanent staff will be obtained in large part from those engaged in administration and instruction in the land-grant colleges.

(3) In the broadest sense, the functions of the land-grant colleges, as defined by the Morrill Act and as developed during their past history, are regarded by the Bureau of Education to be public and democratic in nature, with ideals, practical purposes, and objectives which are worthy of full recognition in the field of higher education.

To accomplish these purposes, it is proposed to employ outside specialists who will work with the specialists in the Bureau of Education. All the work will be done under the direction of the Commissioner of Education. Dr. Arthur J. Klein, chief of the division of higher education, will be immediately in charge and director of the survey.

General Advisory Committee Formed

As already stated, the regular specialists of the staff of the Bureau of Education will be supplemented for the purposes of this study by experts drawn from all parts of the country, particularly from the personnel now engaged at the land-grant colleges. A general advisory committee has been formed, with representatives from the major interests involved in this study. The Hon. Hubert Work, Secretary of the Interior, will act as chairman of the advisory committee. The Hon. W. M. Jardine, Secretary of Agriculture, will represent the Department of Agriculture and agricultural interests on the committee. Dr. Raymond A. Pearson, president of the University of Maryland and chairman of the executive committee of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, has been chosen by the association to represent it on this committee. In addition, the Bureau of Education has designated Dr. Charles A. Lory, president of the Colorado Agricultural College, as a member representing the separated land-grant college. Dr. Lotus D. Coffman, president of the University of Minnesota, has been designated as a representative of that type of institution which is integrated with the State university. President R. S. Wilkinson, of the State Agricultural and Mechanical College of South Carolina, has been designated by the conference of presidents of negro land-grant colleges to represent those institutions set up exclusively for negroes. Miss Martha Van Renssalaer, director of home economics of Cornell University, has been designated as a member of the advisory committee to represent home economics and the education of women. Dr. Samuel W. Stratton, president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has been placed upon the committee as a representative of technical engineering. Dr. Francis G. Blair, State superintendent of public instruction of Illinois and past president of the National Education Association, has been designated as a representative of public education. This constitutes the general advisory committee. One or two additional members may be added to this committee

Liaison Committees Have Been Designated

The executive committee of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities will act as a liaison between the bureau and the association. In addition, each section and subsection of the association has been asked to designate a committee or subcommittee to act as a medium of contact between the survey and the group of their special interest. The American Veterinary Medical Association has been asked to designate a committee to act as a liaison between the survey and those who are interested in the professional training of veterinarians. It has also been asked to appoint a committee to present the views of the veterinarians with reference to the veterinarian training in the regular agricultural course. The association of governing boards of State universities and allied institutions will be asked to designate a committee for contact with the survey with reference to methods of controlling and financing land-grant colleges. Further contacts of this kind will be established as occasion arises. Among others it is hoped to secure the cooperation of the editors of the agricultural press.

Director Has Visited All the Institutions

Doctor Klein, director of the survey, has already made a preliminary visit to all the land-grant institutions in the continental United States, with the exception of those exclusively designed for negroes. The latter have been visited by other members of the bureau staff. These visits have already afforded personal interviews by Doctor Klein, lasting from one to three hours, with more than 400 presidents, directors, and deans.

An extensive amount of material already available with reference to the land-grant colleges has been collected in the Bureau of Education and is now being digested preliminary to the collection of further data.

All the lines of activity and interest and the relationships of the land-grant colleges will be covered by the survey. This means that the organization of the procedure must be upon functional lines.

The activities and interests which have now been listed for study are included

under the following topical heads. This statement is tentative. Additions and changes will undoubtedly be made in the subjects of study: Organization and administration; finances; personnel problems (staff); student relation and welfare; curricula; libraries; agriculture; engineering; home economics and education for women; arts and sciences; teacher training; veterinary medicine; extension, home demonstration, and club work; experiment station and research; improvement of teaching; social and economic relationships; military training; physical plant; forestry.

Detailed Information Procured by Questionnaires

Obviously, it would not be practicable to have a specialist in each of the lines of inquiry visit every institution, as the cost would be prohibitive. It is equally obvious that only specialists, in consultation with their colleagues, can properly plan the outlines of the inquiry in each field of activity. The procedure which has been adopted by the survey, therefore, provides for the employment of persons selected from each of the fields of inquiry, for the purpose of making a preliminary plan and preparing a detailed questionnaire for obtaining the information required in each special field.

These questionnaires will then be assembled, coordinated, and consolidated. Questionnaires will first be filled out so far as practicable by members of the survey staff, with information available in the Washington office; later they will make personal visits to the institutions. The president of each institution will be asked to appoint a committee to cooperate with the survey staff in making suggestions and in completing the questionnaires. The questionnaires will be left for the consideration of these committees and will be returned by them to Washington.

A brief school will be held for the benefit of those members of the staff who are going to the field, in order to give the specialists who have planned the questionnaires an opportunity to explain them and indicate the lines of further inquiry

Results of Survey

After the collection of data and material through the questionnaires and field work, tentative reports will be compiled in each of the fields of inquiry by specialists. In some instances it may be advisable, after the tentative reports are ready, to hold further conferences with experts for the purpose of further suggestion and criticism. Finally, two reports will be made, one of a technical nature and one written in a more popular style which will contain a summary of the entire survey and will be easily intelligible to the layman.

It is now 65 years since the passage of the Morrill Act, which fostered the land-grant colleges. During all these years these institutions have been carrying on, growing and expanding, and making increasing contributions to the national life. The leaders in these institutions have arrived at a point where they believe that some appraisement should be made of the work and that their future activities may be charted on more accurate information than is now available. Many problems have arisen, for the solution of which accurate information is not available. Problems relating to organization, financing, curriculum reconstruction, relationship to other institutions, particularly articulation with the program of other State institutions, and similar matters need to be carefully studied.

The agricultural industry of the Nation has been facing a difficult situation. Plans for Federal relief are being discussed. More than a half century ago the Federal Government inaugurated a policy of stimulating agricultural industry and science through the bounties to the land-grant colleges. In the present situation the effects of this policy should be carefully evaluated. No comprehensive program of Federal relief in the field of agriculture can ignore the steps already taken and the policies which are now so deeply rooted in the national life.

"Visits" and "Journeys" for London Pupils

An educational visit is an excursion, approved by the inspector, during a school session. The places visited are famous public buildings like the Tower, St. Paul's Cathedral, Westminister Abbey; gardens like those at Kew and Hampton Court; the national art galleries and museums, the Zoological Gardens; and docks and factories where industrial and commercial processes are carried on. The whole cost of these visits is borne by the council; limits are fixed for admission and traveling expenses. Visits to Shakespearean performances are allowed, and special performances are arranged for school children at which the entire seating accommodation of certain theaters is reserved.

A school journey is a visit for a week or a fortnight by parties of school children under charge of two or more teachers to a place of geographical, historical, or economic interest. The first school journeys were made in 1896. In that year a Liverpool and a London school, each unknown to the other, organized its first school journey. Originally intended as a means of developing the social experiences of children in elementary schools, it has now become an extramural system of education for many schools. It has spread from the elementary school to central, day continuation, trade and secondary schools, and even to schools for the mentally defective and to reformatory and industrial schools. In a modified form it has been adopted in evening institutes to suit adolescent and adult requirements. Fostered by the School Journey Association, a body almost exclusively composed of teachers, and by local support at places visited, the school itineraries now include continental towns and countries and English manufacturing areas as well as country and seaside resorts.

Substantial grants in aid are given by the London County Council, and indirectly by the board of education, to schools participating. The balance of the cost is met by parental contributions, school funds, and private support. School journey camps have been organized and special traveling and other accommodation facilities secured. The immediate aim of the school journey is to illustrate school lessons in literature, history, civics or geography; to enable the children to do field work in nature study, map reading, drawing, and other practical out-of-doors subjects. But, undoubtedly, its ultimate achievements are greater than its immediate aims; it makes the parent an eager ally of the school in social and educational activities, and it teaches children those amenities of thought and conduct, both amongst themselves and amongst strangers, which spring from an experienced and disciplined mind.—*"The London Education Service," 1927, published by The Education Committee, London County Council.*

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

Bibliography of studies in secondary education. Eustace E. Windes. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 27.) 10 cents.

Nursery-kindergarten-primary education in 1924–1926. Mary Dabney Davis. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 28.) 10 cents.

Industrial education. Maris M. Proffitt. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 29.) 5 cents.

Higher education. Arthur J. Klein. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 34.) 10 cents.

Music in platoon schools. Will Earhart. (City school leaflet, No. 27.) 5 cents.

Some publications in the field of kindergarten-primary education. Mary Dabney Davis. (City school leaflet, No. 28.) 5 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Dairy Project for Intermediate Schools

By FLORENCE C. FOX
Assistant Specialist, Bureau of Education

MANY SCHOOLS in the United States are including in their fall and winter programs the study of the dairy as a project that is close to the child's interest. The dairy project offers a wide field of study through lessons in modern methods of dairying, the construction of silos and dairy barns, of motor churns, cream separators, and cheese presses. The sterilization of dairy utensils and the process of milk Pasteurization as lessons in chemistry, bear the closest relation to the child's health and well-being. These may well be woven into our plans for projects as we look for subjects in science that hold an absorbing interest for the child.

A background of facts on this subject is essential if the teacher would meet successfully all the problems that arise in the daily classroom recitation. Some of these problems are discussed in this article but are presented in the form of reading lessons to obviate the necessity for adaptation of source material to the children by teachers who have not such material at hand and have also little time for the research needed in preparing the lessons. As given here they are designed for pupils in the intermediate grades. Should the primary teacher desire to use them as reading lessons she will find little difficulty in adapting them to the children in the lower grades.

LESSON I

Cows of Other Days

A long time ago when cows were wild they lived in the forest. They loved to eat the long grass that grew there, and to drink the cool water of the brooks that rippled by on their way to the river.

Here they made a home for their calves and taught them to take care of themselves while their mothers were away getting food.

Bears and wolves lived in the forest and the little calves were very helpless. The mother cow made a bed of red and yellow leaves which was just the color of her calf. Then she taught it to lie very quietly when it heard any sound in the bushes. Hiding it safely among the leaves, she went away to the forest to feed. If a wolf came near the bed the little calf lay so still that the wolf did not know it was there.

All day the mother was away feeding, gathering in the long juicy stems of the grasses with her tongue, and breaking them off with her teeth.

She swallowed her food quickly, not stopping to chew it. Then, at night, back she came to her baby to feed and to pet it, to lie by its side, and to chew the food she had eaten during the day.

In the morning she went out again with other mothers and fathers of the herd to feed in the wide open places where the grass grew long and tender.

One of the herd was the leader, and the others followed meekly wherever he chose to go. They loved to wander by the streams of water and to stand in the marshy places along the banks. They stood for hours in the shallow water, chewing their cuds, and switching the flies with their long tails.

They could walk easily in the soft wet soil along the streams, for the split in their hoofs helped them to draw their feet out of the mud.

Sometimes a pack of wolves followed the herd. When the cows heard them coming they made ready to receive them. They formed themselves into a circle with their heads out, and waited. In the center of the circle were the weak cows and younger ones. On the outside of the circle stood the big bulls and the strongest cows with their heads lowered and their long sharp horns waiting for the attack.

On came the wolves, barking and yelping, and the bristling horns received them. The wolves were tossed and pierced by the horns and trampled with the hoofs of the angry herd. They were glad to slink back into the forest.

Silent reading.—Take a walk to some pasture where a cow is feeding. Watch her eat grass. Notice her hoofs and watch her step over the soft ground. Watch her chew her cud. Notice the horns of a bull, how strong they are, and how heavy and strong his head is.

How the Cow Came to America

In Plymouth, during the first year of the settlement, there was no milk to be

The American bison is the cow's cousin

had. There were no cows in this new land when the white men came over from the old country.

Where there is no milk, there is no cream and butter, and the boys and girls of the Plymouth colony often longed for the good old days in England. They missed more than anything else the mugs of sweet milk and the golden butter that were served with every meal in their old home.

Children enjoy making posters from colored paper

So they dipped their bread in the meat gravy which their mothers made to take the place of butter. For the woods were full of game, and wild turkeys and venison were common dishes in the new settlement. But nothing can quite take the place of a glass of milk and a slice of bread and butter.

It was a great day, as you can see, when the good ship *Charity* brought over to Plymouth a load of cattle from England. Three cows and a bull came wading in to the shore from the vessel, and all the people hurried down to see the new cattle.

But there was no milk for the children to drink, even then. It was saved for the old people who could not eat meat and for the sick who needed it. It was seven long months before any cream could be spared for butter. Other cows had been added to the herd, and there were 17 head of cattle before Mistress Higgins made the first butter.

That was a day long to be remembered. John Alden had made Mistress Higgins a fine new churn, and she had waited long to use it. Now she rolled it out on her doorstep and began to churn the cream that she had saved from the milkings. She made a pretty picture in her white kerchief and cap, and people passing called to know how the butter was coming. Up and down the dasher flew, and at last the yellow flakes began to show around the handle of the dasher.

The butter came at last, and word went round the village. Busy housewives came with their husbands to see the new butter. It tasted all the sweeter because they had waited so long for it.

And often, after this, when there was plenty of milk and butter and cream and even cheese in the village, some one would say: "No butter will ever taste so good as Mistress Higgins's butter on the first churning day."

LESSON II

The Dairy Farm

On a dairy farm the cows live together in a herd. On the cover is a picture of a herd of cows on a dairy farm in New Jersey.

The dairy farmer likes to keep one family of cows on his farm. Strange to say, there are only four breeds of dairy cows which are very good. Some of these breeds are noted for their rich milk which is good for butter making. Some breeds give more milk than others. If the farmer lives near a large city where there is a good market for milk he likes a breed of cows that are good milkers. If he wants to sell cream to the creamery or to make butter on his own farm he chooses a breed of cows whose milk is rich in butterfat.

The dairy farmer likes to own stock that is "registered." That means that each cow's name is in the book that contains the names of all the cows of that family. Then the number of pounds of milk that she gives each year is recorded, and the number of pounds of butterfat in her milk. If she gives more than other cows she becomes a champion cow in her family and her name becomes known to all the dairymen in the country. The cow that gives more milk than any other cow in the world becomes the world champion.

The Model Milking Room

A model milking house on a dairy farm in New Jersey doesn't look much like the stables where the barnyard cow is milked. The floor and walls are of cement. All the woodwork is painted white and the room is light and airy.

The pipes which run through the room are full of fresh water which comes from the well by the windmill. The water is pumped up from the deep well and is stored in a tank for use on the farm. Long rubber tubes are fastened to the pipes and before the cows are brought into the room to be milked the room is washed from the top to the floor. Each window is rinsed with the fresh water, the

Milk was sold from open cans before we knew of germs

ceiling and the walls are washed down and then the floor is scrubbed until every part of it is as clean as water can make it.

Then the cows are brushed and combed, their bags are washed, and they are led into their places to be milked.

Milk is now carried to the city in closed cans

The milkers are dressed in white duck which is easily washed and kept clean. Their hands are clean and their hair is covered with a white cap.

Their pails have been scalded and are as clean as hot steam can make them. The pails have a tight fitting cover so that no dirt can get into the milk when it is carried to the milk house. Do you think that this milk will be clean and without germs? Would you like to see a picture of a drop of milk that came from this milking house? It is called certified milk because it is the cleanest milk that is sold by the dairymen of this country.

Raw Milk

Raw milk that has not been handled carefully is not clean. Perhaps the stable where the cow was milked had not been cleaned. Perhaps the milkers' hands were not clean, or perhaps the cow's bag had not been washed as it should have been.

However that may be, it is full of dirt. There are millions of little germs in it, and of course, many, many times more germs in a pint or a quart of this milk.

These little groups of germs will make us sick if we are not strong enough to overcome them. Many babies, little children, and even mothers and fathers may die every year from these germs.

If the cows and their milking places are kept clean there will be very few germs in the milk. They do not grow where there is fresh air and clean water and where the cans and pans and straining cloths that are used about the milk are sterilized and kept clean.

A drop of impure raw milk looks like the milk that is being sold from the cans in the buggy. Where milk is exposed to the open air the germs will find their way into it. They are carried in the dust of the street and they lurk in the dark corners of stables and barns that are not flooded with fresh air and sunshine. If we keep our milk tightly covered these germs will find it harder to get in and spoil it for drinking and cooking.

Certified Milk

The dairyman who sells certified milk is very careful to keep it clean and to see that no dirt gets into it.

He keeps the cow's stables where they sleep clean by washing them every morning with clean water when the cows have gone out to the pasture. He keeps the cooling room clean by washing it as he washes the milking house.

All the pails, the cans, and the cloth strainers which this dairyman uses are sterilized with steam after they are used.

This milk is called certified milk because the dairyman signs a contract to keep his milk clean. He has a certificate which the State board of health has given him. They look at his milk through a glass that magnifies and if there are no bad germs in it they give him a paper which says that his milk is as clean as it can be made.

If you look at a picture of raw milk and then at a picture of certified milk under a glass that magnifies you will see that it pays to take good care of cows and their milk.

Certified milk costs more money than any other kind of milk. It takes so many people to take care of the cows and to wash and brush them and keep them clean. It takes so much time to wash the milking house and the cooling house and to sterilize all the cans, pails, and cloths that are used in a dairy that the dairyman has to charge a big price for his milk.

Pasteurized Milk

Pasteurized milk is not raw milk and it may not be certified milk, but it is good to drink and to use in cooking. It has been heated until all the germs in it have been killed. There is a story about this milk and why it is called "Pasteurized."

Doctor Pasteur lived in the city of Paris in France, and took care of the sick people there. One summer he was called to see a sick baby, and he asked the mother what food she had given her baby. The mother said, "Milk, nothing but milk." Soon the doctor was called to see another sick baby, and then another, and many more, and in every house he asked the same question: "What has this baby eaten?" and the mothers all said: "Nothing but milk."

The reindeer is another of the cow's cousins

The doctor asked to see some of the milk. He took it to his office and looked at it through a glass that magnifies. He saw all the germs in it and knew what made the babies sick.

Now the doctor went to work to make the milk safe and to find some way to kill the germs in it. He heated it over a fire until it was very hot and then cooled it quickly. This made the milk good and sweet. That is the reason why this kind of milk is called "Pasteurized milk." After that Pasteurized milk was used everywhere. It is a law now in many cities that only Pasteurized milk can be sold to customers and it must be sold within two days after it has been Pasteurized.

Pasteurizing Milk

There are many large Pasteurizing plants in our large cities. Large vats are on the upper floor of the room, and are filled with hot milk. The milk runs down from the upper floor through the pipes to the vats on the second floor and from here to the first floor into the machines that fill the bottles. As fast as a dozen bottles are filled and covered, the men pack them into boxes and send them to the cold-storage room, where they are ready to be hauled away.

The milk is kept as cool here as in the cooling room on the dairy farm. The air in this room is about 38 degrees both winter and summer.

The pipes in the top of the cooling room are filled with brine or salty water. These pipes turn so cold that they cool the air in the room and the milk is kept at just the right temperature.

Selling Milk—In Days Gone By

This is a picture of the selling of milk in America in the old days before we bottled our milk and pasteurized it. Even the best of milk would be spoiled if it were sold in this way. No pains are taken to keep the milk clean. The driving reins are tied around one can, and the handle of the dipper is sticking out of the other. Both covers are partly off the cans of milk. The dust of the street blows into the milk. The horse's tail switches the dirt over and into the cans. Even the driver and the boy in the buggy look untidy.

You can easily picture the barn where this milk came from. The stable where the cows are milked has not been cleaned. The cows have not been brushed and their bags have not been washed before milking. The pails and cans are not clean. They are sour because they have not been scalded and the germs in them have not been killed by sterilizing the pans and cans and the straining cloths. Many changes have been made since this man peddled milk in open cans. The boards of health have looked at this milk and found it full of germs that make people sick. Laws have been passed that milk can not be sold in this way. This has led to the selling of certified milk and pasteurized milk in all our large cities.

Now the milk from the dairy farm is sent to the city in cans loaded onto trucks. After the milk is strained from the pail into the can it is not opened until it reaches the pasteurizing plant in the city. The cans are carried to the railway station and are loaded into refrigerator cars where the temperature is kept at about 38 degrees so the milk will not sour. Then it is sent to the pasteurizing plant and from there it is delivered to customers in the city.

Drinking Milk in School

Boys and girls are measured in school to see if they are growing as they should. Some children need a change of food and some need more food than they are getting. Milk is the best food for growing boys and girls that is known in the world to-day. It has in it the kinds of food that meat and vegetables and bread contain. Many schools serve a glass of milk every day to any child who wishes to drink it.

If you do not like the taste of milk try a little chocolate sirup in it. This is the way to make the sirup: Take two squares of chocolate and put half a cup of sugar and a half cup of water with it. Let it boil until it is like a sirup. When you want to drink a glass of milk and do not like the taste of it put a tablespoonful of chocolate sirup in it. You will like it very much and will want a second glass to drink.

LESSON III

The Cow's Cousin, The Reindeer

The Eskimos in Alaska own many herds of reindeer, and Mr. Anti is one of these Eskimos. There are hundreds of reindeer in Mr. Anti's herd and Ole, the herd boy, with the dogs, helps him to take care of them. For a reindeer herd is like a herd of cattle on the western plains; it must be watched day and night.

If it is summer the reindeer wander through the green valleys and eat the grass and moss and the young sprouts of the willows which grow by the streams. If it is winter they eat the moss that grows under the snow.

At night the herd stays quietly feeding or resting near the camp. The Eskimo herders take turns in watching the reindeer. In the winter, they use their sleeping bags. When a storm comes they crawl into their sleeping bags, pull them up over their heads, and lie down in the snow. Here they are snug and warm, for the snow cannot reach them nor the wind find its way through their warm covers.

Sometimes the wolves come at night and try to reach the deer. The dogs hear them and begin to bark. This frightens the herd and sometimes they start to run, and there is danger of a stampede of the whole herd, over the snow, through the dark night. The herders jump out of their bags and shoot at the wolves, who slink away. The dogs go after the stray reindeer and bring them back to the herd, and soon everything is quiet again.

Often, in the winter, a big snow storm comes up and the snow falls for three or four days until it gets so deep that the deer are nearly covered over with it. But they do not mind that. They wade through the snow and dig their way down to the moss with their front hoofs.

There are many hard wind storms in the reindeer country. The wind sweeps the snow off the hills and piles it in drifts in the valleys. Then the deer cannot be driven to their feeding grounds. They must eat what moss they can find on the hill tops.

The Cow's Cousin, the Bison

Long ago, when the wild cow lived in the forest, her cousin, the bison, lived on the plains in this country. They wandered over the open places much as the cow wandered through the forest.

Great herds of them, before man came to their land, moved together over their feeding grounds, eating through the day and at night marching to the river to drink. They were very fond of salt and took long journeys to their salt licks.

An old captain of the herd led them over the paths which other herds had trod for thousands of years. These trails which the bison made were worn for many centuries into paths as hard as our highways are to-day and were the first roads which the white men used in their journeys through the country when they first came to this country.

Only a few of these bison are left now in this country. The white hunter and the Indian have killed them for their valuable hides, out of which buffalo robes were made and leather goods were manufactured. Herd after herd have been wiped out by these careless hunters until no trace of them remains to-day on the western plains.

The Great Plains have been plowed and sown to wheat, and busy farmers reap and harvest grain on the land where once the bison lived.

A few bison have been saved as curiosities. You may sometimes see them in the public park or in the zoo of some large city. There they stand behind the wire fences which shut them in, all day chewing their cuds and dreaming, perhaps, of their old life, free and wild on the plains.

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian, Bureau of Education

DAVIS, CALVIN OLIN. Our evolving high-school curriculum. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., World book company [1927] ix, 301 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

In view of the searching analysis to which the secondary-school curriculum is now being subjected, Professor Davis's book is designed to give a clearer understanding of what the present curriculum issues are and how they are being attacked. The necessary perspective is afforded by tracing the evolution of the curriculum from its origin, bringing out particularly the American developments of the past half century. The nature of youth is then discussed, with a summary of the outstanding conclusions which have been reached by investigators. The aims and objectives, the theories as to the function of the high school, comprise a group of problems brought out in detail. The educational values that inhere in the different school subjects are next examined. The final group of problems dealt with is concerned with the administrative aspects of the curriculum. Another feature is an extended compilation of data from many different curricula selected from typical communities.

DAVIS, GUY PRATT. What shall the public schools do for the feeble-minded? A plan for special-school training under public-school auspices. Cambridge, Harvard university press, 1927. xviii, 225 p. tables, diagrs., forms. 8°. (Harvard studies in education, pub. under the direction of the Graduate school of education, volume X).

Dr. Walter E. Fernald, who died in 1924, achieved great success in administering the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded at Waverley. This study applies Doctor Fernald's educational system of the feeble-minded to the training of mental defectives in the public schools. The book is suggestive for public-school administrators who are in doubt how to handle feeble-minded children among normal class groups.

FRIES, CHARLES CARPENTER. The teaching of the English language. New York, Thomas Nelson and sons, 1927. 3 p. l., 187 p. 12°.

The modern scientific view of language is interpreted in this book in a practical way for teachers. It presents not only a criticism of the older views and practices, but also offers the principles of a constructive program and defines the objective of such teaching. It does not offer a detailed program for the study of English, but aims primarily to provide guiding principles of teaching.

HILLEGAS, MILO B., *ed.* The classroom teacher. Chicago, The classroom teacher, inc. [1927] Vols. I–7, 10. 8 v. illus., tables, diagrs. 8°.

When completed, this work will comprise 12 volumes, which have been divided into three units. The first volume deals with professional subjects applicable to all grades, and is intended for use with any one of the three units. Volumes 2, 3, 4, and 5 are concerned with the work of the first three grades. Volumes 6 to 9, inclusive, deal with the work for grades 4, 5, and 6. Volumes 10 to 12, inclusive, cover the work for grades 7, 8, and 9, or the junior high school. The sections on special topics in these volumes are composed by authorities in their respective subjects, in such a way as to give teachers practical help both in professionalized subject matter and in method. Dr. Milo B. Hillegas is editor in chief, assisted by Drs. Thomas B. Briggs, W. C. Bagley, and others.

KELLEY, TRUMAN LEE. Interpretation of educational measurements. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., World book company [1927] xiii, 363 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Measurement and adjustment series, ed. by L. M. Terman)

The purpose of this book is to offer certain guides in the interpretation of test scores and to reveal the errors involved—all with a view to a saner, a more widespread, and at the same time a more penetrating use of such measures. The most radical departures from the treatments of earlier texts dealing with mental measurements are, first, a study of achievement and intelligence measures in their mutual relationships rather than separately; second, an emphasis upon measures of reliability and an attempt to determine the trustworthiness of all conclusions reached; and third, the publication of the ratings for general excellence for purposes of individual measurement and diagnoses of all the well-known intelligence and educational tests, by selected judges.

KNOX, ROSE B. School activities and equipment; a guide to materials and equipment for elementary schools. Boston, New York [etc.], Houghton Mifflin company [1927] xxx, 386 p. illus., plates. 12°.

In this book, the author has summarized the results of her own extensive experience, and the experiences also of many other teachers, in the selection, use, and testing of many educative activities and materials. Here is a compilation which attempts to select and organize some of the scattered information about school materials, supplies, and equipment, and to place this in an educational setting, which includes the principles of selection and use and discussion of sources, care, and method. The study is planned for the entire elementary school from the kindergarten through the sixth or seventh grades. The educational background is that of John Dewey, Frederick G. Bonser, and others of the same modern school. Professor Bonser contributes an introduction to the volume.

MURSELL, JAMES L. Principles of musical education. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xvi, 300 p. 8°. (Experimental education series, ed. by M. V. O'Shea.)

These pages present a comprehensive study of the methods, the aims, and the agencies of musical education, based on our current scientific knowledge of the psychology of music.

OGBURN, WILLIAM FIELDING, *and* GOLDENWEISER, ALEXANDER, *eds.* The social sciences and their interrelations. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton, Mifflin company [1927] viii, 506 p. 8°.

Much study is deservedly being directed at present to the interrelations and educational bearings of the social sciences. Last month a volume by Edgar Dawson and others, on teaching the social studies was mentioned in this department of School Life, and the present book treats the same group of subjects more widely, with particular attention to their interrelations. It comprises a score or more of essays by various specialists in their respective fields and illustrating diverse points of view. The work aims to present an integral picture of the present interrelations of the social sciences, with particular reference to the United States, and to set forth the potentialities for future developments. The prevalence of specialization in individual social sciences emphasizes the need for a manual like this to orient the student in a comprehensive view of the entire field. William H. Kilpatrick, of Columbia University, contributes a chapter on "The social sciences and education."

OSBORN, HENRY FAIRFIELD. Creative education in school, college, university, and museum. Personal observation and experience of the half century, 1877–1927. New York, London, Charles Scribner's sons, 1927. xiv, 360 p. front., plates (ports.). 12°.

A selection of 40 or 50 of the author's educational addresses, some historical and others relating to present conditions, grouped here by topics, and furnished with an entirely new introduction and closing chapter.

SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. Measurement in secondary education. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xvii, 588 p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

Measurement in secondary education, according to this book, makes use of certain facts and principles which are different from those in the older and better established measurements in the elementary school. These conditions raise specific problems, which the author notes, in connection with the use of derived units in interpreting test scores, in the grouping of pupils, in marking, and in prediction and guidance. The book holds that a truly scientific use of measurements in the high school awaits the development of standardized tests in the high-school subjects. Informal tests, however, are recognized as important and essential instruments which must be used until they can be replaced by standardized tests.

THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN. The teaching of English in the secondary school. Rev. ed. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton, Mifflin company [1927] xxii, 604 p. 12°. (Riverside textbooks in education, ed. by E. P. Cubberley.)

In this new edition the general theory on which this text was founded 10 years ago remains intact. The newer portions are largely in the nature of amplifications. A separate section is now devoted to spelling. Another new chapter takes up the topic of scales and measures. Suggestions for précis writing are included, and a fuller bibliography and a list of study questions have been added for each chapter.

TIPPETT, JAMES S., *and others.* Curriculum making in an elementary school, by the staff of the elementary division of the Lincoln school of Teachers college, Columbia university. Boston, New York [etc.] Ginn and company [1927] vi, 359 p. front., illus., tables, diagrs. 12°.

Ten years have passed since work at the Lincoln school of Teachers college began. This book is the first combined effort to give a rather comprehensive view of the whole elementary division of the school. The staff of the elementary division has cooperated in producing this record, in which each member has contributed, planned, and criticized.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1927

ENCOURAGE SPIRITUAL AND INTELLECTUAL FREEDOM

THAT TEACHER is greatest who creates within the school an atmosphere of freedom, growth, and responsibility. That principal is greatest who gives teachers the maximum freedom and who secures the largest growth and self-imposed responsibility. That superintendent is greatest who is most able to develop principals and teachers and to keep them free in their work with the children. That system of city or State supervision is best which fosters the finest adaptation of the schools in each local community to the highest needs and ideals of that community. ¶There is still much in our educational practice that belongs to the middle ages, but steady and substantial progress is being made in the direction of wiser and more wholesome methods of handling people. This is nowhere better illustrated than in the attitude toward the punishment of children. The old supervision through its system of punishments sought to enslave the spirits of children. The new supervision seeks to free them spiritually and intellectually.

Cornelia S. Adair, President National Education Association

NEITHER DEMOCRATIC NOR SCIENTIFIC TO TREAT ALL CHILDREN ALIKE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS are our Nation's greatest guaranty of equal opportunity in adult life. To treat all children alike, once our dogma in school management, is to do the opposite of the right thing. Modern biology and psychology have shown us that young people are individuals, each one different from the other in degree and quality of power. There is no more undemocratic doctrine than to treat them all alike. Treat them all differently would be nearer right. But the difference of treatment should be based on a realistic and, if possible, scientific knowledge of what their mental differences are. There is nothing undemocratic about psychological or achievement tests, or subdivision of classes into sections differently speeded or specialized. They are essential methods in giving each child's personality a chance to get as near 100 per cent development of that heredity which God and his ancestors gave him.

Henry Suzzallo

SCHOOL LIFE

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METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF ART EXHIBITS CLASSICAL SCULPTURE IN APPROPRIATE SETTING

Published Monthly [except July and August] by the Department of the Interior
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Displaying Worthy Examples of Art, Museum Seeks to Elevate Popular Taste

Art of the Ages Gathered by The Metropolitan Museum of Art. Exhibited in Original Surroundings in Many Instances. Monumental Egyptian Tomb Transported in Entirety from Memphis. Complete Rooms from Colonial American Houses and European Interiors. Extensive Collection of Classic Art Supplemented by Reproduction of Roman Court. Paintings Include Important Examples of World's Greatest Masters

By HUGER ELLIOTT
Director of Educational Work, The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York

TO STATE that 9,000 or 90,000 or 900,000 objects are shown in the galleries of The Metropolitan Museum of Art would mean little. The quality of the works of art, and not their quantity, is the important matter, as well as the degree of enjoyment of them by the general public and the use made of them by the student and designer.

A few figures, however, may help one to gain an idea of the scope of the collections. Sixteen galleries are needed to display the Egyptian collections; a Roman court and 14 galleries show Greek and Roman art, with 12 rooms for reproductions of classic sculpture and a large hall of miscellaneous casts. The art of China and Japan fills 15 halls, and 11 rooms are devoted to the Near East. Medieval art fills 12 galleries, these exclusive of The Cloisters, a branch museum, of which more later; the collection of arms and armor occupies 5 galleries and 2 study rooms; 47 galleries are devoted to the decorative arts of the Renaissance and later periods; 3 rooms to casts of Renaissance sculpture; 4 to the collection of musical instruments. The print collection occupies 5 galleries and a print room; the collection of textiles, 7 galleries and a study room. Twelve rooms rescued from colonial and early republican houses, with a number of other rooms in the same styles, form the American wing, furnished with the household arts of the period. Four galleries contain modern sculpture; 29 galleries, paintings; and 7 rooms, the Altman collection.

The enumeration of these galleries (this exclusive of The Cloisters) gives an idea of the size of the museum and of the periods covered, but still leaves one in ignorance of the importance of the collections shown therein. Of no museum may it be said that every object displayed is of supreme importance; it may, however, safely be claimed that the standard of excellence in The Metropolitan Museum of Art is high. And it is worthy of note that of the 225 galleries only 19 are given to reproductions, and these are of sculpture and of architectural models of value to the student of art.

To describe only the most important work of art in each gallery would necessitate the use of much more space than is at my disposal. I can, therefore, give but a brief description of a few of the objects in each division.

Of unusual interest in the department of Egyptian art is the monumental tomb of Perneb (about 2650 B. C.), transported to the museum from the cemetery of ancient Memphis. The façade of the tomb is 40 feet in width and 18 feet in height, and as the visitor steps into the principal chapel, with its unusually well-preserved wall decorations, he has an experience which may be had in but few places outside of Egypt—that of entering an actual Egyptian tomb. Of slightly less importance but also of great interest are two other chapels or offering chambers, one of the

A typical gallery devoted to American industrial art

same early period, the other of the twelfth century B. C. Every phase of Egyptian art is represented in the collections: Splendid portrait statues, such as the figure of Harmhab, of the eighteenth dynasty, the statuette of Sesostris I, the head of Akhenaten, and the statues of Merneptah, the Pharaoh of the Exodus; jewelry of remarkable workmanship; painted reliefs, richly decorated mummy cases, and innumerable funerary offerings. One room is devoted to the "Daily Life of the Egyptians," and here the visitor may see the toilet articles of the women, the armor and hunting implements of the men, the tools of the craftsmen, and the toys of the children.

Classical Sculpture is of First Importance

The chief point of general interest in the classical department is the Roman court, a peristyle surrounding a garden with a fountain. This is not an ancient court but a modern construction which suggests the setting in which the works of art might originally have been placed. Of first importance is the sculpture, ranging from sixth century, Greek marbles to late Roman marbles, and bronzes. The collection of vases shows the progressive steps of this art, from the prehistoric Greek period to the Arretine vases of the Romans. Architectural fragments, bronze implements and utensils, engraved gems, and objects in terra cotta enable the visitor to comprehend the beauty and diversity of classic art. The famous Etruscan bronze chariot should be mentioned as well as the fine Roman wall paintings from Boscoreale, a village overwhelmed by the eruption of Vesuvius which buried Pompeii. (Mention has been made of the galleries devoted to plaster reproductions of classic sculpture.)

The art of China is represented by a notable collection of sculpture—a gilt-bronze statue of Maitreya, of 486 A. D. being one of the most important pieces—and by a large number of superb paintings. In studying these one is impressed by the restraint of the Chinese painter and by his mastery of composition. The Chinese bronze vessels, jade, and the comprehensive collection of pottery and porcelain are worthy of long study. Japanese art is also well represented, the pottery and porcelains and the paintings being noteworthy.

Extensive Collection of Splendid Rugs

In the rooms devoted to the art of the Near East one finds an extensive collection of splendid rugs, jewellike paintings, glass, metal work, and superb ceramics. A Jain shrine of elaborately carved wood, Graeco-Buddhist sculpture, and colorful jewelry are some of the treasures from India which should be mentioned.

The collections of medieval art are so extensive that the visitor may gain a comprehensive idea of the artistic output of the period through all its centuries. Byzantine and Romanesque ivories, enamels and metal work, Romanesque sculpture and a wealth of Gothic sculpture, furniture, textiles—including tapestries—glass, and wrought and enameled metal work present a vivid picture of the art of the Middle Ages.

Gothic Tapestries Form a Superb Group

The collection of Byzantine ivories is notable and the group of cloisonné enamels is of the greatest variety. A group of Romanesque sculptures from a church near Burgos, Spain, should be mentioned. The Limoges enamels of the thirteenth century are important, as are the ivories and glass of the same period. The art of the Gothic sculptor is brilliantly exemplified in many fine pieces, and the Gothic tapestries form a superb group. Chief among these latter are the famous Sacrament tapestries, a large tapestry woven about the year 1500 in Brussels, representing the Fall and Redemption of Man, and a series of secular tapestries, presumably made for Charles VII of France.

The Cloisters, a branch museum situated on Fort Washington Heights, displays in a most picturesque and harmonious setting an extensive collection of medieval art.

The collection of arms and armor is one of the most representative gatherings

The imposing Fifth Avenue façade of The Metropolitan Museum of Art

extant. It admirably illustrates the work of the artist in hard metal, and gives the visitor an idea of the important part played by the armorer in the Middle Ages and in the earlier years of the Renaissance period. Suits of mail, Gothic plate armor, magnificent engraved and gilded suits for man and horse, crossbows, swords, daggers, and polearms: every article of military equipment of the period may be studied in this collection.

Bedroom from the Palazzo Sagredo, Venice; about 1718

Art of Renaissance Fills Many Galleries

The decorative arts of Europe produced during the Renaissance fill many galleries. Sculpture, tapestries, furniture, glass, and ceramics are displayed in almost bewildering array. Marble, bronze, and terracotta figures by Civitali, Verrocchio, Luca della Robbia, Rossellino, and many others may be studied. The art of the cabinetmaker is represented by notable pieces of every description from many countries, ranging from early Italian Renaissance cassoni to French pieces of the present day. Metal work of every kind, from wrought iron gates to jeweled snuffboxes, is shown; superb Italian maiolica, "Hispano-Moresque" pottery, Palissy faience, Lowestoft, Chelsea, Spode, and an unusually fine group of French wares delight lovers of beautiful form and color. Of particular interest are several original French interiors of the period and a sumptuous late baroque bedroom from the Palazzo Sagredo at Venice.

In the department of prints will be found an extensive collection of woodcuts, engravings, etchings, and lithographs: Mantegna, Dürer, Holbein, Nanteuil, Goya, Daumier, Méryon, Whistler, and a host of other masters being well represented.

The Crosby Brown Collection of musical instruments consists of more than 3,000 specimens illustrating the history and development of musical instruments of all nations from prehistoric times to the present day.

In the galleries and study room of the textile collections the visitor may see examples of woven, embroidered, and printed fabrics of every period. Costumes, ecclesiastical and secular, fans, lace, tapestries, rugs, velvets, damasks, and brocades are displayed in almost bewildering variety.

The American Wing, as has been stated, consists of 12 rooms rescued from buildings of the colonial and early republican periods, ranging geographically from New Hampshire to Virginia and in date from 1740 to 1818. These have been grouped in a three-story building given by Mr. and Mrs. de Forest. For ease of circulation there is on each floor a large exhibition gallery from which the historic rooms open. Each room is furnished with original pieces of the period, and here one can get an intimate knowledge of the manner of living of the founders of the Nation.

The Altman Collection is housed in seven galleries. Here are shown rare and valuable articles of many kinds: Eastern rugs, Chinese porcelains, objects of gold and crystal, sculpture, and paintings. The Cellini cup, of gold and enamel, is of great interest. Fine pieces of Luca della Robbia, Donatello, Rossellino, and other sculptors of the period are notable, and nearly every painting is of the first importance. Among the painters represented are Holbein, Memling, Velasquez, Botticelli, Mantegna, Francia, Verrocchio, van Dyck, Hals, Rembrandt, Vermeer, and Hobbema.

The galleries of modern sculpture contain many important pieces, Rodin and St. Gaudens being particularly well represented.

When we turn to the collection of paintings, a detailed description is more than ever out of the question. Merely a list of the important men represented would demand too much space.

The development of painting in Italy may be studied in detail from the four-

A room rescued from a destroyed colonial building

teenth to the eighteenth century. Spinello Aretino, Fra Angelico, Pinturicchio, Raphael, Correggio, Titian, Veronese, Tintoretto, and Tiepolo are but a few of the masters found in this section. Of the Flemish and Dutch schools the museum possesses many important paintings, Roger van der Weyden, Memling, Bruegel, Rubens, de Vos, Hals, Rembrandt, Cuyp, Metsu, and Vermeer being among the notable names. Paintings of the English, French, and German schools are shown in many important examples, and the collection is particularly rich in canvases by our colonial painters and by the notable painters of the United States of the last 50 years.

The Cuxa Cloister is a feature of the Fort Washington Heights branch

Will Describe Educational Service Next Month

So much for what may be seen in the museum. In the next number of School Life I shall describe briefly what is done by the museum to interest and help the visitor or student who enters its portals.

(*To be continued in the February number of* School Life.)

Home Economics Departments and Social Agencies

No better way presents itself to teach social consciousness than in cooperation between the clothing and food classes and the social agency. The contact is made in Detroit with the Junior Red Cross and the Detroit branch of the Needlework Guild of America.

During the first term and preceding Christmas the service is for the Junior Red Cross. The project is introduced early by the teachers who tell where the articles are distributed and then of the things needed. We ask the children to seek the scrap bags at home for small pieces of materials or stockings, that may be used for bean bags, stuffed animals and dolls, bibs, bedding for doll beds made by the manual training department, etc. We try as far as possible to have this a voluntary contribution. Then from Junior Red Cross funds, material is bought which is made into the Christmas stockings, panty dresses, night dresses, bloomers, slips, boys' blouses, pajamas, and coveralls.

We ask each child to contribute her time if possible for one thing which may be made from her own material or from material contributed by other children. Between 6,000 and 7,000 articles are made each year.

Each month the foods classes make cookies for some institution which the Junior Red Cross designates. Money is allowed for materials from Junior Red Cross funds.

In the spring term the service is for the Detroit branch of the Needlework Guild of America. Some garments are made with money contributed and materials purchased by the Needlework Guild committee. About 600 garments are made. All of this work is entirely voluntary.—*Julia P. Grant, Supervisor of Home Economics, Detroit Public Schools.*

National Committee on Research in Secondary Education

Small high schools as they exist and operate throughout the Nation have been given special study by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education for some years past. According to announcement made at the recent meeting of the executive organization of the National Committee this study is now nearing completion.

Other investigations and studies being carried on by the committee deal with urban high schools, procedure in secondary education research, Southern Association high schools, and bibliographies of research studies completed or in progress.

As its secretary the committee elected Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education, of the United States Bureau of Education. Mr. E. E. Windes, formerly associate specialist in rural education, was secretary to the national committee from the time of its organization until his resignation from the bureau last July.

Present at the meeting were: John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education; J. B. Edmonson, the University of Michigan, chairman of the committee; W. R. Smithey, the University of Virginia, vice chairman; A. J. Jones, the University of Pennsylvania; Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University; Wm. A. Wetzel, senior high school, Trenton, N. J.; Margaret M. Alltucker, representing Dr. J. K. Norton, of the National Education Association; W. H. Gaumnitz, Maris M. Proffitt, John O. Malott, and Carl A. Jessen, of the United States Bureau of Education.

The next meeting of the committee will occur in Boston in conjunction with the gathering of the department of superintendence in February.—*Carl A. Jessen, secretary.*

American Pupils are Held too Long upon Rudimentary Subjects

Our Schools Extremely Conservative in Maintaining the Elementary Course of Eight Years Established by Tradition, Notwithstanding Conditions Favorable to More Rapid Advancement. Pupils Have Been Exposed to Needless Reviews, and Rudimentary Subjects Have Been Inflated Instead of Permitting Introduction to Higher Methods. Economy of Time Implies no Curtailment of Educational Opportunity

Extracts from REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON LENGTH OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

THE FACT that most school systems have been extremely conservative in their attitudes toward elementary education is demonstrated by the very general failure to reduce in any way the length of time that is required for the completion of the combined elementary and secondary curriculums. In most cases where the junior high school has been adopted and where the elementary curriculum is said to be completed in six grades, pupils are required to spend 12 years in the grades and in high school before they are allowed to take up the advanced courses of the college. The beginnings of acceleration which were made by reducing elementary education to six grades are thus rendered ineffective because the system as a whole continues to demand as much time as it did formerly.

Further striking evidence of conservatism is to be found in the fact that such examples as those set by the schools of Kansas City, Mo., and Ottawa and Toronto, Canada, and by the laboratory schools of the University of Chicago, where pupils are successfully transferred to the high school at an earlier age than is common, have not been followed by neighboring school systems. This shows how tenaciously school administrators and communities hold to the idea that rudimentary training should consume the number of years which has been established by tradition. * * *

Conditions Favor More Rapid Advancement

That an earlier beginning of secondary education grows naturally out of the expansion of American education will be readily understood when it is remembered that the elementary school is to-day working under conditions which are favorable to more rapid advancement of pupils than was formerly possible. Formerly, pupils made slow progress because the school year was short, teachers were little trained, and textbooks were less attractive than they are now and less well adapted to the needs of pupils. Improvement along all these lines has brought as its direct results both a more highly differentiated curriculum in the upper grades and increasing disposition to detach the seventh and eighth grades from the elementary school. * * *

American Pupils Two Years Behind Europeans

That the upper grades of the elementary school have been only partly transformed is thought of by some as fully justified and as in keeping with the immaturity of pupils. Such complacent adherents of the conventional system should take full account of the consequences of their position. Because they are not admitted to the high school until they have completed eight grades, pupils in the United States and Canada are held at a rudimentary level for a longer period than are the pupils of any other civilized country. They are, as a result, two years behind European pupils in securing the education which is necessary for admission to the professions and to the higher levels of commercial and industrial training. They are exposed in some schools to needless reviews in subjects which have undergone inflation because they are retained in the school program longer than is desirable in view of their rudimentary content.

To be concrete, it can be asserted without fear of contradiction that 12-year-old pupils in American schools are often studying complicated and artificial methods of solving arithmetic problems when they should be using the methods of advanced mathematics. They are reviewing geography when they ought to be acquiring knowledge of international economic and social relations. They are reading orally when they ought to be gaining a mastery of literature. In short, they are treated as intellectually immature, as incompetent to deal with subjects which can be demonstrated by relatively easy experiments to be stimulating to them and to be well within their powers of comprehension.

Considerations such as those reviewed in the foregoing paragraph have led the members of the commission to regard as highly significant any evidence which shows that elementary education can be organized on a seven-grade or a six-grade plan. Indeed, it seems proper to urge the adoption of an elementary program of less than eight grades even if it is recognized clearly that a six-grade or a seven-grade school does not cover all the ground covered in an eight-grade school.

Any reader who is impressed by the idea that pupils should not be held back from high-school courses by the form of organization of the elementary school will find in this report abundant evidence that less than eight years is adequate as preparation for admission to the high school. A large number of pupils in various parts of the United States are now entering high schools after periods of elementary schooling less than the conventional eight years and are successfully meeting the requirements of the high school.

No Curtailment of Educational Opportunity

There are some who will deprecate the tendency to reduce elementary education to seven or six years because they are afraid that such a reduction means the curtailment of educational opportunity for pupils. The phrase "economy of time," which has been used in describing the advantages of a reduction in the period of elementary schooling, has been interpreted in some quarters to mean an actual curtailment of the opportunity of some pupils to attend school. It can not be too emphatically pointed out that a continuance of eight grades is not the sole method of providing a generous liberal education. Nor is the adoption of a seven-grade plan of organization or the adoption of a six-grade plan the same as the adoption of a limited program of education. General education now reaches beyond the rudimentary subjects and in the future will probably be extended even farther.

In fact, in all the more progressive States a possible curtailment of opportunity has been forestalled by the enactment of compulsory-education laws, which have steadily advanced the age at which pupils are permitted to leave school. That elementary schooling has in the past

The members of the Commission were Eugene C. Brooks, Samuel P. Capen, Edward S. Evenden, Thomas H. Harris, Charles H. Judd, *Chairman*, George Melcher, Clarence L. Phelps, Peter Sandiford, Payson Smith, and Henry Suzzallo. The report was published by the University of Chicago as Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 34, November, 1927.

been thought of as synonymous with compulsory education is a fact which can be understood in the light of American history. It is equally clear, however, that in many States compulsory education now reaches into secondary education. There is no necessary connection between elementary schooling and the limits of common schooling.

Essentials of Elementary Training

Such an argument as that which has been presented leads directly to the effort to secure a new definition of elementary education. This new definition of elementary education should not be determined by the prevailing notion that the elementary school is the limit of popular education. The essentials of elementary training are certain definable degrees of intellectual and social maturity. If these can be properly attained in less time than formerly, there is no justification for setting a period of eight years and insisting that this period be filled with rudimentary subjects.

The definition of elementary education which this report justifies is set forth in Chapter I. Command of the vernacular, of penmanship, of the essentials of arithmetic, and of the art of reading is essential. This command of the arts of communication and of the symbols necessary for precise thinking should be made complete and permanent by a period of use in Grades IV–VI, during which period the pupil becomes acquainted with the world through the study of geography, history, and the informational sections of natural science and through the reading of selected literature. These informational subjects, which constitute a legitimate part of the program of the middle grades, serve the double purpose of giving the pupil important content for his thinking and of perfecting his reading and his command of numbers as the indispensable elements of intellectual life. The essentials of elementary education thus include the fundamental intellectual arts and the first stages of informational studies.

Pupils Expected to Attend Secondary School

As soon as the pupil has gained the power of measurably independent study, he has a right to admission to the higher level of intellectual life which belongs to the secondary school. It is not the function of this report to deal with secondary education except to recognize the fact that some education beyond the rudimentary stage is essential to complete preparation for modern life. The American people, have, by the laws which they have enacted, made it evident that they expect pupils to attend school long enough to carry their training beyond the rudimentary level. Elementary education does not include all that is expected of the average pupil under the exacting requirements of our present-day civilization.

It is equally beyond the range of this report to point out the requirements of professional, commercial, and industrial training. It is evident, however, that in these spheres efficiency can be attained by individuals only when the maximum of time and energy is secured for those stages of training which lie above the rudimentary levels. The American system has in the past emphasized education of a rudimentary type and has insisted upon an excessively long period of such training. Because the common school has dealt only with subjects of the rudimentary type and has required eight years for their completion, the American plan of education has lost some of the advantages which the educational systems of other civilized countries provide for pupils who expect to enter advanced schools.

The evolution of American schools is evidently moving in a direction which will ultimately lead to a revision of the educational system and will soon compel a reduction of the period devoted to rudimentary subjects.

Vocational Training Holds Children in School

At present 182 boys and 75 girls, all that can be accommodated, are enrolled in the Colored Vocational School of Baltimore, organized in 1925 to meet the needs of colored children above the sixth grade, many of whom had been dropping out of school because of lack of interest or for economic reasons. For admission, pupils must be at least 14 years of age, and must have completed the sixth grade. Two-year courses are offered in dressmaking, tailoring, electric shoe repairing, carpentry, cabinetmaking, and auto mechanics. School hours are divided between trade practice, and study of related trade and academic subjects. The aim is not to develop journeymen mechanics, but through intensive technical and practical training to prepare pupils for advanced apprenticeship work. Although the school lacks an officially organized placement and follow-up unit, the effort is made by the faculty to supply this service.

Summer School in Brazil for Americans

The International Educational Movement proposes to organize a summer school in Rio de Janeiro, June to August, 1928, for teachers of secondary schools in the United States. The courses will be 6 in number and will consist of 30 lectures in each course upon subjects relating to Brazil. They will be conducted either in the French or the English language by Brazilian professors who have been selected by the Instituto Historico e Geographico Brasileiro. Certificates will be issued to students who have successfully pursued any two of them, which will be accepted toward an academic degree by colleges and universities in the United States. The courses will cover instruction in Brazilian geography, history, sociology, tropical biology, and in the rudiments of the Portuguese language. Brazilian teachers also will be admitted to the courses.

Dr. Towne Nylander, professor in the economic department of Princeton University, organized the arrangements with the cooperation of Dr. Carlos Delgado de Carvalho, professor in the Pedro II High School of this capital. It is hoped that the experiment may prove an initial step in the process of intellectual approximation between the public-school teachers of Brazil and of the United States, for which some of us have long been searching.—*Edwin V. Morgan, United States ambassador, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.*

To Enable Students to Become Depositors

A student employment agency has been inaugurated by the school savings bank of the Stevens Point (Wis.) High School, in cooperation with school officials, through which local people may obtain the services of high-school boys and girls on Saturdays and during certain hours on school days. The purpose is, by providing a source of income, to assist students in maintaining accounts with the school savings bank, and at the same time to furnish household and other service needed by people of the town.

FOR MANY YEARS it has been the policy of the Federal Government to encourage and foster the cause of education. Large sums of money are annually appropriated to carry on vocational training. Many millions go into agricultural schools. The general subject is under the immediate direction of a Commissioner of Education. While this subject is strictly a State and local function, it should continue to have the encouragement of the National Government. I am still of the opinion that much good could be accomplished through the establishment of a department of education and relief, into which would be gathered all of these functions under one directing member of the Cabinet.—*From the President's Message to the Congress.*

Jacksonville Meeting of Southern Association

A high mark in attendance was reached when 450 members of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States registered at Jacksonville, Fla., for the annual meeting, Thursday and Friday, December 1 and 2. This, the thirty-second annual meeting of the association, was pronounced by many the most successful one ever held. The programs were well attended and excellently presented, and a general feeling of enthusiasm and good will was everywhere apparent. The association approved a total of 928 secondary schools and admitted eight colleges, six teacher training colleges, and four junior colleges as new members.

Preliminary to the meeting of the association, two commissions, on institutions of higher education and on secondary schools, held their meetings on November 29 and 30. During these two days, the commissions prepared their reports on accredited relations for submission to the association.

Prof. Theodore H. Jack, of Emory University, president of the association, and President Guy E Snavely, of Birmingham-Southern College, secretary, had effectively brought their abilities to bear upon the problem of preparing programs which would be worth while, interesting, and inspirational.

Among numbers which very evidently impressed auditors were the address by Prof. L. B. Richardson, of Dartmouth College, on "Present day problems of the liberal college"; the report of Dr. J. B. Edmonson as fraternal delegate from the North Central Association; the dean's annual report presented by Dr. Joseph Roemer; and the report of the Committee of Ten on College Entrance Requirements submitted by Dean W. K. Greene, of Wesleyan College.

Two recreational events had been provided by the people of Florida. On Thursday evening an association banquet and concert was given jointly by the University of Florida and the Florida State College for Women, and on Friday afternoon the parent-teacher association of Jacksonville arranged a sight-seeing trip about the city and its environs.

Superintendent H. M. Ivy of Meridian, Miss., was chosen president of the association for the coming year and President Snavely was reelected to the secretaryship. Fort Worth, Tex., is next year's meeting place.—*Carl A. Jessen.*

About 4,000 students from the Philippines, it is estimated, are attending schools and colleges in Continental United States.

Englishmen Now Advocate Secondary Education For All Pupils

Principal Education Officer of Great Britain Asserts that Proper Provision Should be Made for Every Child. Local Authorities Need Not Draw Back on Grounds of Expense. Schools of Many Types Required

LORD EUSTACE PERCY, President of the British Board of Education, speaking at Bradford on Monday on the occasion of the jubilee of the Belle Vue Secondary School, said there was a great deal in Bradford of peculiar interest to anyone responsible for the education of the country. Bradford had taken full advantage of the Education Act of 1902. The Act not only gave powers to local authorities to provide secondary schools, but it enabled schools like Belle Vue to become municipal secondary schools. At the same time it rescued a large number of old grammer schools, restoring them with State aid; it restored many old endowed church schools, which were in danger of extinction. As the result of that great piece of legislation they had, in varying degrees, in different parts of the country, built up a secondary school system. Like all bureaucrats, he found himself using the word "system," whereas he preferred the words "secondary provision." One thing there ought not to be was a "secondary school system," for every secondary school should stand on its own legs. It should not be merely a cog in the machine of a system.

Bradford had taken the fullest opportunity of the advantages bestowed by the Act of 1902—probably more so than any other city. Proportionately it had practically double the number of students in its secondary schools than the average for the rest of the country; it had attained a standard of about 20 secondary school pupils per thousand of the population. The city was offering—and actually giving—secondary education in secondary schools to rather more than one in four of the pupils in the elementary schools. That was a great achievement. Sometimes the length of school life in the secondary schools tended to be less than they might have wished, but since the war, especially in the last four or five years, they had been overcoming these difficulties.

Lord Eustace Percy, continuing, said they now realized that they ought to provide not only for one quarter of their children, but for all the children in the elementary schools. Every child should have secondary education from the age of 11 onward. All the local authorities in the country had now got to adapt themselves to that idea and work out that policy. He would not enter into the question of administrative costs, he would only say that that policy was not a policy from which any local authority need draw back, on the grounds of expense. It would mean a reorganization of their schools, the provision of accommodation and equipment suitable to a higher stage of education, from the age of 11 onward. It was not such an expensive step, even for local authorities, though rates were a heavy burden at the present moment. There were administrative details which would have to be worked out—in Bradford, for instance, they would have special administrative problems in adapting their educational system to that wider system of secondary education for all.

By secondary education he did not mean, necessarily or even especially, the sort of curriculum which had hitherto been associated with what they had known as secondary schools in the past. They did not mean that all would have to work to a particular standard, set by a particular system of university examinations. In developing secondary education for all they had got to develop secondary schools where every child would enter a higher stage of education, such as would enable the rising generation of this country to meet the demands which were going to be made upon it increasingly every day—by the professions, industry, commerce, and the public services of the nation. They needed not merely one type of secondary school, but other and more varied types.—*London Times Educational Supplement, December 3, 1927.*

Parent-Teacher Associations Encourage Reading

Establishment of home and public libraries, the reading by parents at home of literature on child health and training, and use of reading courses suggested by the United States Bureau of Education in cooperation with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, are promoted in 27 States by local chairmen on home education. State organizations in Michigan, Indiana, Texas, California, Georgia, and Mississippi, have issued excellent programs for the promotion of home education.

Accrediting Secondary Schools of Middle States and Maryland

New Function Recently Undertaken by Regional Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Progress is Necessarily Slow but Work is Proceeding Steadily. More than 3,300 Schools to be Considered

By E. D. GRIZZELL

Chairman Commission on Secondary Schools, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland

THE PRESENT PROGRAM of accrediting secondary schools in the Middle States and Maryland began on Feburary 1, 1927, with the opening of a central office under the direction of the chairman. Immediately following the opening of the central office, machinery for accrediting and the procedure to be followed were established. Funds for carrying on the work in its early stages were provided by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. Resources sufficient to finance the entire program were secured from the Carnegie Corporation.

1. Accrediting machinery.—The accrediting machinery consists of (1) the central office for publicity and for collecting and assembling data; (2) the State committees composed of representatives of all the important agencies directly interested in secondary schools, whose function is the evaluation of all reports submitted and recommendation of action to be taken by the commission; (3) the Commission on Secondary Schools whose function is the determination of policy and final approval of all accrediting activities. In addition, special representatives are employed to visit particular schools as the occasion demands.

Directory of Secondary Schools First Necessity

2. Procedures in accrediting.—The following steps have been involved:

(1) The compilation of a directory of more than 3,300 schools of secondary grade (not including junior high schools) was necessary before contacts with schools were possible.

(2) The preliminary publicity was one of the most important problems confronting the commission. Two communications including a bulletin of information were addressed to all the secondary schools in the territory. Eight hundred fifty secondary schools submitted applications for membership on the accredited list. Many inquiries were answered by correspondence and personal interview; and press notices were sent to all the important professional magazines throughout the United States. Extended articles dealing with the preliminary phases of the work appeared in several leading educational magazines.

(3) The general-report form was prepared and sent on June 20, 1927, to all schools which made application for membership on the accredited list.

(4) The assembly and analysis of reports were handled entirely by the central office in preparation for their evaluation by the State committees. This involved various computations and correspondence with schools for securing additional data.

Active Work by State Committees

(5) Meetings were held by the committees of each State for the purpose of examining the reports submitted. The meetings were held in Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Albany.

(6) Special correspondence and visitation were necessary in a considerable number of cases. In some instances the State committees recommended a visit by a special representative before final decision. For this reason action by the commission has been deferred on a large number of schools.

(7) The commission met on November 19, 1927, to consider the recommendations of the State committees. On the basis of these recommendations, together with additional information procured by special correspondence and by visitors' reports, a preliminary list of 187 schools was approved for the accredited list. This list, with schools to be considered at the next meeting of the commission, will be published on May 1, 1928.

3. Results of the accrediting program.—The work accomplished to date can not be adequately measured by figures; the difficulties involved in organization and preliminary promotion of the work are not revealed by the number of schools approved. The next stages of the work will bear a greater return because of the work already accomplished. Evidence of this fact is the large number of new applications received daily at the central office. The routine of handling new applications and answering inquiries has retarded correspondence with schools awaiting information concerning the action of the commission on reports submitted. All the large cities in the territory are arranging for complete reports to be submitted for all their high schools. The present returns indicate that more than 1,000 schools will have submitted reports by February 15, 1928.

The schools thus far accredited in the several States are as follows: Delaware, 1 public and 2 private; Maryland, 6 public and 8 private; New Jersey, 37 public and 16 private; New York, 22 public and 36 private; Pennsylvania, 32 public and 27 private; total, 98 public and 89 private. The work of the committee for the District of Columbia is still incomplete.

4. Next steps in the accrediting program.—The commission's program for the rest of the current academic year follows the general lines of the work already completed. All schools that have submitted reports have been notified of the action of the commission. Schools that have not met the requirements of the commission for one cause or another have been advised as to their shortcomings. In some instances they have been urged to submit additional data or visitors will be sent to study the situation in more detail. It is the earnest desire of the commission to be helpful in every possible way and to that end it stands ready to offer suggestions for improvement to those schools requesting advice. Applicants for membership that have not yet submitted reports have been urged to do so before February 15, in order that the list to be published May 1 may be as complete as possible.

Special Procedure for City High Schools

A special procedure for accrediting the public high schools in large cities has been adopted which will facilitate the work to a considerable degree. Arrangements have been made with the superintendents' offices in New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh whereby the reports from the public high schools of those cities will be collected and forwarded to the central office. This procedure will simplify the work to a large degree and at the same time relieve both the central office and the principal of the large city high school of much unnecessary routine work.

The work of accrediting thus far reveals the need for special studies of such items as teachers, success in college, laboratories, libraries, and other factors determining the efficiency of the school. The excellent reports submitted by many schools will provide a basis for such studies. In this connection the promotion of special research studies for the purpose of establishing more definite measures than the existing standards provide is imperative.

More than half the children in rural schools of Alabama attend consolidated schools, each of which employs three or more teachers.

Safety Work of National Congress of Parents and Teachers

By MILDRED RUMBOLD WILKINSON
National Congress of Parents and Teachers

IN MANY small towns and rural districts the parent-teacher organizations are powerful and efficient agencies in moulding public opinion and in putting over measures for the good of children. Nearly all associations are interested in the safety campaigns of their communities and many include this work in their programs. The following safety plan is much used in the 49 State branches of the National Congress:

Plan of Safety Committee

Aim.—Prevention of accidents, especially among children, through comprehensive, permanent safety campaigns.

Activities.—Encourage and assist safety education in the schools; interest all parents in the need for home safety; give parents specific information on hazards and remedies; secure proper attention to safety on all playgrounds; work for adequate playgrounds or play space with suitable supervision of children's activities; take part in community safety work, or organize it if need be; cooperate with Boy and Girl Scouts; see that all parents have a circular letter at special seasons: Beginning of school year, to warn of traffic hazards; at Christmas, to warn of danger from lighted Christmas trees; at the beginning of winter sport season, to safeguard coasting and skating places; in the spring, to teach children to recognize poisonous plants; at the beginning of the summer vacation, to remind parents of Fourth of July hazards; in summer, to encourage children to learn to swim, to behave properly in a boat, and to manage one.

Objectives.—To awaken interest on the part of parents and educators in a safety campaign; to make a safety survey of the community, this to be published and followed by appropriate action; to cooperate with the National Safety Council, New York City.

Past accomplishments.—Five years' trial of safety teaching in the schools has proved that where safety has been incorporated in the school curriculum on a wide scale 50 per cent of the fatalities among children of school age may be prevented; and through comprehensive, permanent safety campaigns, 75 per cent of all accidents.

Statistics show that accidents cause more deaths between the ages of 5 and 15 than any one disease, and it is proper that the parent-teacher associations should stress accident prevention in the homes, in the schools, and in the communities. On public roads where no person in authority is at hand to watch the children going to and from the schools, they must be safeguarded through home and school training. It has been found that one of the best ways to prevent accidents from automobiles on the public roads is to walk on the side of the road facing the coming machine. This enables the one walking and the one driving intelligently to avoid each other.

In St. Louis County, Mo., the teachers cooperate with the parents by starting all children home on the road facing the coming machine. One association has secured a right of way through private property, cutting off half a mile. This enabled the school authorities to forbid the use of another short cut over a road skirting a quarry. The path through private property is kept well cindered, and the older children watch to prevent injury to gardens or fields.

Michigan's safety education committee recommends that each local association appoint a carefully selected safety committee of three members: A father, to investigate the travel hazards and to learn if there are any dangerous practices in the community; a mother, to make a similar study of possibilities of accidents in the homes; and a principal or a teacher to consider how the curriculum of the school is meeting the conditions that endanger the children. One meeting is to be devoted to the reports of these surveys and the discussion of conditions and remedies.

The California State branch has a safety committee which cooperates with the State automobile association, the police department, juvenile courts, boards of education, and all civic safety departments.

The Oregon chairman of the home safety survey sent out through the State Parent-Teacher Bulletin, a comprehensive questionnaire to be filled by heads of families describing the precautions against accident in the homes of the State.

Adult Committees are Active

Adult safety committees have been organized in the tenth district of California. Articles covering the entire safety program of the Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations, urging general cooperation with these committees, were printed in all the daily and weekly papers in the district. Similar committees were organized in nearly every school and at present there are 80 adult committees doing active safety work, such as speaking before organizations and in local motion picture shows, and formulating plans for slides to be used in visual education in the schools and communities.

Boys in the San Francisco and Berkeley schools have been organized into traffic reserve squads, trained to work under the orders of police traffic officers in protecting school children in congested districts. This work has been found to be a great aid in character development.

In Oakland, Calif., safety squads of young boys have aided the police so effectively that there has been but one fatal accident among school children in the past six years. In some sections the parent-teacher associations have secured pedestrian lanes as well as police protection at dangerous intersections. In Los Angeles where thousands of children have to cross streets in badly congested districts the problem has been solved in thirty places by having tunnels under the streets. Twenty more are under construction. Demonstrations by members of the fire and police departments have proved of great help in preventing accidents in one district. Efforts of parent-teacher associations along safety lines have resulted in traffic signs and in securing traffic officers near schools and supervised playgrounds.

The National Safety Council has made available for distribution a safety survey blank covering home, school, and community. These blanks may be procured from the office of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington, D. C., together with a reprint of an article published in the August Child Welfare Magazine giving valuable suggestions as to the conduct of the safety campaign. All associations carrying on this work will receive recognition in the form of a certificate or medal awarded by the educational division of the National Safety Council, 120 West Forty-second Street, New York City.

Washington Visits Feature Americanization Instruction

State-wide plans for a pilgrimage to Washington in December of foreign-born men and women, pupils in night schools and day classes in New York, were made by the State department of education in cooperation with the State Teachers Association. Parties from different parts of the State assembled in Washington, where they visited places of national interest. Preliminary lessons were given in class to enable pupils to receive the greatest benefit possible from the pilgrimage. Visits of this character are becoming an important feature of Americanization work in near-by States, and delegations, officially sponsored, have visited Washington from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and other States.

Organized evening classes in shop mathematics and blue-print reading for men working in a large cotton gin plant at Prattville, Ala., are conducted by two men employed in the engineering department.

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Seek Restoration of Welsh Language in Education and Daily Life

Departmental Committee Appointed by President of British Board of Education Makes Exhaustive Report. Declares that Welsh is One of the Great Literary Languages and Fully Worthy of Preservation

By JAMES F. ABEL

Associate Specialist in Foreign Education Systems, Bureau of Education

"THE INDIVIDUALITY of a nation is its birthright. War or conquest may obliterate it; an alien culture may overlay it; the unseen processes of history may efface it; immigration may dilute it; and yet it makes a fight for life and that battle is just. There is no profit in uniformity." This direct statement embodies the spirit of the remarkable revival of languages that is going rapidly forward in many countries.

It prefaces the recommendations made in the report of a departmental committee named in 1925 by the president of the British board of education—

"To inquire into the position occupied by Welsh (language and literature) in the educational system of Wales, and to advise how its study may best be promoted in educational institutions and classes of all types, regard being had to: (1) The requirements of a liberal education; (2) the needs of business, the professions, and public services; (3) the relation of Welsh to English and other studies."

It is significant of the sympathetic attitude of the board that these terms of reference assume the study of Welsh to be an essential element in the educational system of Wales and leave the committee free to study ways and means of promoting it rather than producing evidence of its claims to recognition.

Welsh Was an Aristocratic Language

Nevertheless, the reference did not preclude the committee in drawing up its report, "Welsh in Education and Life," from summarizing with manifest pride the history of the language. It classifies the Celtic tongues into two main sections; the Goidelic, and the Gaulish and British. The former is the parent of Irish Gaelic, Scotch Gaelic, and Manx; the latter, of Welsh, Breton and Cornish. "At a period in its history corresponding to the time when English was regarded as almost a slave vernacular," writes the committee, "Welsh was the language of aristocracy and continued to be so till some time after the accession of Henry VII."

And further, "we shall never be able to take a wide and reasonable view of the Welsh language and its literature until we realize that from the first beginnings of its history Welsh has been one of the great literary languages of the world.

"Like Irish, then, Welsh is not merely the chief language or dialect among a group of related languages or dialects, but it forms the *only* storehouse of the immemorial traditions of the British tongue; it is in fact the British tongue developed, harmonized, and adapted by the usage of centuries.

"To-day Wales has a national system of education, a highly developed religious organization, a really great literature, a national drama, and a new, quickly developing national consciousness. If at the present time, the Welsh language through the fault of the schools or of any other organization, declines, it will decline in the period of its greatest opportunities."

Nearly a Million Persons Speak Welsh

As for the present position of the language, in Wales and Monmouthshire 929,183 persons over 3 years of age were reported by the census of 1921 as Welsh-speaking. Of these, 156,995 spoke only that language; the others knew English also. It has its place in the elementary schools in that the regulations provide that the curriculum should as a rule include Welsh; any subject may be taught in the language; it should be the medium of instruction in infant classes where Welsh is the mother tongue of the children; and provision should be made for teaching Welsh history and the geography of Wales. But each local education authority has much freedom, and the extent to which Welsh is used in any school depends greatly on the attitude and ability of the local management. Practice varies widely. It is the language of instruction in nearly all infant departments in Caernarvonshire and has a strong place in the senior departments of elementary schools also; it is not on the time tables at all in Radnorshire, South Pembrokeshire, and much of Monmouthshire.

A remarkably increased number of pupils coming from the secondary schools offer it as a subject of examination for the school and the higher certificates but there is little evidence that on the secondary levels it is the language medium in any subject other than Welsh. The six teacher-training colleges in Wales offer courses generally confined to students that have a previous knowledge of the language, though in one college all take Welsh and another has a beginners' class for those who wish a working knowledge of it. The training departments of the four colleges of the University of Wales give courses in methods of teaching Welsh; they do not make the language an academic subject. In the main, it is the medium of instruction in the Welsh departments of the university and in several of the extra-mural classes; and the members of these departments, both teachers and students, have become leaders in poetry, the drama, music, theology, and journalism.

Churches Influential in Preserving the Language

The Welsh Bible of to-day is substantially the translation made into the language of the Welsh bards in 1588 by Dr. William Morgan, and in the preservation of Welsh the churches and Sunday schools stand foremost. The number of Welsh services held each Sunday has not seriously declined from the 1,103 of 1906. The Sunday schools attended by scholars of all ages, and for generations the only institutions in which the children of Wales were taught to read their own tongue, are in a flourishing condition. Linked with the church are the young people's guilds and the Welsh dramatic associations.

In public administration, though English is the language of the courts, witnesses may testify in Welsh; Welsh versions of important laws are available; the Board of Health issues many of its publications in Welsh; and appointees to public offices in Wales are usually competent to speak, read, and write the language.

Against these many agencies operating to preserve and further the Welsh tongue is a series of social and economic forces threatening it with "suffocation by an extraneous language." Recognition of its value in the educational system has come only recently and the committee feels that both authorities and teachers have "shown timidity in the face of increasing anglicizing influence, and too great readiness to retreat before growing difficulties and to restrict the place of Welsh in the schools."

Modern Inventions Favor Spread of English

Enough teachers trained to handle the language are not to be had and the higher salaries and better positions in England are drawing away the best product of the training colleges and university training departments. A greater variety of Welsh books is needed, but their publication is a matter of supply and demand. The sales

are not sufficient to attract the best authors and illustrators. The motor car and the radio have taken English into the homes of thousands of Welshmen who hitherto neither heard nor spoke it. A flood of English tourists throng Wales and the interchange of populations between England and Wales is growing. The Welsh periodical press has to compete with the strong English dailies which reach into the remotest parts of Wales.

The committee offers a series of 72 recommendations for improving the position of Welsh. In the main, they look toward its thorough incorporation into every phase of the educational system, rousing an attitude of pride among the Welsh toward their mother tongue, and encouraging its more common use in the homes. The language withstood the Roman conquest, the Dark Ages, the advent of the Normans, and the hostility of the Tudor sovereigns. Will it persist now that communication and interchange of thought among the peoples of the world is far easier and more rapid than ever before in the history of mankind?

The report has far more than local significance. The situation it depicts in detail is, in its broad aspects, exactly that which exists in many other sections and countries. Some of the questions it raises are now puzzling much of the educational world and opening enormous fields for experiment and invertigation. The pedagogy of training children to be bilingual, the psychology of bilingualism, its economic aspects for the individual and the nation, and its political and sociological phases are all matters about which there is a great mass of opinion, most of it prejudiced, and very little scientific knowledge.

The committee believes that the pupil's mother tongue should be the vehicle of instruction and the second language should be begun early and introduced gradually into the courses; that administrative problems of bilingualism can be met by establishing parallel classes; and that teachers should be encouraged to conduct experiments in bilingual teaching and publish the results. These are recommendations that challenge the attention of all educators who are struggling with situations such as that in Wales.

President Juan Vincente Gómez, of Venezuela, has decreed the foundation of an Institute of Tropical Medicine, to be connected with the Central University of Caracas, in which scientific investigations and studies regarding tropical sickness will be carried on. This measure was taken on account of the many unknown tropical diseases existing in parts of Venezuela.

How Parents May Aid The Rural School Health Program

By FLORENCE A. SHERMAN
Assistant Medical Inspector of Schools, New York State Department of Education

BY TEACHING children early in life good-health habits in relation to sleep, baths, food, water drinking, the toilet, posture, breathing, exercise, rest, play, cheerfulness.

By being attentive to health in the home, each member of the family having a daily health program and practicing it, thus creating interest and enthusiasm in children. Let "Keep well" be the slogan.

By believing in and having at least once a year a health examination for each member of the family.

By seeing to it that children are in good physical condition to go to school, being sure that they enter with no physical handicaps, and are able to meet the demands of school life and less liable to absence because of illness.

By giving prompt attention to children already in school in whom the school doctor finds physical defects, such as diseased tonsils, adenoids, defective vision, defective hearing, defective teeth, enlarged thyroid, poor nutrition, bad heart and lung conditions, spinal and foot defects, speech defects, defects of skin and scalp.

By permitting sufficient removal of clothing by the school doctor to enable him to make a good examination, providing a screen for each school, so that the child may have the privacy which is his right during the examination.

By seeing that the school doctor is appointed early in the school year (making sure that he is the best—not the cheapest) in order that corrective needs found may receive attention as early as possible. Children should receive as skillful attention as your livestock.

By being interested in the appointment of the teacher, making sure that she is healthy, knowing her and seeing to it that she has a comfortable and pleasant place to live in.

By providing clean, sanitary, and attractive school buildings having suitable, healthful equipment as follows: Pure drinking water, covered porcelain water containers, individual drinking cups, facilities for washing the hands, paper towels, liquid soap, sanitary toilets, toilet paper, a properly placed and jacketed stove, proper lighting from left and rear, window shades, good ventilation, providing at least two window boards or screens for every room, a thermometer properly placed, comfortable and adjustable seats and desks, a screen for use during the school doctor's examination, a doormat, and the required playground space—all kept in a sanitary condition.

By showing active interest in the school and school-health program, making the school one of the civic projects, possibly making it a health center. Showing interest by visiting the school, knowing the teachers, doctor, and school nurse if there be one, making the school supplementary to the home in the care of children as to healthfulness and comfort.

This is the best investment any community can make. Will you not live up to this great obligation?

Provides Scientific Training in Fisheries

Dalhousie University, at Halifax, Nova Scotia, has established a chair of fisheries and a four years' course of study leading to the degree of bachelor of science in fisheries. The course will be based on solid training in the fundamental sciences and will embrace practical instruction in (*a*) General principles relating to fisheries; (*b*) Principles of fish embryology and fish culture; (*c*) Principles of salting, drying, and canning methods; (*d*) Principles of freezing and smoking methods; and (*e*) Marine biology, to be given in a laboratory situated directly on open sea water.

Fishery, agriculture, mining, and forestry are the four great industries of the Maritime Provinces, and fishery has heretofore been alone in having no appropriate provision for the training of scientific experts for its development. The biological board of Canada will cooperate in the conduct of the college, and will provide teachers and instructors for the staff.—*W. Henry Robertson, American consul general, Halifax.*

All adults who handle food in school lunchrooms of New York City must hold a "food handlers' health certificate." This is in conformity to the sanitary code of the city which requires examination of all persons engaged in the preparation or serving of food, to establish freedom from any infectious or venereal disease in communicable form.

Dormitories for Montana Public High School Pupils

Population of Some Counties Is Sparse and Distances Are too Great for Daily Transportation of Pupils. Suitable Living Quarters Not Otherwise Available in Towns for Rural Children. Dormitory now Integral Part of School Plant

By EDITH A. LATHROP
Assistant Specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education

DORMITORIES for public high-school children have become recognized institutions in Montana. Many school officers recommend them as the best solution for housing children living in rural areas who must leave home to attend high school; rural parents unanimously approve them; school children in well-managed dormitories show more improvement in scholarship, personality, and cooperative spirit than do many children who live at home; and successful dormitories supply children with wholesome food, a homelike atmosphere, and careful supervision at the lowest possible cost. These are the principal facts established in a recent study of public school dormitories by Jessie E. Richardson, department of home economics, and J. Whecler Barger, department of rural life, published by the University of Montana as Bulletin 201.

More than 500 rural children were housed in 19 dormitories operated in connection with high schools in Montana in 1926. As the population and economic conditions have changed from year to year the number of dormitories in operation has varied. The State department of education reported 24 in 1920 and 25 in 1922. Although the first public school dormitory was established in 1914, it was not until 1923 that the Montana legislature legalized dormitories already in operation and authorized school trustees to provide additional ones where needed.

Large and sparsely settled school districts, the impracticability of consolidation in many sections of the State, the limitation in the number of high schools that can be established because of low property valuation, and the difficulty of finding living quarters for children in towns are given as reasons why dormitories have become necessary for Montana high schools.

There are counties in the State with areas larger than some of the States on the Atlantic seaboard, which are so sparsely settled that the school population is large enough to support only one secondary school, the county high school. Other counties maintain in addition to county high schools a few district high schools offering from one to three years' work, but even in these counties there are instances in which the distances between high schools and the homes of the pupils are so great as to make daily transportation impossible. In some counties the establishment of additional high schools is prohibitive because of low property valuation. Each of four counties has a property valuation of less than $2,000 per census child, and each of ten counties has a valuation of less than $50,000 per teacher employed.

Most of the dormitories were originally intended for other uses

"Cliff House" at Thompson Falls was built for a school dormitory

The difficulty in finding living quarters for children who must leave home in order to attend high school is stated as the real need that brought about the origin of the dormitory. Homes that offer both living quarters and parental responsibility for rural children are scarce in Montana towns. To leave children in town without the supervision of responsible persons causes much anxiety on the part of rural parents.

Dormitories that are Specially Successful

Dormitories operating in connection with high schools at Choteau, Deer Lodge, Thompson Falls, Whitehall, and Winnett are among those that have been especially successful.

Some years ago when a new building was erected for the Teton County high school at Choteau, the old building was remodeled into a dormitory at a cost of about $5,000. The dormitory in connection with the high school at Thompson

Falls has been in operation since 1919. For two years the school board rented a building for that purpose, but in 1921 bonds were voted for the erection of a dormitory costing $57,000, including $12,000 for equipment. This building, known as the Cliff House, is one of a group of four buildings all located on a hillside and considered as intregral parts of the school. In 1926 it housed 90 students, 46 boys and 44 girls, at a cost of $18. 50 a month. The dormitory at Winnett is one of the oldest in the State, having been in operation since 1917.

In some instances dormitory ventures of school districts have been short lived either because of the establishment of other high schools in close proximity to high schools with dormitories or because dormitory management has been inefficient.

Seventy per cent of the present dormitories have been purchased, built, or remodeled from old school buildings for sums ranging from $3,500 to $6,000, and in the majority of cases the money has been taken from the regular school fund. In 1926 in 40 per cent of the dormitories the salaries of the matrons were paid from school district funds and their living expenses were paid from fees of dormitory students; in 50 per cent the matrons were paid entirely from students' fees. The salaries of matrons ranged from a minimum of living expenses only to a maximum of $135 a month with living. The average cost per student for living in the dormitories was $17.85 per month.

The authors of the study are of the opinion that the high school dormitory in Montana has passed the experimental stage and that in certain localities it should be considered as an integral part of the school plant. To the end that mistakes may be avoided in the establishment of dormitories, it is suggested that before a dormitory is established a careful survey be made of the area contributory to the town in which it is proposed to erect a dormitory, for the purpose of determining the number of children in such area who must leave home in order to obtain a high school education, the practicability of school bus service for such children, the availability of suitable living places for children in the town, and the possibilities of the establishment of high schools in the outlying territory.

In addition to the report on the present status of high-school dormitories in Montana, the study gives a series of suggestions for planning, equipping, and managing such dormitories.

By popular vote in New Jersey, 7 new municipal libraries, 1 county library, and 12 association libraries have been established.

Cooperative Plan Practiced in Georgia School

Alternation of four weeks in the Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta, and four weeks of practical work in shops or engineering departments of railroads in Georgia is carried on by a number of students under a cooperative plan recently developed. The plan contemplates work continuously by the same two alternating students for five years, at the end of which time each will receive his B. S. degree in engineering. During this period the students receive regular apprenticeship wages for their work, and advancement or increase in wages is determined by their value to the company and the length of time spent in the service of one company.

Presidents of three railroads are on the advisory board of the cooperative department of the Georgia School of Technology. At present 86 students, 43 pairs of workers, are receiving mechanical and electrical training under the cooperative plan in shops of the Central of Georgia Railroad. In the mechanical department of the Louisville & Nashville Railroad 32 students, 16 pairs, are employed; and 12 students, 6 pairs, are employed by the Southern system in its signal and electrical and maintenance of ways departments.

French Are Treating Germans with Consideration

Instruction in German of children in elementary schools of Alsace and Lorraine is given earlier, commencing this year, if they have advanced sufficiently in the reading of French. Heretofore study of German has been delayed until the third year. It may now be taken up in the second term of the second year, according to recent announcement of the new rector of the Academy of Strassburg. The purpose is to make education bilingual in the Provinces, although French must come first in order of importance. On request of parents the catechism will be taught in German from the very beginning to assure ability of the children to read in that language from their earliest years.

English Women Trained for Australian Service

A hostel for the training of young British women as household workers in Australia has recently been established at Market Harborough, Leicestershire, England, by the British and Australian Governments. It is the outcome of a recommendation made at the last Imperial conference that Dominion governments cooperate with the home Government in providing facilities for training and testing the fitness of intending women settlers before their departure overseas.

The hostel provides accommodations for 40 pupils, and girls and single women 18 to 35 years of age will be accepted and given free instruction and maintenance during a period of 6 to 10 weeks. On completion of the course pupils are eligible for free passage to Australia, where household employment at good wages is assured them.

Honduran Teachers Will Discuss Educational Questions

A congress of teachers has been called by the National Council of Education of Honduras to be held in Tegucigalpa on January 1, 1928. Representatives of the teachers and professors of the different Departments have been elected and the congress will consider the following questions:

(1) The furtherance of moral and civil education as a fundamental base for the normal life of the nation; (2) ideals which should be held by the primary schools of Honduras; (3) nationalization of primary and normal teaching; (4) the problems of the rural schools in Honduras; (5) organization and distribution of teaching missions (for the Mosquitia and other outlying sections); (6) the problem of primary teaching in the Bay Islands; (7) stimulation of the profession to reach the highest efficiency in its duties; (8) means for solving the economic problems of the Honduran primary schools; (9) courses of higher studies for the preparation of directors and technical inspectors of primary education; (10) a project to reform the code of public instruction in its primary and normal sections for submission to the respective ministry for consideration.—*George P. Shaw, American consul, Tegucigalpa, Honduras.*

Industry and Ingenuity of Self-Help Students

House work in payment for room and board has been found the most remunerative occupation by undergraduate students working their way through Syracuse University, New York. Of 3,951 regular term and summer students who were wholly or partially self-supporting, 2,247 were men and 1,704 were women. Of the men, 408 were wholly self-supporting, but only 73 women maintained themselves entirely by their own labor while pursuing their studies. Many of the men did "janitorial engineering," or worked on the grounds. A total of $785,755 was earned by the students during the calendar year.

Must Consider Pupil's Academic Ability and Requirements of Curricula

Intelligent Educational Guidance Requires Measure of Scholastic Aptitude with Knowledge of Minimum Ability Levels for the Several Courses. Ordinary Mortals Can Do Many Things Equally Well. Exploratory Courses Should be Fundamentally Educational. Worth-While Program of Educational Guidance Possible in Any School. A Practical Record of Pupil Ratings in Each Curriculum

By WILLIAM A. WETZEL
Principal, Senior High School, Trenton, N. J.

THE PURPOSE of this paper is not to present a scientific treatise on guidance, but rather to call attention to a few things that are now within the range of possibility in every well-organized high school.

The profit which the grocer makes by raising all the goods on his shelves 50 per cent in price is no more elusive than is the progress made in guidance by broadening its definition to include the whole educational process. In a sense all education is guidance, but the high-school principal who must face the daily problems of his pupils still has two distinct guidance problems on his desk.

Individual Guidance a Difficult Task

There is first the problem of directing a pupil toward the right kind of occupation. It is easy to offer general impersonal courses in vocational guidance, but to direct an individual pupil toward his proper calling is a difficult, not to say in most cases, an impossible task. No one knows this better than the schoolmaster who has tried to help his own sons to a wise decision.

To know the hazards of mountain climbing is not enough. One must also know the physical condition of the climber. Personal guidance implies that you know both the individual and the field into which you are directing him. There are many occupations. The list of distinct callings enumerated in the census reports mounts to hundreds, and of many of these even the names are strange to most individuals. In the more common trades there is no agreement among the experts as to the qualities necessary for success. School advisers may well be justified in refusing to enter where experts hesitate to tread.

As far as individual aptitudes are concerned most of us are not geniuses divinely called to one task, but ordinary mortals who probably can fill any one of a number of occupations equally well or equally poorly, according to the point of view. The writer has often moralized about his own case. His early ambition was to become a lawyer, and he has been told by his legal friends many times that he would have made at least a fair lawyer. He has Joseph Pulitzer's sine qua non for being an editor, in seeing something in every issue of the daily paper about which he would like to write an editorial. If his father had been a stock farmer, or a musician, or a captain of a Delaware Bay fishing boat, the writer would probably have been inclined to follow his father's calling. The reason why he did not enter his father's flour mill was not that he disliked the business, but that he could see plainly the ruin of the small eastern miller in competition with the large western mills. After graduation from college he had neither money nor influence. So he drifted into teaching and has stayed put ever since.

Possibly for most of us other factors than vocational aptitudes decide the calling in which we find ourselves. The discovery of gold on many occasions has turned poets and musicians into miners, and the opening of Government lands in the West has made farmers out of street-car conductors.

Should Leave Residue of Subject Matter

It has often seemed to the writer that a word of caution might well be spoken with reference to vocational guidance in the junior high school. So-called exploratory courses may have vocational significance, but they should be more than excursions through a museum, and should leave with the young explorer a generous residue of subject matter mastered in serious fashion.

The shop in the junior school is more than an exploratory agent. It is fundamentally educational and not vocational in character. The shop is a great vitalizing force in the educational program of the junior school, and the future chief justice as well as the future bricklayer and seamstress is entitled to its advantages.

The principle of differentiation in the junior school is differentiation according to present capacities for education, and not according to future occupation. When commercial arithmetic is offered to capable students in the ninth year at the expense of a course in general mathematics, it becomes a question whether we are educating the child to his maximum capacity. Specific training for a job may lead to a close relation between the junior school and industry, but it may also lead to the exploitation of children.

What has been written thus far is not to be considered as a jeremiad against vocational guidance. Possibly it is a kind of smoke screen with which the writer is trying to hide his cowardice in not attacking the problems of vocational guidance more vigorously.

To Get the Most From School Attendance

Whatever one's attitude toward vocational guidance may be, a worth-while program in educational guidance may be set up in every high school. Some one has defined educational guidance as "directing the pupil through the school so that he will get the maximum of good out of his school attendance." The least that this can mean when interpreted in terms of actual school administration is that a child assigned to any course of study shall get the values which are attributed to that course. Such a program requires that the school know something about the educational possibilities of the child and about the educational opportunities of the school to satisfy those possibilities and that the school shall get the best possible results from the child in any school situation in which he has been placed.

Until there are school buildings and teachers and curriculums and training schools for teachers that will set up a profitable educational program for all types of boys and girls up to 18 years of age, the writer is not in sympathy with the modern tendency to extend the compulsory school age to 18 years. There is no virtue in school attendance alone. Educational guidance implies school attendance only so long as the child actually gets the benefits that are attributed to the courses in which he is registered. The best guidance for a thorough educational misfit in a senior high school is guidance

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toward a job, where the child may at least enjoy the moral advantage that comes from honest work.

Sixteen years of age brings the child to the first fork in the road because 16 is the minimum age limit at which a boy may begin an apprenticeship. Up to 16 he faces the question, "Why are you not in school?"; after 16 the question changes to "Why are you in school?" Up to 16 the child in school has the benefit of the doubt. After 16 upon him rests the burden of proof. Attendance after 16 years of age depends not only on the child's educational needs but also on the ability of the school to satisfy those needs.

An Epoch of Life Closes at 16

If 16 years of age closes the first epoch in the child's life, then clear recognition of this fact will further an educational guidance program. After the child has arrived at the age of 16, instead of assuming that the child's interests lie naturally in further attendance at school a distinct effort should be made to justify further attendance. In any given case, which means a certain child and a certain school, further attendance depends on the educational possibilities of the child compared with the educational opportunities of the school. What curriculum does this senior school offer which this child may pursue with profit?

To arrive at a fairly safe answer to this question there are certain things which every school can do and for failure to do them there is no longer any reasonable excuse. In the first place every school should have reliable data to gauge a pupil's academic ability or what the colleges call scholastic aptitude. A scientific ability index for every child should not only be recorded in some distant office, but should function in the school.

In the second place every school should year by year build up data to show what degree of ability is necessary to give the child an even chance of success in any curriculum.

Pupil Ratings Helpful to Adviser

The following distribution of pupil ratings in two curriculums, if confirmed year by year, would be helpful to any school adviser or pupil or parent in deciding whether the pupil should enter either curriculum.

College preparatory curriculum

Ability index	Per cent of ratings				
	E	D	C	B	A
Up to 59.5	23.8	42.9	28.6	4.8	0
60 to 79.5	18.4	37.8	30.8	12.0	9.2
80 to 99.5	9.4	28.8	34.0	22.3	5.7
100 to 119.5	4.9	17.9	33.2	31.0	13.0
120 and over	1.5	13.8	20.9	30.4	33.4

Secretarial curriculum

Ability index	Per cent of ratings				
	E	D	C	B	A
Up to 59.5	13.3	40.0	35.0	11.7	0
60 to 79.5	10.3	41.7	38.9	8.6	0.5
80 to 99.5	2.3	20.6	42.0	27.4	7.8
100 to 119.5	3.6	17.9	32.2	30.4	16.1
120 and over	0	5.0	25.0	20.0	50.0

Pupils Rated B are Safe College Risks

This ability index is based on standard tests in vocabulary range and reading comprehension. In this school a pupil with an ability index under 60 would have less than 1 chance in 20 of getting B ratings in the college preparatory curriculum; with an ability index between 60 and 80 he would have 1 chance in 5; from 80 to 100, 1 chance in 4. It is only at an ability index of 100 that the pupil begins to stand an even chance of getting B ratings. Experience in this school has shown that pupils with B ratings are safe college risks. Pupils with C ratings are a fair gamble, and D ratings spell failure, in most cases failure even to get into college. A prospective college student under these circumstances should rate B's in at least 50 per cent of his work. That is, according to the table of distribution of ratings in the college preparatory curriculum he should have a minimum ability index of 100. In this school, of 212 students in the college preparatory curriculum almost 50 per cent have an ability index below 100 and 15 per cent have an ability index so low that they are probably doomed to failure in their ambition to go to college, before they begin their work in the senior high school.

Guidance According to Individual Ability

Ezra Cornell, the founder of Cornell University, said that this institution should be a place to which anybody could come to study anything. That is the conception held by too many people concerning the public high school. Probably the time should never come, when in a public high school a pupil might not try almost anything at least once. But when low ratings confirm the prediction of low ability indexes, a sound educational guidance program would seem to demand that the pupil undertake something that is more likely to bring success and the parents of all incoming students with ability indexes under 100 may well be warned that these pupils according to past experience do not stand an even chance of success in the college preparatory curriculum.

A similar analysis of the distribution of the ratings in the secretarial curriculum points to the conclusion that pupils in this curriculum should have an ability index of at least 80.

If educational guidance means the directing of a pupil through the school so that he will get the maximum of good out of his school attendance, then the school which has a measure of the pupil's academic ability and reliable pupil ratings and has checked its different curriculums and the courses in the curriculums for the minimum ability levels which warrant a fair chance of success, is on a fair way to undertake a reasonable program of educational guidance.

The perfection of such a program of guidance also involves the problem of differentiating certain courses, particularly required courses, as in English, so as to adapt them to pupils of different ability levels. But that is another story.

Health Education Promoted by Red Cross Juniors

Czechoslovak Junior Red Cross has become a great organization of 345,920 school children. Ten per cent of them are students of secondary and professional schools and the others are pupils of elementary and urban schools.

The reports for the year 1926–27 show important activity in health education. The members pay great attention to their own personal cleanliness. They attempt to complete hygienic equipment of their schools; they are helping to establish diverse health undertakings, as clinics for teeth defects, shower baths, bathing places, playgrounds, and school gardens. Of the total number of school gardens 10.5 per cent are property of the juniors.

The juniors are helping not only their fellow pupils, but they are offering their assistance to adult persons and to many schools in poor districts, too. Their interest in exchanging correspondence with pupils of other countries is increasing continually. The same is marked in interchanging albums and diverse gifts. Czechoslovak juniors are corresponding with juniors in 20 foreign States. Three monthly papers and many textbooks on health subjects are uniting all members of this great organization, which has its excellent model in the American Junior Red Cross.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

"Vagabonding" is a growing practice at Harvard University. The term is of recent coinage and it refers to attendance upon lectures not included in the student's regular courses. Professors encourage it, and every morning the Crimson prints a list of lectures of the day which are likely to be of general interest. The lecturers themselves supply the information for the list and its publication is in effect an invitation to attend.

Leadership, Equipment, Objectives, Activities Determine Success

These Four Fundamental Conditions Must Be Properly Met Before Success Can Be Predicated for Physical Education. Endurance Should Be a Primary Aim. Social Qualities Best Cultivated in Games

By HENRY S. CURTIS
Director Hygiene and Physical Education for Missouri

FOR WORK in physical education to be fully successful it must meet four fundamental types of standards. The first of these is personnel. There can be no successful system without competent leadership. This leadership normally consists, in the cities, of a supervisor, teachers of physical education, and squad leaders. The second type of standards are those of physical equipment. The athletic field or playground should be adequate for everyone to take part. All school grounds should be made practically level, just as all college and university fields are. Many of them should be underdrained. On nearly all school grounds the area immediately about the school building should be surfaced. If the ground is small, very likely the entire ground should be surfaced. At all high schools there should be a separate field for the girls.

On all elementary and high school grounds, there should be a jumping pit and a short running track. In junior and senior high schools there should be a gymnasium for each 500 students or fraction thereof. This gymnasium should not be less than 45 by 85 feet in the clear, with a minimum height of 18 feet. In the small high schools and elementary schools this may be a combination gymnasium and auditorium. The supplies essential to an athletic program should be furnished by the school. It is better in the elementary schools, at least, to furnish these to individual classes, as they are thus taken better care of, and less time is lost in procuring them when the class has a physical education period.

Standard Objectives

Strength.—In the past strength has often been held the chief objective in physical education, but the rapid changes in the times, by relegating all heavy work to machinery and making professions of all trades and occupations, are throwing this objective into serious doubt. President Angell holds that great masses of muscles are serious handicaps to professional workers. Certainly there is no immediate use for them by most women and by a very large proportion of men. On the other hand, it may be said that the only way to develop the motor areas of the brain is through developing the muscles which they control, and that the motor areas furnish most of the energy for all our affairs, both mental and physical. A reasonable development of strength is still to be regarded as a worth-while objective.

Endurance.—While strength means the ability of the muscle to contract powerfully for a single time, endurance means the ability to continue this contraction during a long period. Endurance is mostly bound up with interest and is primarily a nervous rather than a muscular power. It is developed much more effectively through play and athletics than through formal gymnastics. It is a primary aim. Our physical education should give us the ability to carry our day's work without weariness.

Physical defects.—The present movement for physical education grew out of the revelations of the draft, which rejected 33 per cent of our men as physically unfit for military service, at a time when men were greatly needed. These defects are not much less handicapping in time of peace than in time of war. They increase regularly through the grades where there is no systematic attempt to counteract them.

Beauty.—Although we have never made beauty a definite objective of physical education in this country it was a main objective in Greece. Physical education should give health with bright eyes, glossy hair, a clear complexion and a symmetrical figure.

Grace.—Grace is a by-product of activities thoroughly enjoyed; awkwardness always grows out of drudgery. A system which consists largely of play, athletics, and dancing gives the most varied training to motor coordinations, and makes all activities an expression of inner purposes, and should make nearly all graceful.

Social adjustments.—It is on the playground and in relationship with other children that boys and girls learn how to make friends, be good comrades and become members of a social community. "Send your boy to college," said Emerson, "and the other boys will educate him." The importance of this training is generally appreciated in college life, but it is not so commonly understood in the life of the public school. It represents a type of education not much less important than that of the classroom.

Social standards.—We are coming to see that habits are not formed through learning principles; the physical director has a greater opportunity than the Sunday-school teacher to mould habits and character. Sportsmanship is the practical ethics of the playground and the only moral code which inherently appeals to the red-blooded boy or girl. Most habits of courtesy or discourtesy, of selfishness or unselfishness, of honesty or dishonesty, of truthfulness or untruthfulnest are formed in the social relationship of the playground.

Standards in Activities

Games.—Games are the normal activity of children. They carry their own appeal, and invite to continuous action and the rapid solution of a myriad of practical problems. Children from grade to grade should learn to play well the games appropriate to each age. In this way they are given the best training in motor coordinations and obtain the best physical exercise along with the social training involved. By the completion of high school every boy and girl should play a good game of baseball or indoor baseball, of volley ball, of soccer or American football, of basketball and tennis.

The emphasis should be placed on activities that carry over to later years. With a possibility of a 30 or 40 hour working week in the not very distant future, schools must train for leisure time no less than for work time, and inculcate a love of reading, music, art, and sport. For hygienic reasons, so far as possible, these activities should be in the open air and lead to a love of nature.

Athletics.—Every student should be expected to pass from grade to grade in athletics appropriate to his age. This would include the shorter dashes and the common jumping, throwing, and balancing events; in short those events which are represented in the badge tests, with their expansion into a pentathlon and a decathlon as the student becomes more proficient in the simpler activities.

Walking.—Walking is the chief form of physical exercise. It is the only one continued by most women and the majority of men. Every high school should have a walking club. We hope that some time each of them will issue a guide showing places to be visited and activities that may be carried on in connection with a series of walking trips, and that the school tradition will expect students to take these walks before graduation.

Swimming.—Swimming is becoming a part of our educational ideal. Practically

all new college and university gymnasiums contain swimming pools and require swimming for graduation. Every student should learn how to swim before finishing high school.

Dancing.—The folk dances represent a fine type of physical activity with a deep emotional appeal. The feeling is nearly always of pleasure. They satisfy the desire for both activity and rhythm. All girls, at least, should know several folk dances before completing high school.

Gymnastics.—Before graduation every student should be so familiar with certain gymnastic activities that they will have become a matter of routine so that he can go through his daily dozen mechanically without having to think what comes next.

Practical Experience for Students of Textile School

A new textile school is to be opened shortly in Leskovats, Yugoslavia. The purpose of this school is the training of efficient assistants for textile engineers and superintendents of textile factories. The course of studies, both theoretical and practical, is to last three years. An extra six months' course will be devoted to the training and instruction of the pupils to enable them to qualify as skilled weavers and merchants' assistants in the textile industry.

For the purpose of encouraging home weaving and spinning this school will have classes for peasant women, village school mistresses, and others who would like to learn how to handle modern looms, spindles, dyestuffs, etc.

The pupils will receive their primary instruction in the textile industry in the school's workshops and later will be sent to work for two months of every year in factories. A laboratory will be attached to the school for determining the quality of the thread and material, and a museum for displaying all kinds of textiles, woolen, cotton, flax, and silk; also laces, ribbons, braids, etc.

The maximum number of pupils is to be 30, of whom 10 may be female. They will be admitted upon competition. Preference is to be given to those who have successfully terminated four classes of the secondary schools or have graduated from some three-class crafts school.—*Stewart E. McMillin, American consul in charge, Belgrade, Yugoslavia.*

More than 1,000 foreign students are attending higher educational institutions in Chicago, according to the adviser on foreign students of the University of Chicago.

Schoolhouses Applied to Community Uses

Use of schoolhouses in the United States as centers for social, recreational, and community purposes increased 55 per cent during the four-year period 1919–20 to 1923–24, as shown by replies received from school officials addressed by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, in a survey to determine to what extent school buildings throughout the country are so utilized. The results of the inquiry have been published by the bureau in Bulletin, 1927, No. 5, Extended Use of School Buildings, by Eleanor T. Glueck.

Definite provision by law has been made in 32 States for use of school buildings as centers for community activities, and it is permitted in other States. Two-thirds of the 722 places in which standard centers were reported have fewer than 5,000 inhabitants each, but two-thirds of the 1,569 centers were in cities of greater size. Of the large cities reporting such use, New York stands first with 138 school centers, Detroit next with 49, Cleveland 30, Pittsburgh 25, Buffalo 22, Grand Rapids 21, Fort Wayne and Cincinnati 20 each, Chicago 18, Washington City 17, Duluth 13, Milwaukee 12, Boston and Newark 11 each, and St. Louis and Lincoln, Nebr., 10 each.

Pupils Receive Certificates for Home Reading

To encourage reading of books from school libraries, neat library certificates will be issued by the county superintendent of Otter Tail County, Minn., to pupils in grades 4 to 8 who complete the reading and review during the year of five books from the school library. For completion of the second series of five books a certificate decorated in colors with the State flower, the Moccasin flower, will be given, and completion of the third series entitles pupils to a gold seal on the "Moccasin certificate." Pupils reading a second series of 15 books will receive a diploma of honor.

Government School of Agriculture for Costa Rica

Provision has been made for establishment in Costa Rica of a Government school of agriculture, which will be conducted under the direct supervision of the secretariat of public works. Theoretical and practical instruction will be given in agriculture and related sciences, and courses will be adapted as far as possible to needs of the country. Location of the school has not yet been decided upon, but it will probably be situated in the Province of Alajuela. Interest in success of the undertaking is shown by Government officials and the general public, and although appropriation made by the constitutional congress for inauguration of the school and expenses for the first year is not large—$25,000—it is believed that as soon as practicable funds for adequate equipment will be provided.—*Roderick W. Unckles, American vice consul in charge, San Jose, Costa Rica.*

Promotes Study of Gaelic and Greek

To develop latent talent for Gaelic among Highland pupils in schools of Inverness County, Scotland, a scholarship of £50 a year was offered last year by the Highland Trust. Of six candidates who recently qualified, one was a girl who won the award. In addition, a fund of £80 has been voted by the Trust toward the maintenance of the study of Gaelic and Greek in secondary schools of the county. At present 323 students are enrolled in Gaelic, and 45 in Greek classes.

Consolidation Proves Satisfactory in Wyoming

Transportation of pupils to and from school is carried on in 22 of the 23 counties in Wyoming. Of the 20,000 rural school children in the State, 7,000 were transported last year. In western Wyoming—Uinta, Lincoln, and Teton Counties—transportation is almost entirely by horse-drawn vehicles. Transportation of pupils has resulted in improved attendance and in many instances has solved truancy problems. No district has returned to its former isolated school after trying consolidation and transportation.

To emphasize the difference in development and needs of 4 and 5 year old children, and to provide materials exactly suited to each age, the committee on education of the Wisconsin State Kindergarten Association is preparing a series of suggestive curriculum material, which will be issued in looseleaf form.

Teachers in public day schools of Nevada, if engaged for night-school work, are not allowed, under a ruling of the State board of education, to give more than two hours of service at night, nor more than six evening hours during any one week.

A Bill to Create a Department of Education and for Other Purposes

Introduced in the Senate by Senator Curtis, and in the House of Representatives by Mr. Reed of New York. Referred to Senate Committee on Education and Labor and to House Committee on Education

BE IT ENACTED by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is established at the seat of government an executive department to be known as the Department of Education, which shall be under the control and direction of a Secretary of Education to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Secretary of Education shall receive a salary at the rate of $15,000 per annum. * * *

SEC. 2. There shall be in the Department of Education an Assistant Secretary of Education, to be appointed by the President, and to receive a salary of $7,500 per annum. * * * There shall also be a solicitor, a chief clerk, and a disbursing clerk, and such chiefs of bureaus and such scientific, technical, and clerical assistants as may be necessary * * *.

SEC. 3. (a) The Bureau of Education and all pertaining thereto is transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Education.

(b) The office of Commissioner of Education is abolished, and the authority, powers, and duties heretofore conferred and imposed by law upon the Commissioner of Education shall be exercised and performed by the Secretary of Education.

(c) The Federal Board for Vocational Education is transferred to the Department of Education, and all the authority, powers and duties heretofore conferred or imposed by law upon the Federal Board for Vocational Education shall be exercised and performed by the board as a division of the Department of Education. The Secretary of Education shall be a member of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and ex officio chairman of said board.

(d) The authority, powers, and duties conferred and imposed by law upon the Secretary of the Interior with relation to the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University shall be exercised and performed by the Secretary of Education.

* * * * *

SEC. 7. In order to coordinate the educational activities carried on by the several executive departments, and to recommend ways and means of improving the educational work of the Federal Government, there is hereby created the Federal Conference on Education which shall consist of one representative and one alternate appointed by the head of each department. The Federal Conference on Education shall not report as a body to any one department, but each representative shall report the findings of the Federal Conference on Education to his own department for consideration and independent action.

SEC. 8. (a) The Department of Education shall collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and in foreign countries. In order to aid the people of the several States in establishing and maintaining more efficient schools and school systems, in devising better methods of organization, administration and financing of education, in developing better types of school buildings and in providing for their use, in improving methods of teaching, and in developing more adequate curricula and courses of study, research shall be undertaken in (1) rural education; (2) elementary education; (3) secondary education; (4) higher education; (5) professional education; (6) physical education, including health education and recreation; (7) special education for the mentally and physically handicapped; (8) the training of teachers; (9) immigrant education; (10) adult education; and (11) such other fields as in the judgment of the Secretary of Education may require attention and study.

(b) The department shall make available to educational officers in the several States and to other persons interested in education the results of the research and investigations conducted by it, and the funds appropriated for printing and binding for the Department of Education shall be available for the printing and binding of the results of such research and investigations.

SEC. 9. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1929, and annually thereafter, the sum of $1,500,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby authorized to be appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to the Department of Education for the purpose of paying salaries and the conducting of studies and investigations, the paying of incidental and traveling expenses incurred in connection with the investigations or inquiries undertaken by the department and for law books, books of reference and periodicals, and for the paying of rent where necessary, and for such other purposes as may be necessary * * *.

SEC. 10. There is hereby created a National Council on Education to consult and advise with the Secretary of Education on subjects relating to the promotion and development of education in the United States and in its possessions, which national council shall consist of the several State superintendents of education or other State chief educational authorities by whatever title known, and one member from each of the United States possessions, viz, Alaska, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, and Isthmus of Panama. The Secretary of Education shall be chairman of said council. The members of said council shall meet for conference once each year at the call of the Secretary of Education; they shall serve without pay, but their actual expenses incurred in attending the conferences called by the Secretary shall be paid by the Department of Education.

SEC. 11. The Secretary of Education shall annually, at the close of each fiscal year, make a report in writing to Congress giving an account of all moneys received and disbursed by the Department of Education and describing the work done by the department. He shall also from time to time make such special investigations and reports as may be required of him by the President or by either House of Congress or as he, himself, may deem necessary and urgent.

* * * * *

Vacation School for Summer Visitors

A vacation school, intended primarily for children of tourists in the lake region of Minnesota, was maintained during the past summer by the board of education of Alexandria, Minn. The school was organized to meet the demand each year by summer residents for tutors for their children. A slight charge was made for tuition, and four teachers were retained and paid for their services. Only morning sessions were held. Students were allowed to select any work they wished, but no one was allowed to register for more than two subjects. The enrollment was 53 pupils, about a third of whom were visiting children. A similar school is planned for 1928.

A traveling library for elementary-school teachers has been established in Cleveland, Ohio. Books of both educational and general interest are sent out in regular traveling-book boxes, which are set up in teachers' rest rooms or other convenient places.

College Library Dedicated by President Coolidge

We are met here to dedicate another temple to the cause of learning. To reach their full effect the buildings used for educational purposes must assume the character of temples. One of our learned men has told us that "We do but go where admiration leads the way." Unless we approach our places of learning in that spirit we shall never receive their full benefits.

The South Dakota State College gives every appearance of having reached in a full measure this position. We can usually measure both the desire and the appreciation that exists for the advantages of this life by the sacrifices we are willing to make to secure them. It is evident that in South Dakota this determination has a very strong hold upon the people. While this was to be expected, for this is yet a land of pioneers who have come here in response to a desire to improve their condition, yet the progress they have made is none the less astounding. It is true, of course, that although this is a comparatively new community, it has been nurtured under all the advantages of modern science and invention, which did not accrue to the older parts of our country in their early beginnings.

Yet when we remember that South Dakota has been admitted to statehood less than 40 years, that anything like a real settlement has been going on less than 75 years, that during this short period many thriving cities have arisen, long lines of transportation have been built, an adequate educational system has been perfected, a body of laws has been developed, a vast agricultural empire has arisen, a method of local and State government has been built up, the administration of justice has been made effective, and, in short, a great American Commonwealth has been established, we can not fail to stand in respectful admiration for a people whose courage and ability have been crowned with such remarkable accomplishments. But this is only typical of the growth and progress of the West, and the West is only typical of the growth and progress of America.—*Beginning of President Coolidge's address at the dedication of Lincoln Memorial Library, South Dakota State College, Brookings, S. Dak., September 10, 1927.*

Lincoln Memorial Library, South Dakota State College, Brookings

Few German Children Free From Dental Defects

Dental treatment was given to 6,930 school children in Bonn, Germany, in 1925–26. This was 93.4 per cent of the total enrollment, and included pupils of all ages. During the year 3,369 permanent and 643 temporary teeth were filled, and root treatment was applied to 65 permanent and 26 temporary teeth. Extraction was made of 1,311 teeth. As a result of this work 90 per cent of the pupils left school at the end of the year with sound teeth. Records of dental work for 1915 show nearly 4 extractions to 1 filling; it now stands 1 to 30. It is estimated that one dentist, with the assistance of a nurse and a clerk, can care for the teeth of 6,000 to 7,000 pupils.

An attentive crowd listened to President Coolidge's dedicatory address

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian, Bureau of Education

ADAMS, JOHN. Errors in school: Their causes and treatment. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton Mifflin company, 1927. 325 p. 12°.

"Errors in school" has a message for teachers of all grades from the kindergarten to the university. In this book the author describes, and exemplifies by actual classroom illustration, the basis of error and its correction. Sir John Adams is not only an authority in the educational world outside of the United States, hut from long teaching experience in this country is also qualified to appreciate the American viewpoint of education. With regard to error, he described the teacher's three functions as follows: First, to prevent error occurring at all so fas as this is possible; second, to discover error when it occurs; and third, to deal satisfactorily with error when it appears. The study of error should enahlo the teacher not merely to detect but to understand errors as they arise.

AMERICAN AND CANADIAN COMMITTEES ON MODERN LANGUAGES. Publications. Vol. one: New York experiments with new-type modern language tests, by Ben D. Wood. Vol. two: A laboratory study of the reading of modern foreign languages, by G. T. Buswell. New York. The Macmillan company, 1927. 2 v. illus., tables, diagrs. 8°.

Volume one of this series includes reports of three studies—a survey of modern language achievement in the junior high schools of New York City, June, 1925; the Regents experiment of June, 1925, with new-type tests in French, German, Spanish, and physics; a second survey of modern language achievement in the junior high schools of New York City, June, 1926. The series begun with these volumes is to be issued by the Modern foreign language study with the Canadian Committee on Modern languages, under the auspices of the American council on education. The new-type examinations described in volumo one were devised at Columhia University, and a marked superiority in accuracy and economy of operation is claimed for them over the old-type Regents examinations and those of the College entrance examination board. Professor Wood finds that the Regents examination system is technically faulty, but that destructive criticism of it is unjustifiable. The careful study of reading reported in the second volume was made with the technique of the educational psychologist, and its results are presented for the use of the modern language specialist.

BARKER, ERNEST. National character and the factors in its formation. London, Methuen & co. ltd. [1927] vii, 288 p. 8°.

The writer of this volume traces the operation of the various factors, material and spiritual, which affect or determine the development of national character. In the earlier chapters the material factors of race, climate, and occupation are treated; in the latter the spiritual factors of law and government, language and literature, religion and education. The whole work is particularly concerned with the development of English national character and with the forces by which it is being moulded or affected to-day, but it has a wider appeal, especially to English-speaking peoples.

BROOKS, ROBERT C. Reading for honors at Swarthmore. A record of the first five years, 1922–1927. With an introduction by Abraham Flexner. New York, Oxford university press, 1927. 196 p. 8°.

A record of the first five years, 1922–27, of Swarthmore college's experiment with honors work is given in this volume. From its inauguration the honors plan at Swarthmore has been wholly of the kind based on work superseding the regular requirements, with the added distinction that all examinations to determine the grade of honors have been given by outside examiners; that is, by professors drawn from other institutions. The system is designed to afford the more gifted students an opportunity to use their superior powers to the best advantage. While still frankly an experiment, it has already established itself as the most distinctive feature of Swarthmore's educational scheme. In 1925 Swarthmore was awarded by the general educational board a subsidy of $240,000 to be used in thoroughly testing out the possibilities of the new plan during a five-year period, 1925–30.

CAMERON, EDWARD HERBERT. Educational psychology. New York & London, The Century co. [1927] xiv, 467 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

This comprehensive text of Educational psychology offers, in a form suitable for mature students, a classification of learning and a study of the psychology of the subjects most frequently found in the high-school curriculum. Its scope is limited to discussions and explanations of those theories and processes a knowledge of which is of practical value to teachers in secondary schools.

CHARTERS, W. W. The teaching of ideals. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xiii, 372 p. diagrs. 12°.

Professor Charters brings to the composition of this book the technique of curriculum-making which he has employed successfully in the fields of industrial and commercial job analysis. He avails himself of the experience of parents, teachers, and school administrators on a scale which provides him with a variety of cases and with a comprehensive series of plans for dealing with these cases. Consequently, the statements in this book are free from vagueness and on the other hand are specific and concrete.

COMMISSION ON LENGTH OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. Report of the Commission on length of elementary education. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago [1927] xi, 167 p. tables. 8°. (Supplementary educational monographs published in conjunction with the School review and the Elementary school journal, No. 34, November, 1927.)

In 1925 a subcommittee of the Educational research committee of the Commonwealth fund provided for a study of the various types of elementary schools through the collection of information on a country-wide scale. To carry on this investigation, a commission was created, later designated the Commission on length of elementary education, consisting of members from different sections of the United States and from Canada, with Charles H. Judd as chairman. The commission secured reports from 610 American school systems chosen as typical. The study here reported leads to the conclusion that a proper understanding of the function of the elementary school will result in a very general reduction of the time devoted to rudimentary subjects and in an earlier opening of high-school opportunities to all pupils.

FERRIS, HELEN *and* MOORE, VIRGINIA. Girls who did. Stories of real girls and their careers. Illustrated by Harriet Moncure. New York, E. P. Dutton & company [1927] viii, 308 p. illus. 12°.

A series of interviews with 19 women who have achieved success in various vocations is given in this volume. The concluding chapter is entitled "You," and gives suggestions on choosing a vocation for any girl who may read it.

FERRISS, EMERY N. Secondary education in country and village. New York, London, D. Appleton and company [1927] xix, 401 p. tables, diagrs. 12°.

The purpose of this book is to present from both the psychological and the sociological aspects the guiding principles of secondary education in a democracy, to indicate their hearing upon the work of the small secondary school, and to consider with reference to these principles some of the major problems of the secondary school in small communities. The subject is treated comprehensively as regards history, objectives and materials, general and internal organization, administration, supervision, teachers, school and community, etc.

FISHER, DOROTHY CANFIELD. Why stop learning? New York, Harcourt, Brace and company [1927] ix, 301 p. 12°.

The writer does not undertake to state in detail the facts of the adult education movement, but offers a running commentary on and interpretation of these facts. She sees opening before us a whole new conception of what education is, what mass education must be, challenging hopeful souls for the future.

FORBUSH, WILLIAM BYRON *and* ALLEN, HARRY R. The book of games for home, school, and playground. Illustrated with drawings and diagrams by Jessie Gillespie. Philadelphia, Chicago [etc.], The John C. Winston company [1927] xi, 315 p. illus., diagrs., music. 8°.

This game book contains descriptions of more than 400 games for the home, the school, the playground, and the church school. The large part of the book deals with the old familiar games, but the best of the new games are also included.

KANDEL, I. L. *and* ALEXANDER, THOMAS, *trs.* The reorganization of education in Prussia, based on official documents and publications. New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, Bureau of publications, 1927. xxvi, 647 p. tables. 8°. (Studies of the International institute of Teachers college, Columbia university, no. 4.)

The translators devote the present volume to a study of the Prussian educational reorganization, partly because Prussia still seems destined to give the lead to the rest of Germany, partly because the situation there appears to be more stable than in the other states. A translation of a book on "Prussian educational systems" by Dr. O. Boelitz, former minister of education in Prussia, is given, largely because it illustrates the difficulties that were met in the reconstruction of German education after the Revolution of 1918. This book has been supplemented by a translation of all the pertinent regulations which have been issued since 1918 and which constitute the basis of the present Prussian system. The study of present-day German education appeals to American students on its own account, and also because many of the problems with which educators in the United States are concerned are under consideration in Germany.

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WHAT OUR STUDENTS MOST NEED IS DISCIPLINE IN LEARNING

EADERSHIP in the future will not come by chance. Scientific precision will replace guesswork. Exact knowledge must prevail in high places. Something may be done to improve scholarship in our secondary schools on the part of those who can use it, but the American secondary school has other duties beside the making of scholars. Granting the necessity of scholarship, the heaviest load must be carried by our colleges and university schools. They have no need to encourage initiative in thought or action in their students; young Americans exhibit independence enough when left to themselves. But what our students do need is to learn how to study, how to do straightforward logical thinking, how to round out an intellectual task in scholarly fashion; in a word, they need discipline in learning. The only way to attain this result is by straightforward instruction under a master. Desultory teaching with the assignment of tasks to be done at home will not do it. Threats and browbeating will not do it. University teachers might well learn a lesson from business, where the responsible heads train their subordinates in all kindness, but tolerate no mistakes and permit no guesswork.

—JAMES E. RUSSELL.

CHARACTER IS NOT CHARACTER UNLESS IT IS LIVED ALL THE TIME

ROM one point of view the object of all education is to build character. Health, scholarship, leadership, refined tastes, and an attitude of reverence are all traits of character. Thus character is more than merely freedom from immorality, more than obedience to the Ten Commandments, more than obedience to the rules of society. A good character is a system of refined and reliable habits. It presupposes the avoidance of such acts as cheating, lying, stealing, and murder, and consists in a positive system of habits involving health, intelligence, sociability, good taste, and devotion. A good character is one which may be depended upon in these respects. ¶A man needs to have for his ideal not only a hero, but also a heroine; for, as Dean Briggs of Harvard has well said, "If you live so that in a few years you will be a fit companion of an intellectual, high-minded, and pure-hearted woman, you will not go far wrong." ¶Students often have a false notion that character is something which can be assumed at will when there is a demand for it, and that it lies in great deeds. One or both of these fallacies have wrecked millions of potentially great men, for character is not character unless it is lived all the time. It is not judged by outstanding and rare great deeds, but by what you can count upon as a certainty in everyday life.

—CARL E. SEASHORE.

SCHOOL LIFE

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WASHINGTON'S HABITS AT MOUNT VERNON WERE REGULAR AND WHOLESOME

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Physical Characteristics of the Nation's Greatest Hero

Of Hardy Constitution, George Washington Suffered Much from Illness. Childhood Spent Under Healthful Conditions and He Excelled in Manly Sports. Endured Privations of the Wilderness and of Military Campaigns with Equanimity. Malaria, Pleurisy, and Influenza Brought Him Near to Death. Fatal Illness Apparently Due to Exposure Which Resulted in "Quinsy"

By JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS, M. D.

Chief Division of School Hygiene and Physical Education, Bureau of Education

WASHINGTON spent his childhood days under the best colonial conditions—on a Virginia plantation which afforded most of the comforts of the time. As a boy he was large for his age and easily held his own in games with his fellows. Tales of his youthful prowess in riding and wrestling and throwing the bar have come down to us, and we know that he was exceedingly fond of dancing and of fox hunting. "He rode as he did everything else, with ease and elegance and with power"; and Jefferson, who was a good rider, pronounced him the best horseman of his day. Vicious propensities of the animal were of no moment to him, and he is said to have required but one good quality in a horse, that it would "go along." He danced the contradance "with great spirit and satisfaction" and the French officers remarked that a Paris education could not improve his performance of the minuet.

Preferred Open Air to Primitive Bedding

Washington's school days were few and it is said that he devoted his play times to study rather than to games. At 16 he began his work as surveyor of the estate of Lord Fairfax, and as a hardy youth he doubtless enjoyed roughing it for a season. That he was unaccustomed to the rude ways of the wilderness is evident from an early entry in his journal. "We got our Supper and was Lighted into a Room and I not being so good a Woodsman as ye rest of my Company striped myself very orderly and went in to ye Bed as they called it when to my Surprize I found it to be nothing but a Little Straw—Matted together without Sheets or anything else but only one thread Bear blanket with double its Weight of Vermin such as Lice Fleas &c. I was glad to get up (as soon as ye Light was carried from us) I put on my Cloth & Lay as my Companions. Had we not been very tired I am sure we should not have slep'd much that night. I made a Promise not to sleep so from that time forward ehusing rather to sleep in ye open Air before a fire." Writing to a friend about the expedition he said, "I have not sleep'd above three nights or four in bed, but after walking a good deal all day I lay down before the fire on a little hay, straw, fodder, or bearskin . . . with man, wife, and children, like a parcel of dogs, and cats; and happy is he who gets a berth nearest the fire."

"I am six feet high and proportionately made—rather slender than thick."

He had to spend many days and nights in the wilderness during the French and Indian wars, and in his exploration of the lands along the Ohio.

Healthful Habits at Mount Vernon

At Mount Vernon, Washington was up at an early hour—at daylight in summer or an hour or two before sunrise in winter. His breakfast consisted of "three small Indian hoecakes and as many dishes of tea," sometimes with the addition of honey or milk. Three times a week, weather permitting, he went hunting. Breakfast was served on these mornings by candlelight and "ere the cook had done salutation to the morn, the whole cavalcade would often have left the house, and the fox was frequently started before sunrise."

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He rode over his farm directing all the details of the work and often taking a hand, "like a common man," with shovel or spade. His diary shows that he rode on various occasions as much as 60 miles a day. Besides riding and working on his plantations, Washington sometimes went fishing and was fond of a game of billiards.

He dined at 3 and ate heartily of substantials, "but was not particular in his diet, with the exception of fish, of which he was exceedingly fond." If offered any very rich dessert his usual reply was, "Thank you; that is too good for me." He was very temperate for his time in the use of alcoholic drinks, but was fond of tea. His supper, between 6 and 7, consisted of a little toast, and after spending the evening in reading and writing he retired at 9.

Hardy Constitution and Firm Resolution

In his early manhood Washington was able to say: "I have a constitution hardy enough to encounter and undergo the most severe trials and I flatter myself resolution to face what any man dares."

That constitution and resolution were severely tried during the period of the Revolution and of the Presidency. More than once he fared with the common soldier and on some occasions slept in a blanket on the ground. Writing of the retreat from Brooklyn he said "for 48 hours preceding that, I had hardly been off my horse." During the Presidency the mental trials in "the ocean of difficulties with which I am surrounded" wore upon him more than bodily exposure or fatigue.

Artificial Teeth Were Sad Misfits

During the Revolution he was obliged to use glasses and by the end of the Presidency he had become quite deaf. "He suffered from carious teeth and swelled and inflamed gums." The best the dentists of the day could do was to remove them one by one at 5 shillings each, and by 1795 he had lost them all. He had more than one set of substitutes made from walrus tusks or hippopotamus teeth, but they were cumbersome and the earliest ones were badly fitted. It is said that when sitting for his Stuart portrait, he had his false teeth padded out with cotton—at any rate the mouth seems much too prominent.

Washington is a good example of the fact that a fine physique and vigorous activity are no protection against bacterial invasion, for he was sick about as often and as desperately as any one. In this respect he is in contrast with Lincoln, who is said never to have been ill. At 16 he had malaria "to an extremity." When 19 he accompanied his brother, who was suffering from consumption, to the Barbadoes and while there was taken with smallpox (vaccination had not yet come into practice), which left its scars upon him for the rest of his days.

Pleurisy Caused Sunken Chest

Soon after his return home he was taken with a "violent pleurisy, which had reduced me very low," and which left its mark in a deformity of his chest. During the Braddock campaign he suffered again from malaria, and in 1757 he was obliged to leave his command and go home on account of dysentery. He suffered from fever for four months and thought that, like his brother, he was a victim of consumption, "and have too much reason to apprehend my approaching decay." Again, 1761, he had malaria. During his Presidency he had several attacks of influenza, one of which lasted for six

Washington directed all the details of the work about Mount Vernon

weeks, and his life was despaired of. After retiring from office he again suffered from malaria which "deprived" him of 20 pounds of flesh.

Washington always made light of his own illnesses and "his aversion to the use of drugs was extreme." However, when the smallpox attacked the Continental Army he endeavored to have the Virginia Assembly repeal its law against inoculation, and he urged his wife to secure this protection against the disease. He was not so wise in his attitude toward bleeding, the most common remedy of the age. Napoleon looked upon such practice as the withdrawal of so much material essential to the body in its fight against disease, but Washington accepted it as of assured value.

Washington was described by Dr. James Thatcher as remarkably tall, erect, and well proportioned. "The strength and proportion of his joints and muscles appear to be commensurate with the preeminent powers of his mind."

In writing his London tailor for a new suit of clothes Washington said, "I am six feet high and proportionately made—if anything rather slender than thick for a person of that highth." "The best weight of his best days never exceeded from 210 to 220 pounds," Thomas Jefferson remarked. "His person, you know, was fine, his stature exactly what one would wish, his deportment easy, erect, and noble." Mr. Custis said, "his powers were largely in his limbs; they were long, large, and sinewy. His frame was of equal breadth from the shoulders to the hips. His chest, though broad and expansive, was not prominent but rather hollowed in the center" from the pleuritic disease of his early life. "His frame showed an extraordinary development of bone and muscle; his joints were large as were his feet; and could a cast have been preserved of his hand . . . it would be said to belong to the being of a fabulous age." Lafayette said, "I have never seen so large a hand on any human being."

On December 13, 1799, Washington "rode out to his farms about ten o'clock," his secretary, Mr. Lear, tells us, "and did not return home till past three. Soon after he started, the weather became very bad, rain, hail, and snow falling alternately with a cold wind." There were no gum coats nor rubber boots in those days, and the great man became "considerably wetted." He sat down to dinner without changing his clothes. The next day it was evident that he had taken cold; he complained of a sore throat and was hoarse. He made light of it and when, at night, Mr. Lear suggested that he do something to relieve the condition, replied, "You know I never take anything for a cold. Let it go as it came." Early next morning he awoke Mrs. Washington and told her he was very unwell and "had an ague." He was suffering from a severe inflammation of the throat and he spoke and breathed with great difficulty. His overseer was sent for, and, as was the custom, bled him. The doctors who arrived soon after, did their best, but all their efforts were without avail and he died in the evening of that day of what was considered an attack of quinsy.

Washington's birthplace at Wakefield, Va., is marked by a monument erected by the United States Government

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Diplomas, certificates, and seals for reading done under the direction of the Wisconsin Reading Circle, were awarded 180,323 young people of school age during the school year 1926–27. This is exclusive of a large amount of reading which was not officially recognized.

Circulation Ten Times the Number of Volumes

A circulating library of nearly 30,000 volumes has been built up by the education authority of Fifeshire, Scotland. Books are distributed to 151 library centers in collections of from 45 to 1,500 volumes, and collections are changed three times during the year. Total book issues for the year were 245,262, an increase over the preceding year of nearly 90,000 volumes. Of the 151 library centers, 114 are in schools and 21 in miners' welfare institutes. A single institute, which receives collections of 1,200 books, reported nearly 15,000 issues during the year, and another, to which collections of 500 volumes are sent, had more than 6,000 issues. Notwithstanding the difficulty encountered in finding suitable accommodations for the reading public in large places, 16 new centers were opened by the education authority last year. Demand is predominantly for fiction, but calls for nonfiction books are increasing.

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Materials for the construction of radio receiving sets will be provided all centers of learning in Cuba, from the University of Habana to the smallest school, in order that pupils throughout the country may receive the benefit of a series of popular lectures to be broadcast from the ministry of public instruction. The subjects to be presented include agriculture, industry, commerce, science, literature, and civic questions. The receiving set for each school will be constructed by pupils of the school.

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By a decree recently issued by the Portuguese Ministry of Public Instruction, the "Escola de D. Nuno Alvares Pereira," in Rio de Janeiro, and the "Escola Portuguesa do Ateneu," in Fall River, Mass., are to be considered as primary official schools of the Portuguese Republic, and the diplomas issued by them will have the same value as those issued by the official primary schools of the metropolis.—*Fred Morris Dearing, United States Minister, Lisbon.*

Fourteen Nations Represented at Pan-American Child Congress

Delegation from United States Included Representatives of Three Executive Departments and Eight Welfare Associations. General Meetings for Discussion of Outstanding Problems and Sectional Meetings for Specific Details

By MARY DABNEY DAVIS

Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Bureau of Education

ALL PHASES of the protection and development of young children were discussed and action taken in the form of a program of "resolutions" by the Fifth Pan-American Child Congress. The Congress met in Habana, Cuba, from December 8 to 15, at the invitation of President Machado. Delegations were in attendance from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, United States, including Porto Rico, Salvador, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, Paraguay, Republica Dominicana, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

The United States was represented by three departments of the Government through the Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Education, and the Bureau of the Public Health Service, as well as by the Departments of Health and Public Instruction of Porto Rico, and by the following organizations: American Home Economics Association, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Child Welfare League of America, National Probation Association, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, National Catholic Welfare Conference, Indiana State Board of Health, and the Loyal Order of Moose.

Official Delegates From Many Nations

The Congress was inaugurated by the President of Cuba through his Secretary of State, Señor Ortiz. The roll call of nationals was made by Doctor Aballí, president of the congress, and replies were made by representative delegates from each country. Miss Katharine F. Lenroot, of the Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, represented the United States delegation and received a special demonstration of welcome when she gave the first half of her address in the Spanish language.

Other general meetings of the Congress presented outstanding problems in the several fields of child-welfare work covered more in detail by the sectional conferences. This presentation was made both through formal addresses, and through an elaborate pageant of maternity staged in the university stadium. The final session summarized the week's activities and, while congratulating the organizations represented on the work accomplished, issued a challenge to them to increase their activities for the universal benefit of childhood.

At the several sectional meetings discussion centered about the following topics: 1. Sociology—the responsibility of the State and local social organizations to parents, expectant mothers, and dependent children and adolescents. 2. Psychology—individual differences and aptitudes of infants and character education among children. 3. Medicine—various physical disorders of childhood. 4. Hygiene—infant mortality, food and care for mothers and infants, and educational programs for prevention of physical difficulties. 5. Education—programs for preschool children and for training high school girls in child care, continuity in curricula for kindergarten-elementary grades, sex instruction and character education, special classes for atypical children, and relationship of parent and teacher. 6. Legislation—prevention of juvenile delinquency, duties of State and Nation toward abandoned or neglected children, probation in the juvenile court, legislation for determining parentage of deserted children.

Discussion followed the presentation of each paper at the sectional meetings, and interpreters made sure that fine points in the discussion were understood by both the English and Spanish speaking delegates.

Sectional Meetings in Public Health Building

The Public Health Building, the Secretaria de Sanidad y Beneficencia, hummed with activity during the week of the conference. Many of the sectional meetings of the Congress were held there.

On a gallery surrounding the central patio, exhibitions were arranged. These included colored stereopticon slides and enlarged photographs of nursery, kindergarten, and primary school activities in the States; illuminated models, charts, and "sets" showing ideal nurseries, maternity clinics, care of the sick, other health and posture work, and Red Cross activities in the schools. Literature was distributed both from the organizations represented at the Congress and from educational and welfare associations.

Habana opend her schools, her courts, her crêches, and her many charitable institutions for the benefit of those attending the congress, and ample provision was made to guide visitors to the places of most interest. There was a sense of being outdoors in all of the buildings—the courtyards, roof gardens, high ceilings, and open window spaces contributing to the airiness and freshness of the rooms used. In all the work with the children and parents it is evident that the great desire of those in charge of institutions was to give the best within their abilities and resources.

Formal announcements of the resolutions passed by the congress have not yet been printed. In summary, however, they first express warm appreciation for the efforts in behalf of the Cuban child made by his excellency, Gen. Gerardo Machado, President of Cuba, as shown through the "Festival of maternity," a pageant staged for the congress. Gratitude was expressed to his excellency, the secretary of health and charity of the Republic of Cuba, Dr. Francisco María Fernández; the president of the congress, Dr. Angel Arturo Aballí; and the secretary general, Dr. Félix Hurbado. as the persons who were chiefly responsible for the success of the congress.

Child Welfare Institute Is Applauded

The Congress applauded the realization of the American Child Welfare Institute in Montevideo and desired that its work receive the official support of the Governments of America that have not yet joined it, and that its work be carried on in the interest and with reference to the characteristics of the American child.

Other points covered in the resolutions include the following: Desirability of unification and coordination of child welfare laws. A recommendation to the Governments of America that they adopt laws for the protection of childhood. Development of the education of the preschool child. Development of physical education and of special instruction for adolescents. Encouragement of unified curricula for kindergarten-primary grades, emphasizing the development of behaviors, as well as intellectual achievements. Development of visiting teacher work in public schools. Development of park or garden schools. Organization of juvenile courts. Investigation of paternity through social study and biological study, and the enforcement of parental responsibility. Laws providing for rest before childbirth and aid to mothers during this period. Special preparation of persons engaged in child-caring work and cooperation by public and private child-caring agencies.

The Sixth Pan-American Child Congress will be held in Lima, Peru. The date has not yet been determined.

Friends' Schools Patronized Largely by Other Sects

Of 3,827 pupils enrolled in Friends' schools situated in the Middle Atlantic States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and the District of Columbia, only 514 (13.4 per cent) are children of Friends, according to a two-year study of 20 schools under Friends' meetings or conducted by Friends, recently made by W. Carson Ryan, jr., professor of education, Swarthmore College. Of the 20 schools, 11 are in Pennsylvania. All are coeducational, and enrollment is about evenly divided between the sexes. Six of the schools have all grades from kindergarten through senior high school. Of the two boarding schools maintained, one is entirely of secondary grade, and the other includes elementary classes. The schools employ 296 full-time, and 53 part-time teachers. The study indicates that Friends' schools are by no means solely or even mainly for Friends' children, and that in this respect conditions have not greatly changed since 1870, when a survey of meetings and schools in the Philadelphia region showed that of the 1,957 children then attending Friends' schools, only 438 (22.4 per cent) were children of Friends.

Characteristics that Children Like in Teachers

Of 6,404 themes on "My Best Teacher," written by pupils in schools of Cleveland, Ohio, by assignment of the elementary supervisor, to determine what present-day school children like best in their teachers, 5,118 mentioned traits of character, 3,621 had to do with teaching ability, 1,896 with discipline, and 262 with personal appearance. The statement that, "She did not scold," was made by 555 pupils; and the teacher's participation in different school activities was mentioned by 603 pupils. High-school students emphasized a sense of humor.

High Schools are Making Rapid Strides

The Bureau of Education has a record of 21,700 public high schools which enrolled 3,757,466 pupils in 1926. The schools enrolling more than 1,000 pupils each number 767, one school enrolling as many as 8,611. These 767 schools represent 3.5 per cent of the total number of schools, and 37.5 per cent of the total enrollment. It takes about 18,000 of the smallest high schools to enroll another 37.5 per cent. One-half of the public high schools enroll fewer than 100 pupils each, the total for these schools being but 13.7 per cent of the whole enrollment.—*Frank M. Phillips.*

Belgians Have Recently Developed Great Interest in Sports

Before the War Physical Training was Actually Opposed by School Administrators, and Popular Interest was at Low Ebb. Contact with British and American Troops Brought Marked Change. Olympic Games a Great Stimulus

By WILLIAM G. BURDETT
American Consul, Brussels, Belgium

BEFORE the war comparatively little attention was paid to sports in Belgium, and the development of physical culture even met with some opposition by the Belgian public. Little initiative was taken to teach the public the value of physical exercise, and whenever a suggestion was made to introduce an obligatory course of physical training in the Belgian schools it was objected to by the faculties of these establishments on the ground that the Belgian law held them responsible for all accidents to their pupils during school hours and they did not like to see their responsibility increased.

The factor which caused sports to thrive in spite of these adverse conditions was the spirit of association innate in the Belgian character. The general public in this district spends much time outside the home, either in the cafés or private clubs, and there is a large number of societies for almost every activity. Sports gave an excellent reason for forming societies and clubs.

As public recreation grounds did not exist, the sports in favor before the war were those which could be practiced on the highways and public squares. Thus bicycle racing and cross-country runs became, and are still, the most popular sports in this country.

Olympic Games Increased Popularity of Sports

During the war the contact with the American and British troops stimulated the spirit of sports in the Belgian Army, and official initiative was taken to build up physical education in the army on foreign lines. A direct result of this stimulating influence was the effort made by officials of this country shortly after the war to secure the right of holding the seventh Olympic games. The great success of this exhibition brought all kinds of sports to a popularity never known before.

The committee which had organized the Olympic games took the initiative in grouping all existing Belgian sporting organizations on an up-to-date and scientific basis. This society, which calls itself the Société Belge de Culture Physique, grew rapidly to an organization of importance. In 1925 it numbered about 75,000 members and at the present time it has on its lists more than 165,000 affiliated members. This figure conveys an idea of the present popularity of sports in this country.

The following list gives the most important sporting associations affiliated with this society, with the number of clubs and their members:

Sports	*Clubs*	*Members*
Association football	912	83,520
Cycling	295	43,315
Swimming	41	8,317
General athletics	92	8,210
Rowing	23	5,600
Hockey	12	5,589
Tennis	32	6,200
Shooting	52	2,618
Boxing		1,357
Wrestling		1,349

The official attention of the Belgian Government has been attracted several times to the movement launched by the Société de Culture Physique. A government bill rendering physical education obligatory in all elementary and secondary schools and allowing substantial credits for university sports was introduced some time ago in the Chamber of Representatives but was rejected because it contained a clause reducing the term of military service in proportion to the results obtained during the period of school training. Although this bill failed to pass, it stimulated the interest of the Belgian public in all matters concerning sports. A large percentage of the population of this district now follow the different sporting events with a keen interest, and their many advantages are generally recognized.

All kinds of sports are making rapid progress under present conditions. Tennis is becoming most popular, although the wet Belgian climate does not favor open-air courts. A number of covered hard courts are now in construction in this city and it is expected that they will be used all the year round. Hockey is constantly increasing in popularity. This sport is being introduced in many private schools. Guns of excellent quality are manufactured in the Liege district and enjoy a world-wide reputation. No foreign-made gun can successfully compete on the local market with the domestic product. Golf is played to a limited extent, and fishing is a most popular recreation.

Official Report to the Secretary of State.

Educational Aims of The Metropolitan Museum of Art

How the Museum Helps the Casual Visitor, the Schools, the Designers, and the Manufacturers. Gallery Visits for School Children and Courses for Teachers of the Public Schools are Provided. Groups of Buyers and Salespeople from the Department Stores of New York City Attend the Museum Study-Hours

By HUGER ELLIOTT

Director of Educational Work, The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York

(*Continued from the January number*)

THE EDUCATIONAL AIMS OF The Metropolitan Museum of Art are twofold: First, to help the visitor to develop his ability to enjoy the collections; second, to aid him in learning how to use the collections. There are those who hold that no amount of "instruction" can fit a man to enjoy a work of art—that he must, himself, develop his capacity for enjoyment by looking and again looking. Of course, we can not endow a man with the faculty of enjoying beautiful objects. But the susceptibilities of the normal person may be increased; the word fitly spoken may open his eyes to beauties of which he had not dreamed.

It is implied in the charter of the museum that the taste of the public is to be trained. This, in a large measure, is accomplished by the quality of the objects displayed and by the arrangement of these in the galleries. But this silent teaching should be reinforced by the spoken word. Once the attention of the visitor has been directed to the beauty of composition and suitability of setting, he begins to note these matters for himself, and with the sharpened perception comes a sensitiveness to arrangement which before was lacking. One might be safe in declaring that training the taste of the visitor is one of the most important positive functions of the educational staff.

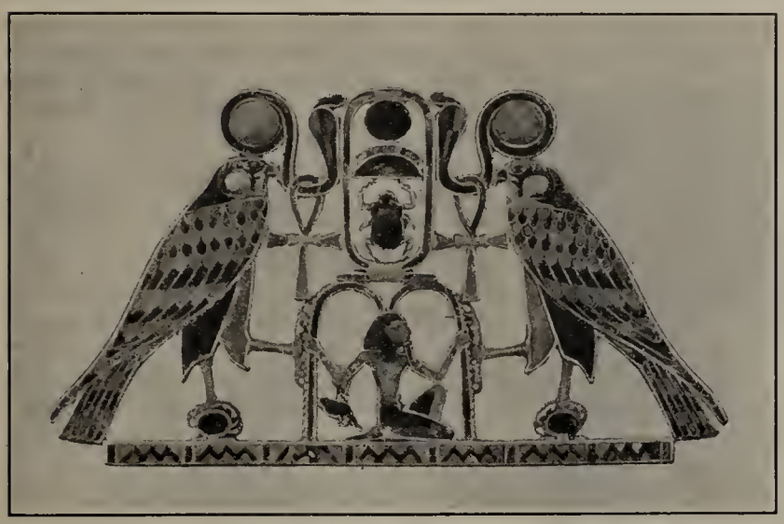
Children Gain Inspiration in the Galleries

We begin with story hours for children and the correlation of school work with a study of man's artistic production as found in the collections. Under guidance, children are led to derive inspiration from the objects in the galleries, that school and home work may be finer. This instruction, ever increasing in scope, is carried through the high schools into the college and the university. For the members and the general public there are lectures and guidance of the individual or of groups. Thus, as far as may be, the needs of the public from childhood to maturity are met.

Such service must result in raising the standards of taste among those who frequent the museum. That these may be able, in their purchase of articles of daily use, to satisfy in a measure the tastes thus formed, the activities which may be grouped under the heading "use of the collections" have been developed. Designers and manufacturers are given all possible assistance that the articles they make may satisfy the taste of the "museum-trained" purchaser. Between the public and the manufacturers stand the buyers and the salespeople employed in the retail stores. That these may be assisted in offering the more discriminat-

Head of an athlete; Greek sculpture of the fourth century B. C.

ing public the better designs produced by the manufacturers, courses are given by which this group may profit by the lessons to be learned in the museum. Thus the circle is completed and the museum plays its part in molding the artistic expression of the day.



Pectoral of the Princess Sat-hathor-iunut; Egyptian, XII Dynasty

The aid given the public should not, however, be confined within the limits of the museum walls. Therefore the museum extension service was inaugurated, by means of which lantern slides, photographs, reproductions in color, duplicate casts, textiles, and motion-picture films are, for nominal sums, rented far and wide over the country east of the Mississippi River.

To conduct visitors through the galleries, singly or in groups, we have a staff of seven instructors. The service is free to members and to the teachers and pupils of the public schools of New York City. For others a small fee is charged. The instructor gives the visitor a friendly, informal talk on the history, the technique, or the quality of one or another group of objects, encouraging the visitor to ask questions, and trying to make the hour one of real enjoyment. And the instructor eagerly awaits signs which tell of the awakening of the perceptions of the visitor; the kindling glance which comes as an indication that he is beginning to look at the object with the seeing eye instead of being content with reading the label; the shy word of appreciation at the end of the hour which testifies that the fit word has been spoken and that new worlds of enjoyment have been opened; these are the rewards for which we work.

Two Free Lectures Each Week

Besides this there is free guidance on Saturday and Sunday afternoons; there are courses of lectures by members of the educational staff; and during the winter two free lectures each week, given by authorities in the various fields of art.

The next phase of the work concerns the schools. The—shall we say—hardened museum visitor will have noticed the timidity with which certain people enter the building. Penetrating a museum of art is to these a somewhat doubtful experiment; art, as they conceive it, is a forbidding, unapproachable thing. They have no points of contact; their lives have not fitted them for enjoyment of beauty. With children it is another matter; from the start they feel at home.

To cultivate a familiarity with works of art in the rising generation is of the first importance. And one way of fostering the museum habit in the children is to see that their teachers realize its value. Practically the entire educational staff in one way or another, serves the teachers of the city in informal talks or in announced courses. These teachers bring their classes to the museum to make more vivid the classroom work in history, geography, language study, etc., receiving from the instructors whatever help they may desire. On Saturday and Sunday there are children's story hours, the stories being devised to interest the child in some object or group of objects in the collections.

Direct Use by Designers and Manufacturers

Not only in the enjoyment of the collections by the general public through the department of educational work, but also in the more direct use of the museum by designers, manufacturers, and salespeople, the museum has built up an efficient system. Mr. Richard F. Bach, associate in industrial arts, works with the first two groups, and he thus phrases the obligation of the designer:

> He must discover the essence of character in design, the artistic motive force inherent in style and in those representative pieces that have invited him to detailed examination; thus he finds the reason for their excellence. The material exterior, which alone the untrained eye can comprehend, is not enough for him. While, and although, reacting to the insistent demands of modern, highly specialized manufacturing processes, of market, of complex selling methods, of fickle public taste, he shapes a new thing in which the old is present though not recognizable. And the degree in which the old disappears in the new is often also a measure of the success of the latter.
>
> The museum's service to designer and manufacturer is to be both his pilot and his companion. Yet,

Young woman with a water jug. Painting by Johannes Vermeer (1632–1675)

though he may have been taught many things and though he may possess infinitely varied capacities, he must learn for himself how to study. His intelligence, as well as his talent, will control the degree of his success.

The museum can justly claim to have played an important part in the betterment of design through the help given the manufacturers. When the designer, inspired by a study of the collections, has produced wares of ever-increasing beauty, there is still the problem of bringing these to the attention of that public whose taste has been improved by the same study. The link between the producer and the consumer is the retail merchant—the next segment of that imaginary circle formed by those whom the museum serves. For these Mr. Percy S. Straus, an officer of a great department store, speaks in the following paragraphs:

The textile study room

The tender of cooperation which the museum has made to department stores is much appreciated. Speaking for my organization, hundreds of individual members of our staff have profited by accepting it.

The museum and the purveyors of merchandise have in common the desire to develop appreciation of merchandise of good taste. The first step in this direction is the education in color and design of those on whom falls the responsibility of creating the merchandise. The second step, and one no less important, is training the taste of those who select the wares from the lines of the manufacturers.

The store's part in this process is to accept the tender of the museum and to grant time to members of its staff to attend the lectures at the museum and to inspect the collections there. If the value of doing this were more generally realized, the beauty of the displays in stores would add to the pleasure of visiting them.

The museum is doing its duty. It is now up to the merchants to express full appreciation of this service by taking advantage of it increasingly.

Business Men Cultivate Taste of Employees

We find that many are greatly surprised when they learn of the facts stated by Mr. Straus. It seems to be the most impressive statement one can make when speaking of our educational work. That schools should send classes to the museum and that people should come to hear lectures or concerts, a man finds comprehensible, but that time should be set aside during working hours that buyers and salespeople may improve their taste astonishes the business man. And for the first time, perhaps, he begins to realize that there is more in "art" than he had supposed.

This work is in the hands of Miss Cornell, an associate instructor in the department of educational work of the museum and an assistant professor in Teachers College, Columbia University. The analysis of line, color, and form is not confined to objects in the museum's collections; the theories are tested by the study of wares sold in the shops, selected by her and sent from the stores for this purpose. The work is given not only for special groups; on Sundays during the winter there is a course of 16 talks, free to all who care to attend.

That the collections themselves are the raison d'être of the activities of the educational department needs no emphasis. It may not, however, be out of place to remind the reader of the special facilities given the student for research in the study rooms of the departments—notably those of textiles and of prints. Here he may examine the great store of material, but a small part of which can be shown in the galleries. The number of persons using the former last year was 774, the latter, 2,166—the unrivaled collection of engravings of ornament in the print room attracting many designers.

A most important agency for aiding the student is found in the library, with its 56,553 volumes and 86,357 mounted photographs.

Lantern Slides in Constant Demand

When discussing the museum's extension service, it is difficult to avoid being statistical; saying, for example, that 128,616 lantern slides were circulated during the past year, 5,629 photographs and color prints, 5,008 textiles, etc. Possibly but one out of a thousand persons really enjoys statistics, yet how else may we impress upon the reader the use made of the facilities afforded by this branch of the museum's activities? It is a big and a vital part of our work. The lantern slides not only take "counterfeit presentments" of the collections to those who can not come to the museum, but as the 40,000 slides illustrate man's artistic achievements from prehistoric times to the present day, they are in constant use by teachers, clubs, and other organizations all over the eastern section of the United States. The photographs, color

A class working in the galleries

prints, and facsimile etchings—of a size suitable for exhibition—are used by schools, clubs, libraries, and hospitals. Schools borrow the duplicate textiles, the Japanese prints, the maps and charts, while through the cooperation of the American Federation of Arts sets of facsimile etchings and of paintings from the museum collections are circulated throughout the country.

Fees for Cinema Films are Nominal

The cinema films are in demand from Boston to Madison, Wis., and from Raquette Lake, N. Y., to Nashville, Tenn. To the schools of the city of New York the extension service is free except the museum films; of others a merely nominal fee is asked.

An International Library School in Paris

École de Bibliothécaires, the Paris Library School, since its establishment in 1923, has trained 164 men and women of 19 nationalities. Enrollment of 20 additional students for the session 1927–28 brings the number of nationalities to 23. Graduates are holding positions of responsibility in many countries. The school owes its inception to activities of the American Committee for Devastated France, which in its work of reconstruction established five small public libraries. This resulted in the organization later by the American Library Association of a six-weeks' course for training librarians.

The Rospigliosi cup. By Benvenuto Cellini

The greatest good which we may hope to achieve through our educational work was voiced by an old man whose remark was overheard by a member of the museum. Our friend was passing the show window of a picture dealer, before which stood a white-bearded, poorly clad man and a small boy, when she caught the words, "No, that's not right; look again." She turned, and found that they were studying an old painting; absorbed, unconscious of the passers-by. "Look again," the man would say—and the boy would examine the picture, then close his eyes and describe the composition in detail. Again and again was this repeated until the boy had reconstructed the masterpiece, missing no point. Then the old man said, "Good; we can go home. Now you own that picture."

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Although the instruction of the school is in French by a faculty drawn principally from the United States and France, yet 12 countries have been represented in the teachers and lecturers.

Americanization of California Mexicans Proves Expensive

Enrollment of Mexicans for part-time instruction in the Americanization department of Santa Paula (Calif.) Union High School increased from 830 in 1925–26 to 1,100 in 1926–27. The range in age of students was from 16 to 60, and more than 36 per cent of those enrolled were women. Attendance, however, in both day and evening part-time classes is very irregular, making the cost of maintenance high as compared with other schools. The average daily attendance last year was only 40, yet 2 full-time teachers and from 6 to 12 assisting teachers are required for them. The cost of maintenance of the work in 1926–27 was about $240 per Mexican in average daily attendance, or 3.68 times the amount spent per capita of average daily attendance in the elementary schools, and 1.3 times the high-school costs.

Lunch Room Conducted on Cooperative Plan

One special hot dish a day, at 5 cents, is served at lunch to children in Concord Township Consolidated School, St. Joe, Ind. The project is sponsored by the Parent-Teacher Association, and food is served at cost. The menu is posted a week ahead, and pupils sign up a day in advance for things they wish to eat. They are urged to bring produce from home, in exchange for which meal tickets are given. This helps some who might not otherwise not have the hot food. A regular cook is employed at $1.50 a day, and high-school girls take turns in assisting her. Parents cooperate in many ways. Occasionally they meet and put up vegetables for the school lunch; they donate food, sometimes with the request that meal tickets to the value be furnished certain children; and they give other needed assistance.

Greenland Teacher Will Inspect Alaskan Schools

Vorstander Bugge, principal of the seminarium at Godthaab, Greenland, will study at first-hand the schools for natives of Alaska administered by the United States Bureau of Education. The itinerary of Mr. Bugge was planned by Dr. J. E. Church, jr., a member of the recent Hobbs Greenland expedition, in cooperation with Bureau of Education officers. It will take him as far north as Nenana, down the Yukon River to Golovin Sound, thence to Nome, and if time permits to Kotzebue and Barrow, returning by way of Little Diomede, Nome, and St. Lawrence Island to Seattle.

Any high-school graduate in South Dakota who desires to attend an institution of higher education in the State and can obtain the indorsement of three responsible persons, may borrow money from a student loan fund sponsored by the Parent-Teacher Association of the State.

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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FEBRUARY, 1928

Advocate Seven Years for Elementary Studies

COMPARABLE in importance with the famous report of the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education, published 32 years ago, is the report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education, which has recently come from the press.

The commission was concerned primarily with the questions: "Is a 7-grade elementary school successful? Is an 8-grade elementary school productive of results so far in advance of results secured by a 7-grade elementary school that the 8 grades common in elementary schools in the Northern States should be judged essential?" In relation to those questions the investigations were thorough and the conclusions are presented with ability and vigor.

The commissioners are men of high standing. Each type of elementary school was "represented by some one specially acquainted with its purposes and problems." The report bears the unanimous approval of the commissioners, and the name of each one appears on the title-page as coauthor.

This is in marked contrast with the report of the Committee of Fifteen. The discussions that preceded the preparation of that document brought out sharp differences of opinion, especially in the subcommittee on correlation. The report of that subcommittee, the outstanding production of the committee, was signed only by its chairman, Dr. William T. Harris. Each of the other members of the subcommittee presented a minority report lauding the report written by the chairman and agreeing with it "in general," but dissenting in relation to important matters. No two of the minority reports were in full accord, and none of them was signed by more than one person.

It is a matter of significance in itself that all of the men on the recent commission were convinced of the validity of the cogent and uncompromising conclusions of the report and were willing to sign their names to it. It means much, for example, that Payson Smith, commissioner of education for Massachusetts, a State in which the typical elementary course covered nine years only a few years ago, subscribes to the belief that "elementary education of a satisfactory degree of richness of content can be provided in seven grades," and that "pupils can be trained through a 7-grade curriculum to the point where they can efficiently pursue high-school work."

The school systems of 610 cities were minutely examined by the commission through the replies to well-considered questionnaires. An intensive study was made of the schools of three counties in Maryland which have 8-grade elementary schools and three which have 7-grade elementary schools. A similar comparison was made of eight city school systems of recognized excellence, 3 of which have 7-grade elementary schools and five of which have 8-grade elementary schools; Dallas, Denver, Houston, Kansas City, Milwaukee, Oakland, St. Louis, and Springfield (Mass.) were the cities selected. Finally, the efficiency of the present organization of the schools of Ottawa and Toronto was compared with the efficiency under the 8-year plan which previously prevailed.

The study of the 610 city school systems develops nothing so clearly as the diversity in American education—unless it is that the methods of recording and reporting statistical items vary so widely that it is often impossible to distinguish between actual differences and discrepant statistics. Instances of this appear in many places in this section of the report.

Table VIII, on page 37, is a conspicuous example. The average enrollment in Grades II, III, and IV is used by the commission as the base for calculating the percentage of enrollment in the several grades. The idea is excellent; but when it is applied to figures supplied upon the questionnaire blanks, it develops that the pupils enrolled in Grade VIII of the school systems reported in Connecticut were 57 per cent of the average of the enrollment in Grades II, III, and IV; Idaho, 99.5; Louisiana, 92.2; Minnesota, 38.3; New Jersey, 51.9; New Mexico, 110.1; etc. The commission ascribes the differences to the attitude of the several communities to education, policy regarding promotion, and other social and pedagogical forces; but it refers also to "other influences which are less easily cataloguced." This is mentioned as illustrating the greatest difficulty in statistical studies of American schools, and it arises to vex us in nearly every investigation that involves nation-wide comparisons.

The comparison of the 7-grade elementary schools and 8-grade elementary schools of Maryland produced more definite results than the questionnaire investigation of the 610 cities. The State department of education and the county superintendents cooperated with the commission in the Maryland investigation. An elaborate series of tests were administered to the pupils of Grade VII and Grade VIII where such grade existed, and in the first year of the high school in each of the six counties selected for the investigation.

It is shown that pupils of the 7-grade counties in general enter high school at an earlier age than those from the 8-grade counties, and that they reach college earlier. Children show a definite and measurable improvement from attending the eighth grade, but pupils of the 7-grade schools are as a rule adequately prepared for the high school. Even without the evidence of the tests the fact that the people of 20 of the 23 counties of the State are content to retain the seven-year system seems ample and practical proof that this is true. No distinction appears in the normal schools and colleges of Maryland in the scholastic standing of students from the two types of schools.

The most definite and satisfying portion of the commission's report of investigations is that devoted to the eight city school systems of recognized excellence. The names of the cities are stated in the beginning but thereafter their identity is thinly concealed under designation by letters. The best elementary schools in each city were selected for examination, and pupils in the two upper grades to a number equal to 10 per cent of the total enrollment in those grades were subjected to the Stanford achievement test, Form B.

The summary of the scores of the pupils in Grade VII–A of the 7-grade system and those of Grade VIII–A of the 8-grade systems shows that first place in the final ranking is held by an 8-grade system, second place by a 7-grade system, third place by an 8-grade system, fourth place by a 7-grade system, and so on. Other comparisons show like results. In these excellent city school systems no advantage is apparent which may be reasonably ascribed to the additional year of study. On the other hand, pupils in the upper grades of the 7-grade systems were uniformly younger on the average than pupils in the upper grades of the 8-grade systems.

This finding was corroborated by cumulative records of 139 city school systems which were procured by the commission. These records show that the time required for the completion of the 7-year course is one year less than the 8-year course if the median is considered, and 0.79 of a year less if the arithmetic mean is considered.

The significant fact that the commission brought out in relation to the city of Ottawa, which recently shortened its elementary curriculum, is that both the actual number and the percentage of the

whole number of pupils who pass the high-school entrance examination have largely increased since the change in the length of the course of study. In the year after the change and again in 1925 slight decreases were noted, but they are clearly without significance. Other than this no marked change has occurred either in Ottawa or in Toronto. A recent law requires the continuance of school attendance to the age of 16; the operation of that law retains in the schools many pupils of relatively low intelligence and this neutralizes the effect of the shorter curriculum upon such statistical items as age of pupils at completion of the course and time required for passing through the grades.

Some of the interpretations of the commission of the facts which were collected are presented in the January number of SCHOOL LIFE. They speak for themselves. What effect the report will have upon school organization in this country, time alone can show. Another report upon a related subject, equally able and equally convincing, was produced 14 years ago. It was entitled "Economy of Time in Education," and was printed as Bureau of Education Bulletin 1913, No. 38. Much was expected of it, but the tangible results so far are hard to find. Such discussions, and they have been many, have probably been influential in hastening the passage of pupils through the grades by improving promotion practices, but they have brought about little of formal reorganization.

Adherents of the junior high school will readily agree with the 7-grade argument, and will assert that it does not go far enough; that they desire a 6-year elementary course, and would place the beginnings of the high school in Grade VII. In this they are wholly in accord with the view of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education. The commission insists, however, that the change to be inaugurated shall be a change in fact and not in name only, and that the junior high school shall not be the means of continuing indefinitely the 12 years now required for completion of the high school. The essential point of the commission's contention is reduction of that time. It holds that anything else is illusory and that it fails to meet the situation.

Of 2,141,206 colored children attending public schools during the school year 1925–26, as reported to the United States Bureau of Education by school officials in 16 States, the largest number, 282,841, were enrolled in Mississippi, where colored children comprise 56.2 per cent of the total school population of the State. North Carolina came next, with an enrollment of 254,625 colored pupils.

Handling of Reindeer Meat is Reaching a Businesslike Basis

THE U. S. S. *Boxer*, operated by the Bureau of Education for the benefit of natives of Alaska, has cold storage for about 500 slaughtered reindeer. Each year on her return trip from Arctic Alaska she calls at remote stations along the coast not served by commercial boats and receives reindeer meat for shipment to Seattle. Usually these deer are from such places as Point Hope, Kivalina, Kotzebue, Wales, and St. Lawrence Island. If it is possible to make connections with commercial steamers at Nome bound for Seattle, the deer from points north of Nome are transferred from the *Boxer* to the large boats. In this event the *Boxer* proceeds to St. Lawrence Island and again fills her cold storage space to capacity and then continues the voyage to Seattle. No difficulty nor delay has been encountered in disposing of this reindeer meat to wholesalers along the Pacific coast.

To Give Variety to Sailors' Diet

Navy test.—Last spring the Bureau of Education through departmental channels arranged with the Navy Department to make an experimental test with reindeer meat to determine its desirability as a ration for use in the naval stations, yards, and vessels in the service. Thirteen hundred and sixty-five pounds of reindeer meat were recently brought from the north on the *Boxer* and, complying with instruction from Secretary Wilbur, were delivered on December 15, 1927, to the navy yard at Bremerton, Wash., to meet this test. Should this meat be included in the ration lists of the Navy Department, a demand will thus be created for a large quantity of slaughtered reindeer.

Slaughtering and Dressing Carefully Done

The reindeer for the Navy test were selected and slaughtered under the personal supervision and observation of the district superintendent of the Bureau of Education for the Seward Peninsula district. The persons slaughtering the deer wore white laundered garments, and those handling the meat wore gloves. After dressing the carcasses were rinsed and allowed to hang until all animal heat escaped, when they were wrapped in cheesecloth and burlap covering and then placed in cold storage aboard the U. S. S. *Boxer* and frozen. They were kept in a frozen state until delivery.

The deer weighed about evenly, averaging 138.3 pounds. It is claimed that the meat is clean and free from any communicable disease, and it is recommended as savory, palatable, and nourishing food, when properly prepared. The price paid by the Navy Department was 13 cents per pound.

Corporation With Ample Capital and Facilities

Lomen Reindeer Corporation, operating in the Seward Peninsula district, has recently reorganized with capital of $3,000,000 for the purpose of handling reindeer meat. Cold-storage plants have been constructed at Teller, on Port Clarence, and at Golovin, on Norton Sound, and deer are driven to those places when in prime condition, slaughtered, and placed in cold storage. At Golovin a cannery and by-products plant was constructed this season for canning and curing the meats and manufacturing fertilizer. To transport supplies to Alaska and meat products to Seattle, the *Sierra*, a freighter of 2,000 tons capacity, was purchased and placed in the service of this corporation during the summer.

Alaska Steamship Co.—This company has added refrigeration to the *Victoria* and *Alameda*, for the purpose of handling reindeer meat between Seward Peninsula points and Seattle. The *Victoria* has cold-storage space for 2,000 deer and usually makes three voyages during the open season of navigation from Teller, Nome, and St. Michael to Seattle. The sister ship, *Alameda*, is placed in service to this part of Alaska when necessity arises.

Refrigerated Barges Perform Important Function

Cold-storage plants.—Wæchter Bros., of Seattle, have cold-storage barges at Teller, St. Michael, and Kokrines. These barges are flat-bottom boats, decked over, and refrigerated, and are moved from deep water to shallow bays and rivers to which reindeer are driven by the natives for slaughter and storage until summer navigation opens. The Igloo natives killed 1,000 deer and the Cape Prince of Wales natives 400 deer last winter for storage on the Teller barge, and a large number were stored on the St. Michael barge. The barge at Kokrines provides storage facilities for the surplus deer slaughtered along the Yukon.

Bristol Bay storage.—A cold-storage plant was constructed on Wood River above Dillingham, Bristol Bay, this summer to serve the lower Kuskokwim Valley. Togiak Bay, and the Wood River country, It is planned to slaughter deer in the fall for storage and sale the following summer to the 28 fish canneries operating in Bristol Bay; any surplus will be shipped to the States on the cannery tenders.

Total shipment.—During the period from 1918 to 1925, inclusive, more than 1,875,000 pounds of reindeer meat were shipped out of Alaska.

Articulation Between Junior and Senior High Schools

Lack of Complete Continuity Is Generally Recognized. Many School Officers Fail to Conceive of Secondary Education as a Continuous Whole. Too Much Difference in Training and Compensation of Teachers in the Two Units

By WALTER H. GAUMNITZ

Associate Specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education

ARTICULATION between the several units of our system of public education is like the weather, a thing that we talk about a great deal but we do very little about it. And sometimes it seems that the more we complain of the failure of the various educational units and their personnel to effect an integrated system, the more the parts become segregated. How like human nature it is to look elsewhere than in ourselves for our failures, to place the blame upon some other organization than upon our own, and to draw ourselves serenely apart in an effort to self-protection when the attack of criticism is leveled against us. Thus, much of our talk results merely in antagonisms and further disintegrations rather than in articulation.

Lack of Complete Continuity is Obvious

That there is a great need to bring about unification in our educational system in general and in secondary education in particular is generally recognized; that there are wide gaps both in the organization and in the curriculum of the system is well known; that there is still much overlapping regardless of the junior high school's effort to effect economies in time is not denied; and that there is lack of complete continuity in the means and in the processes of learning as the pupil advances through his various grades is obvious.

With the pressure upon the whole educational system in this scientific age to show efficiency, school administration is compelled to conduct experiments in order to find a way to establish specific societal objectives for each unit and to effect adjustments of organization and curriculum which will bring about unity and cooperation between the successive units engaged in achieving these objectives. Experiments affecting some phases of the problem of articulation are already in progress. These should be carefully observed and scientifically reported so that they may be repeated and the results verified. Other phases of the problem must await the slow processes of evolutionary growth.

In an article in SCHOOL LIFE for June, 1927, Mr. James M. Glass makes the unqualified assertion that "the first mission of the junior high school is to seek to convert an unarticulated school system of 8 years of elementary education and 4 years of secondary education into an articulated and continuous 12-year system. To this end the junior high school becomes the unit of transition to weld together elementary and secondary education." He continues in substance to say that the junior high school at no point in its three years is either wholly elementary or wholly secondary. It is a new composite of both. It should begin by continuing in a more effective way the laying of basic foundations of useful citizenship; it should continue by effecting a natural and easy transition from child education to adolescent education; and it should close by recognizing the differences of interest and capacities of the youth about to enter productive life. The pupils would thus gradually and progressively pass into a full-grown secondary education.

Junior College Assumes Complemental Function

The junior high school thus conceived is only quasi independent. It is the natural intermediate sector of our educational system of which the senior high school is the natural complement. Indeed, the senior high school is coming to be regarded as a second intermediate sector with the junior college assuming the complemental function for the secondary education period.

But what is the reason for the slow progress in bringing about unity between these two units of our school system? Why has the junior high school reorganization apparently failed in its function to articulate elementary and secondary education? Why is it that many school administrators who have experimented with the junior high school reorganization declare that instead of a single break in our system of education as formerly the new system results in marked breaks at two or even at three points? And what are some of the most effective means and methods thus far developed for overcoming this lack of articulation? These problems shall be made the chief purpose of this discussion.

For the sake of a common denominator we shall think of the junior high school as an intermediate unit such as is found in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of the 6–3–3 plan. Our attention shall be limited to the problem of cooperation between this junior high school unit and the unit immediately following it, known as the senior high school.

Colleges are Factors in Determining Relationship

It is obvious that the control exercised by colleges with regard to entrance requirements necessarily becomes a factor in determining, in part at least, the relationship existing between the high school and the unit immediately preceding it. It may be noted at this point that the disposition of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to accept 11 high-school credits for entrance requirement, where a standard junior high school is a part of the system, instead of the usual 15, is now tending to relieve this pressure and, as a consequence, many sources of friction between junior and senior high school stand in a fair way to be removed.

This effort on the part of higher education to relieve the pressure from above is a tendency in the right direction. The colleges should more and more build their curriculum offerings with a view to further or complete the various programs of functional education laboriously evolved by a rapidly changing secondary education, rather than make their programs independently and then expect secondary education to furnish a substructure to a superstructure already reared. Fitting one unit of a structure to another, smoothly and without a break, is always a difficult matter when the two units are not constructed in their natural sequence. It is therefore clear that when the junior high school aims at educational democracy by providing a functional education and the senior high school concerns itself chiefly with providing preparation for college there is bound to be a wide gap in passing from one to the other.

Two Units Have a Common Objective

The chief reasons for failure to effect full articulation between these two units of public secondary education appear to be a lack of understanding and a confusion of purposes. In actual practice many superintendents, principals, and teachers lose sight of the principle that these two units of education have specific functions but a common fundamental objective. There is not adequate realization that the specific functions of the junior high school are to effect a transition from child education to adult education, to explore individual differences, to guide the development, and to enlarge the pupils' interests; but that the function of the senior high school is to begin the differentiation in curricula and in methods

of training which shall lead to the several vocations, including those of the professions by way of the college. Especially is there need of the concept that throughout both there is the function of furthering training in the fundamental processes, in the social-civic aims of education, and in the recreational and health objectives.

Evidences of Lack of Mutual Understanding

When this unity of purpose is thoroughly understood and believed by the personnel of both units and when the complementary character of these two institutions is fully recognized, many difficulties now pointed out as lying in the path of complete cooperation between the junior and senior high school will be eliminated. The truth of these statements is seen when we examine the specific obstructions to unity cited by both junior and senior high school administrators in a study made by Superintendent Arthur W. Ferguson. (Articulating the Junior and Senior High Schools. School Review, vol. 31, pp. 540 et seq.) He found as a result of a questionnaire sent to junior and senior high school principals such significant expressions of misunderstanding and opposition as these: "You will never have general agreement until deep-seated prejudices against the junior high school are overcome" and "pupils fail in the senior high school because teachers in the senior high school refuse to recognize work done in the junior high school."

Influence of Classical Instruction is Evident

Teachers of senior high schools employ a more academic and a more difficult type of teaching method than those of the junior high school and they frequently regard the greater ease in meeting assignments and the greater enjoyment of school activities in the latter as play work unworthy of their recognition. The influence of college classical instruction is very evident in these differences of attitude. The senior high school in many instances still insists on stressing in their ninth grades the grammatical and structural elements in the languages, including English, instead of the motivated direct-conversation method emphasized by the junior high school; in mathematics the former still drill on algebra instead of the more functional general mathematics; and in the social sciences they continue to require ancient history and the emphasis of a long series of classical facts. They feel that full recognition can not be given to the extra-curricular activities of the junior high school. Senior high schools which cling to these older methods and curricular requirements demand in effect that the junior high school become college preparatory in its chief function, but if this new institution responds to this demand it finds the purpose of its reorganization lost. Indeed, the result of such reorganization is less articulation rather than more because the old break between the eighth and ninth is retained and new breaks are apt to occur between the sixth and seventh, and between the ninth and tenth grades.

Must Find Way to Overcome Suspicion

To obviate this fundamental difficulty a way must be found to overcome these mutual suspicions and misunderstandings and to bring about unity of purpose. This will demand a definite plan of action. A cooperative study of the disintegrating causes and of the whole educational philosophy underlying the reorganization movement should be made by the teachers and administrators of both the senior and the junior high schools. Somehow all must come to understand thoroughly "the junior high school idea" before the other agencies of articulation can be put into operation and before unity of purpose can be hoped for.

A plan of supervision vertical rather than horizontal in application has been suggested. Under such a plan supervisors are responsible for results in a given field extending through the junior and senior high school grades. Supervisors of each subject then should be versed in the best means and methods to accomplish the educational objectives in that field as a whole. Coordination demands that the series of goals to be reached at the various grade levels be continous and progressive, and a central directive force with this comprehensive concept is essential to bring about such continuity

Curriculum is of Piecemeal Character

A second prominent obstruction in the path of articulation is the piecemeal character of the entire public school curriculum and of the secondary school curriculum in particular. The curriculum found in most of our school systems has, like Topsy, "just growed." So far we have not fully succeeded in effecting continuity of content or in bringing about unity in teaching its contents to the pupils. Some isolated attempts are now in progress to construct courses of study vertically rather than horizontally. This is a large task which involves the highest type of scholarship. It demands, first, the unequivocal establishment of educational and social-civic objectives, and then a choice of subject matter which will achieve these objectives. The various necessary items of subject matter must then be psychologically arranged and organized throughout the several courses of the curriculum from childhood training to adult training with a view to fix and automatize concepts, attitudes, and habits essential to social efficiency.

Each of these is a Hurculean task on which a good beginning has been made by such men as Professors Schorling and Thorndike in mathematics and by Prof. H. O. Rugg in the social sciences, but so far the surface of the whole field is hardly more than scratched. It is to be hoped that the emphasis given to curricular reorganization by the recent studies in the various fields by the department of superintendence will center attention upon this problem of curricular articulation. When once we have adequately solved the problem of a unified vertical curriculum, and when both teachers and administrators thoroughly understand their special subject and its specific functions with reference to a continuous program throughout the schools as a whole and in a given segment in particular, we can then hope for complete cooperation between these units of education.

Differences in Teaching Personnel are too Great

A third obstruction to articulation between the junior and senior high schools is the matter of the comparative training, salaries, and professional status of teachers in these two units. There is at present too wide a difference both in the extent and in the character of the training of the teachers of these two units of education for harmonious relationships. S. B. Stayer found (The Status of the Teachers in Junior High Schools. School Review, May, 1921, vol. 30, p. 379 et seq.) that only 39 per cent of all the junior high school teachers reported to him in 1921 were college graduates, whereas the North Central Association finds that over 94 per cent of the teachers of its fully accredited high schools are college graduates. Other studies show that those teaching in the seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school have even less training.

Equality Would Bring Closer Cooperation

A closely related factor is the matter of salary schedules. A differential of about $300 in annual salaries is paid the senior high school teachers, and the differences in maximum salaries is even greater. Is it any wonder then that senior high school teachers consider themselves as of a superior class and position when such differences obtain? These differences in training and salary tend to perpetuate the very want of articulation which has been so much deplored and which it is the aim of the junior high school as a transitional unit to obliterate. Equality of both training and salaries in these two units would undoubtedly go far in bringing about a closer cooperation.

The fourth and final barrier to articulation to which we shall give attention in this discussion is one of administration.

The belief prevails that the senior high school too often lacks, and is not disposed to seek, information in regard to the abilities, previous accomplishments, interests, and needs of entering junior-high-school students. Colleges are everywhere coming to recognize the need of an orientation program for their freshmen, but the junior-high-school pupil, who is much younger and infinitely in greater need of wise and sympathetic guidance at this crucial period of his school life, is often left to shift largely for himself, thus making the adjustment a pupil must make from one institution to the other an extremely difficult one.

Counselors for Bridging the High-School Gap

A system of counselors has been devised and used with success by a number of systems. As described by Miss M. M. Alltucker in "A counseling plan for bridging the gap between the junior and the senior high schools" (School Review, January, 1924), the plan involves the following features:

First, a cumulative data sheet, showing each pupil's scholarship record for the previous nine years, including a record of his achievement tests, his attendance, his attitude toward his work, his mental capacity, his age, his future plans, and any other significant social data useful in helping the senior high school to understand the needs of an incoming student and to help him to make an adjustment to his new situation.

Second, a counselor to be employed in each junior and senior high school. This counselor should be well trained in adolescent psychology, have a practical teaching experience, possess knowledge of mental testing and of the interpretation of case histories, be acquainted with vocational and educational opportunities and requirements, and have an appreciation of the conflicting situations and problems that are likely to confront a high-school student.

Counselors Must Cooperate Closely

Third, close cooperation of the counselors of the several interrelated schools. Frequent conferences and visits between the counselors and the principals of these schools should take place and the problems of each school should be cooperatively attacked and solved. The principal of the senior high school should meet frequently with the pupils of the junior high schools from which his school is recruited, and he should hold himself accessible to them at all times.

Fourth, a definite cooperative process to be developed by the related junior and senior high schools for making the study program for each pupil on the basis of individual need and capacity, and thus help him to make the transfer from one school to the other with the least possible break. Such a program would involve making the pupil and his parents thoroughly familiar with the various curricula the senior high school has to offer, the requirements for graduation in each, the specific objectives of each, essentials for matriculation in the various colleges, educational preparation demanded for the several vocations and professions, and other specific problems that the student will probably meet. The successful operation of this program would necessitate a printed manual of information and procedure for the use of parents and students, and a series of conferences between counselors and students, students and parents, and parents and counselors.

Despite all these efforts to bridge the gap between the junior and senior high school there will still be students who are maladjusted. The plan, therefore, involves as a fifth essential the necessity of a check up between the first report card and previous records made by this student. This check up should be followed by another series of conferences between counselors of both types of schools, and, where necessary, between counselors and pupils and parents.

Such a scheme of articulation between junior and senior high schools very clearly becomes a matter of cooperation not only in terms of generalities but in terms of individual boys and girls. The schools come to understand each other and the pupils and parents come to understand the interrelated objectives of a coordinated and unified school system.

Acquire "the Junior High School Idea"

If the junior high school is to achieve the transitional functions for which it has been called into being, and if it is to become an integrated unit of a unified system of education, we must acquire more adequately "the junior high school idea"; we must achieve a finer sympathy for it and better understanding of its functions; we must learn to cooperate in a scientific development of a correlated, continuous curriculum for both schools; we must recognize that the task of adjustment and orientation necessary when the pupil enters the senior high school is a problem mutual to the best interests of both schools; we must weld into one by means of equal training and salaries the teaching corps of these two units; and we must take advantage of every opportunity to study the problems of each unit through committees selected from both. Thus we shall effect an articulated, continuous, and unified process of education which shall have a scientific conception of the whole task, which shall achieve an unbiased division of labor between the various units of the system, and which shall cooperate sympathetically and understandingly in the solution of all its manifold problems.

Standing Committees Seem to Be Disappearing

Boards of education in many places have entirely abolished standing committees or have materially reduced the number of such committees, according to W. S. Deffenbaugh, chief city schools division of the United States Bureau of Education, in City School Leaflet No. 29. Of 25 cities of 100,000 or more population reporting to the bureau in 1917 and in 1927, 11 have in that time reduced the number of committees, and 9 have abolished them entirely or constituted the board as a committee of the whole. The average number of standing committees in the 25 cities was 6.5 in 1917, and 3.5 in 1927. Of 43 cities of 100,000 or more population reporting in 1917, only 3 did not have such committees; of 55 cities of this size reporting in 1927, 21 have no standing committees.

Pupils Permitted to Browse Among Books

"Browsing day" among public library books is a feature, every three or four weeks, in Longfellow School, Riverside, Calif. Pupils are allowed to choose their own time to browse, but the school work must be completed during the day. Generally about 100 appropriate books from the public library are arranged around the room. Each pupil is permitted to select 5 to 10 books which he thinks he might like to read. He makes out a list of books for future reading, noting the title, author, date of publication, kind of print, and number of pictures. The browsing frequently leads to discussion of a book, a picture, or a character, and the children thoroughly enjoy the day, so different from the usual routine.

Public-School Expenditures Doubled in Six Years

Expenditures for public schools throughout the country have almost doubled since 1920, as shown by statistics of State school systems, published as United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1927, No. 39. Total expenditures during the school year 1925–26 amounted to $2,026,308,190. This included cost of instruction, outlay for new buildings, sites, equipment, and administration. It represents an increase over 1924–25 of $80,211,278. In 1913 the cost of public schools per capita of average daily attendance was $38.31; in 1918 it had increased to $49.12; in 1920 to $64.16; in 1922 to $85.76; and in 1926 to $102.05.—*Frank M. Phillips.*

Musical and Theatrical Performances for Pupils

During the past 30 years the Central Association of Czechoslovak Professors arranged 380 representations for secondary school pupils in the National Theater of Prague and in two other theaters. Many representations must be arranged twice or thrice, for by one representation all students willing to attend can not be accommodated.

Since the year 1902 and up to 1924, 45 concerts also were arranged for the pupils. In the year 1924 an agreement was made with the great Czech Philharmonic Orchestra for presenting eight concerts for students every year. The costs of every concert are 6,000 kronen ($178); the costs of a dramatical representation in the National Theater are also 6,000 kronen; but the costs of an opera are 8,000 to 10,000 kronen ($235 to $296). Nearly all representations had good financial success, and therefore more than 350,000 kronen ($10,370) were given to good aims—for poor pupils.

The representations are arranged on free afternoons, the theatrical representations on some Wednesday afternoons, from 15 to 17½ o'clock, and the concerts on other days from 16½ to 18 o'clock.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

To Stimulate Reading in Oregon Schools

To enlarge the reading horizon of children of the State, the Oregon Children's Book League has been organized by the State superintendent of schools and the State library. The league at present is limited to one-room rural schools, but will be gradually extended to all elementary grades. A State superintendent's certificate will be awarded the child who reads one suitable book from designated lists each month of the school year. The scheme includes the awarding of other certificates and seals for definite reading. Of the 1,613 one-room rural schools in the State 316 are served by county libraries.

Organ Recitals for English School Children

A series of recitals of simple sacred music for school children has been instituted in Gloucester Cathedral, England. The innovation has the approval of the dean and of the local education committee; and music is selected, arranged, and played by the cathedral organist. Programs provided for the children's recitals give the names and dates of the great masters of music whose work is presented, with a brief explanation of each instrumental and vocal number.

Health Work by the Pennsylvania Parent-Teacher Associations

By MILDRED RUMBOLD WILKINSON

National Congress of Parents and Teachers

SIXTEEN preschool clinics were held in Erie County, Pa., during the summer of 1927 as a part of the "Summer round-up" conducted by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Local parent-teacher associations made the arrangements for the clinics and were instrumental in procuring the attendance of mothers with their children. The president of the Erie County Public Health Association was active in enlisting the aid of physicians and dentists, and nursing service was provided by the Erie Anti-Tuberculosis Society, and that society otherwise participated prominently in the work. Hospitals cooperated freely.

Two hundred and thirty-one children between the ages of 4 and 6 years, inclusive, were examined, and 659 defects were found. They were:

Eyes	44
Ears	11
Teeth	99
Tonsils:	
Slight	71
Serious	91
Nasal obstruction	23
Thyroid:	
Slight	20
Serious	2
Cervical glands:	
Slight	85
Serious	30
Nervous diseases	1
Heart	10
Lungs	13
Abdomen	4
Hernia	8
Genitalia	20
Skin	17
Posture	19
Orthopedic defects	6
Underweight (over 10 per cent)	50
Overweight (over 10 per cent)	12
Constipation	23
Total	659

Many Defects Not Previously Suspected

The parents of many of the children had no previous knowledge of the defects that were found, and other parents did not know how to proceed to remedy defects of which they knew. The examinations were closely followed up and the result was clearly noticeable in the better condition of the children admitted to school in September.

Special work along these lines has been done in many places in Erie County. With the approval of the school directors of the Mill Creek school district and with the indorsement of the parent-teacher associations and the teachers, the Anti-Tuberculosis Society placed one of its nurses in the district during the entire month of May to demonstrate the benefits of school nursing service. This resulted in the employment of a regular school nurse for the district.

Lebanon County has organized a model baby clinic to be a help and guide for young mothers. Each Thursday afternoon perambulators of all types can be seen in front of the Chamber of Commerce Building, in which the clinic is held. This is one of the leading clinics in the State.

Schools for Alaskan Natives are Well Taught

A visit to isolated coast settlements of Alaska to collect data concerning the physical types of the people of that region has recently been completed by Henry B. Collins, jr., of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C. "It was natural," Mr. Collins stated in reporting the trip, "to expect strange sights and new conditions, but of all the impressions received none stands out with such distinctness as the work that we saw done by the Bureau of Education schools. It appears to be uniformly successful. The feeling we had after staying a month at Nash Harbor village was that if all the Alaska schools are run as this one is they are indeed on a satisfactory basis. We found the children speaking surprisingly good English—even reciting poems and singing English songs—and obliging and well-mannered in the extreme. They and the adults as well showed a disposition so friendly and helpful that it could not have been brought about by any but the best treatment."

Purchase of standard school supplies through a central county agency is directed by law recently enacted in California. The law makes centralized purchasing through the county superintendent obligatory for all elementary school districts not within incorporated cities, and permissive for other elementary and high school districts.

Students, soldiers, and members of labor organizations will be admitted free to the gallery during the coming opera season in Chile. Biweekly performances will be given at popular prices for the whole house. The Government will thus make the best music available to the public.

Abraham Lincoln a Pioneer Youth in Indiana a Century Ago

A Tall and Awkward Young Man, Roughly Clothed in Skins. Early Years Were Spent in a Log Cabin of the Rudest Type, but Coming of Stepmother Led to Greater Comfort. Required to Do Hard Manual Labor, His Great Passion Was for Books. Excellent Progress During the Little Schooling He Enjoyed

By F. M. GREGG
Professor of Psychology, Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln, Nebr.

OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN the man we know much; his struggles as a lawyer; his debates with Douglas, "the Little Giant"; his services to his country; his statesmanship. But of Lincoln the schoolboy, of Lincoln at the formative period of life, our information is somewhat meager. The story of the youth of great men makes fascinating reading, and Lincoln's is no exception to the rule. Would that we knew more of the details of that life which so influenced the destiny of the Republic!

Habit of Reflection Developed Early

In imagination let us go back into the past a hundred years, to a settler's cabin about 30 miles northeast of Evansville, Ind. It is midwinter. Darkness has fallen upon the snow-clad land. The interior of the cabin is rude indeed. Stretched out upon the floor in front of the cavernous fireplace, where the logs are briskly burning, is a youth. A tattered, much-bethumbed book lies in front of him, in which he reads, from time to time, by the flickering firelight. The youth is Abraham Lincoln! It is his birthday, February 12, 1828. As he lies on an animal-skin rug on the puncheon floor by the fireplace on the cold day in February, he watches the darting flames, dreams of an uncertain future, and reflects upon a past that has had much of unhappiness, but also not a little of joy. This habit of dreamy introspection had set in with him at the dawn of adolescence and is said to have been inherited from his mother, Nancy Hanks Lincoln. While thus musing or while reading thoughtfully, Lincoln had long had the habit of thrusting his lower lip out over his upper one, a practice that in time resulted in giving his lower lip a rather marked prominence, which is apparent in pictures of him.

His clothing is typical of the times and of the pioneers among whom he lives. Homemade moccasins grace his feet, and his sharp, blue, and narrow shins lie fully exposed in the amazing interval between his moccasins and the lower end of his trousers. These latter are made of deerskin, commonly called "buckskin," secured from the wild deer of the forest. His coat, or "wamus," when he has it on, is of the same material, and his shirt is of linsey-woolsey. A cap of coonskin completes his wardrobe when he is up and going. No wonder the old dames of Gentryville, many years later, snickered when asked if they had ever received youthful attentions from Abraham Lincoln, for he it is whose birthday reflections we are now trying to reconstruct.

Grew Rapidly in Early Adolescence

Lincoln's adolescence set in early, for at 11 years of age he began to grow rapidly. His height was 6 feet 4 inches. He weighed 160 pounds, his limbs were long, and his hands and feet were large in proportion to his head and trunk. His skin was rather dark, sallow, and already somewhat wrinkled.

This birthday of Lincoln's was a fit occasion for him to think of his real mother, who had died when he was not yet 10 years old. The family had then been living in the Indiana woods a little more than two years, for they had come from Kentucky in the fall of 1816. The first year they lived in the "half-faced camp," a three-walled shed of poles, with a camp fire on the open side, and then in the cabin in which he spent his nineteenth birthday. But when his mother was living, there was only a hard, dirt floor; no windows in this 18-foot-square cabin, and only two openings for doors, which were covered by hanging deerskins. In the winter time it was the custom among these early pioneers to hitch an ox to a short log, remove the skin rugs from the floor, set back the three-legged stools, and drag the log into the house by leading the animal through the two doors. The log was then rolled into position before the fireplace, the rugs replaced, the stools reset, and "comfort" once more reigned in the house.

Mother's Death Caused by Pioneer Malady

Nancy Hanks Lincoln had been a rather sickly, hollow-chested, and sad woman, thoughtful, but rather forceless, as shown by her inability to obtain the better home conditions from her somewhat careless husband which her vigorous successor in the home extracted from him in later years. But she was affectionate, virtuous, and pious. In 1818, there came to Pigeon Creek Valley the "milk-sick," a disease due to a poison gotten by milch cows from eating certain forest weeds, which took off many of the pioneers and their cattle as well. Naney Hanks, after having seen some of her relatives die from the disease, herself fell a victim to the malady and lay for a week on her crude bed in the corner of the cabin, with one end of each of the bed's two supports

Monument to Lincoln's mother erected by the Indiana Historical Society

fastened to the cabin walls and the other ends resting on a forked stick thrust into the ground. Just before dying she put her hands on the heads of Abraham and Sarah, the latter two years older than Abraham almost to a day, and enjoined them to be good to one another, to love their kindred, and to worship God; and then passed away.

All this Abraham recalled in after years and he also remembered that upon the death of his mother, his father sawed the lumber for a crude coffin, and with

Home of Abraham Lincoln for 13 years

the help of a few neighbors, buried the body on the summit of the first knoll to the south, about a third of a mile from the Lincoln cabin, and that on returning from the burial of their mother, Sarah and he became the keepers of the wretched home for the next 14 months. He recalled, too, what a great event it was for that cabin when, following a "siege of one day," back in Thomas Lincoln's old Kentucky neighborhood, his father persuaded the widow, Sarah Bush Johnson, mother of three children, to become his wife, after he had paid her debts amounting to $12. He particularly remembered that on their arrival, with a wagon load of real furniture and feather beds, he and Sarah and the cabin got a cleaning up such as they had never experienced before, and that a floor, doors, and windows had to go into the log house at once. Conditions were then soon made comfortable and happy for the family of five children, plus Dennis Hanks, a second cousin to Abe and Sarah.

Real Affection for Stepmother

Lincoln could not forget that real affection quickly sprang up between the new mother and the two step children. She saw to it that they had the advantages of whatever school privileges the neighborhood afforded. When Abraham was 10 and Sarah 12, a school was started about 2½ miles from their home, at the newly developed village of Joncsboro, a hamlet which later on was shifted three-quarters of a mile to the southeast, and was called Gentryville, a town which Lincoln did not see until he returned there from Illinois in 1844, on a political campaign for Henry Clay. That school was quite certainly the place of the first and second schools attended by Abraham and Sarah in Indiana. The schoolhouse, built of round logs, was just high enough for a man to stand erect under the loft. The floor was of split logs, or what were called puncheons. The chimney was constructed of poles and clay, and the windows were made by cutting out parts of two logs, placing in some slats and then fastening on pieces of greased paper to admit the light.

One of Abe's friends, Mr. Herndon, records that "at school Abe evinced ability enough to give him a permanent place in the respect of his teacher and the affection of his schoolfellows. He always appeared very quiet during playtime; never was idle, and seemed to have a liking for solitude; he was often chosen to adjust difficulties betweeen boys of his age or size, and when appealed to, his decision was the end of the trouble. He was always at school early and was always at the head of his class. He kept up his studies on Sundays and carried his books with him to work so that he might read when he rested from his labor."

Helped to Build Primitive Church

As he lay on the floor, on that memorable 12th of February, Lincoln doubtless recalled his connection with the Primitive Baptist Church, which stood on the Troy-Vincennes road, a mile to the south of his father's cabin. The church was known as Pigeon Church, so called because of the multitude of pigeons that made a rendezvous in the valley of Pigeon Creek, a stream a mile or more to the northwest. The church had been built, partly by his carpenter father's help, when Abe was about 13 years of age, and was the first church in that part of the country. In June of the next year his father had become a member by letter and his stepmother on confession of faith. Abe had been present at the baptising of his mother near the Troy-Vincennes Ford on Little Pigeon Creek, 3 miles west, and was greatly impressed with the ceremony and its significance, though he himself never joined the church.

Abe was 14 years old before his next opportunity for schooling came along. Andrew Crawford was his teacher, and a most successful one he was. Under Crawford's stimulation Abe became the best speller and penman in all the country. Here, also, he started "speaking pieces," and this practice he kept up all through his youth.

In school in his fourteenth year young Lincoln had for his textbooks The American Speller, Webster's Blue-Backed Speller, Pike's Arithmetic, and Murray's

Lincoln Park, Lincoln City, Ind., which contains the burial place of Nancy Hanks Lincoln

English Reader. It was in Crawford's school that he became interested in composition. He wrote with chalk and charcoal all over the smooth places on logs in the woods, and on the home log cabin, as well as on the freshly shaved back of the wooden fire shovel. On account of his ability in spelling, penmanship, and composition, he was often called upon to write letters for people in the neighborhood.

After his successes at the Crawford school, Lincoln's next term did not open for him until he was in his seventeenth year. In the meantime, however, he gained a mastery of Æsop's Fables, Robinson Crusoe, Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, a History of the United States, and Weem's Life of Washington. Then there came to his hands a copy of Franklin's Autobiography, a life of Henry Clay, and Robert Burns's poems; the Bible had been read to him and by him all through these formative years.

Thomas Lincoln and his son Abraham helped to build Old Pigeon Church

The school that he last attended was conducted by an itinerant teacher; and he had to walk 4½ miles to it. The distance, combined with the frequent calls for work by his father and neighbors, made his attendance intermittent and consequently without profit.

Showed No Enthusiasm for Hard Work

While much of Lincoln's youth was spent in heavy labors, such as clearing land, breaking new ground, pulling fodder, butchering hogs, and building cabins, he manifested no enthusiasm for hard work. His father desired him to follow his own trade of carpentry, but Abe had no interest in it. His devotion to reading and acting as scribe for illiterate neighbors was disappointing to his father. His father's insistence on continuous manual labor did not intensify Abe's paternal affections. There was a slight tendency toward estrangement between them. In earlier years Abe's persistent questioning of passing strangers led, on one occasion, to his being rudely cuffed by his father.

At this juncture let us view the simple pioneer setting in which Lincoln's youth was dramatized. As we have said, his "home town" was Jonesboro. It was 2½ miles west from the Lincoln cabin to Jones's store, the center of the pioneer village. There were two reasons why Jonesboro came to be located where it was. One of these was that at this point the wagon road from Rockport, 20 miles south on the Ohio River, met the Troy-Vincennes trail not far from the ford over Pigeon Creek.

Another reason for the selection of this location was that here was a long knoll overlooking the valley of Pigeon Creek, well adapted as a setting for a hamlet. From the foot of the knoll there issued eight springs which supplied an abundance of potable water. Then along the north and west sides of the knoll was a rather marked escarpment, useful in defense from attacks by the Indians. On this knoll, in still earlier times, the Indians and even the mound builders must have had a rendezvous, as may be judged by the number of arrowheads and other relics of older peoples that are found over the top of the knoll. It was a small pioneer hamlet consisting of not more than a dozen cabins, the most important of which were the log schoolhouse, Jones's house and store and large log barn, and the house of the doctor who sought to cure his patients with strong medicines made from the roots and leaves of native plants. The medico advised everybody to drink sassafras tea in the spring time, in order to "thin his blood."

Lincoln's boyhood wanderings took him occasionally to the Ohio River, the great highway into the Mississippi Valley. For several years he was a visitor to Jones's store, where he read the weekly copy of the Louisville Gazette and other papers that occasionally drifted in. Some years prior to his birthday, an abolition paper was started in a city within a hundred miles of his home, and copies of this journal certainly came to his attention. Whatever the background, about a year before his nineteenth birthday, Lincoln wrote an essay on "Our Government" which attracted the attention of Judge John Pitcher, of Rockport, the county seat.

Eager for Access to Library

Three years before Lincoln's birthday, a large group of immigrants passed through Jonesboro on their way to inaugurate a communist settlement at New Harmony, about 60 miles west. A year after that, Robert Owen, the founder, passed down the Ohio with a boatload of supplies and a great library for the settlement. The establishment of the library interested Abe very much, for the greatest desire of his life was to have a chance to read books. He could have gone to the school at New Harmony for $100 a year by working for his board, but his father did not care to have him do so, and besides they did not have the $100. Deprived of the use of the library at New Harmony, Abe kept on borrowing all the books, far and wide, in his own neighborhood.

Considered Alcoholic Beverages a Curse

Customs of people, good and bad, always impressed Lincoln greatly. Among these was the common custom of drinking liquor. His own father had brought 400 gallons of whisky with him from Kentucky 12 years before, and while not a drunkard, Thomas Lincoln often shared a glass with his neighbors. Abe had seen enough of drinking to convince him that alcoholic beverages were a curse to any people. A few years before this time he had listened to a traveling reformer and had been the only one to sign a temperance pledge at one of the lecturer's meetings. A short time after that he wrote an essay on "Temperance," a simple literary production that was printed in a weekly paper and received great approbation from the Pigeon Church preacher.

(*To be continued in the March number of* School Life.)

For book service in isolated sections of Arkansas, a donation of $4,500 has been made by a national sorority to the Arkansas Free Library Service Bureau.

Parent-Teacher Organization in Chester County, Pennsylvania

By MRS. WALTER E. GREENWOOD
Treasurer Pennsylvania Congress of Parents and Teachers

WITH A NUCLEUS of fewer than 10 organizations, a county parent-teacher unit was formed in the county of Chester, Pa., about 10 years ago. It continues to function in a most efficient way, and it now creates its own momentum.

We are not surprised, after hearing the idea of county organization advanced at a State convention of parent-teacher associations, to learn that our county superintendent of schools was thinking along similar lines. Being a man of vision with progressive ideas, he had early seen the possibilities of the associations then in existence. He desired to create sentiment for consolidated schools in our county, and gratefully welcomed the suggestion to multiply the parent-teacher associations by forming a county council.

In arranging a meeting to organize for county work, the superintendent's office supplied the invitations (which included the program and information concerning train schedules), envelopes, and postage; the hostess organization supplied a lunch at a nominal sum and paid the expenses of speakers, one of whom was our present national president, Mrs. A. H. Reeve, then acting as chairman of country life on the national board.

Local Associations Represented by Delegates

Every local association in the county was invited to send two delegates; all local superintendents and principals and teachers were invited, and from districts where there was no association interested patrons were urged to attend. The response was almost overwhelming.

For obvious reasons Saturday was chosen for this first meeting; and because this work needs the constant interest and cooperation of our teachers and schoolmen, all meetings since then have been held on Saturdays.

Before adjournment for lunch a motion was unanimously carried that a permanent county organization be formed; committees on by-laws and resolutions were appointed, which met during the noon recess and reported at the afternoon session. As a slogan, "A home and school league in every school of our county" was adopted. A year of energetic organization followed, with the county president, members of her board, and the county superintendent and his three assistants as organizers. The booklet of the national congress "How to organize" was a useful guide.

Through the cooperation of our county newspapers the work of the associations was kept constantly before the public. At every local meeting a prominent place on the program was given to the advantage of having a parent-teacher association in each school in the county, and stressing the achievements and progress of the associations then in existence.

The problem of getting parent-teacher association work to the isolated districts was solved by organizing a township association in the strongest or most progressive school in that township; then having the officers, after studying the literature of State and national organizations, to hold meetings in the other schools of that township, arranging the programs with the teachers.

Experience has shown that new associations were greatly strengthened by joining the State and national organizations. It made for efficiency and continuance. Incalculable benefit comes from the guidance and inspiration of the experienced officers of the larger organizations and from the knowledge that a source of help and information is always available.

Sometimes two or more schools in a township united to form one parent-teacher association, meeting alternately at the different schools; but sometimes trouble arose over the distribution of financial aid, and it was found necessary for each school to have its own association. Even in the same township the problems of the various communities were very different, so that an independent organization in each school proved best for all concerned.

Surprising Growth of Local Organizations

With keen interest on the part of the educators, great energy on the part of the executive board of the county association, constant cooperation from the superintendent's office, and enthusiastic response from school patrons throughout the county, it is not surprising that our local organizations grew to 110 local units, with a membership of between 5,000 and 6,000, raising between $4,000 and $5,000 annually to improve educational facilities for our boys and girls.

Progressive educational ideas were constantly brought before these local organizations and consolidated schools began to spring up. To-day there are 4 vocational schools, 5 partially consolidated schools, and 10 fully consolidated schools in Chester County; 57 one-room schools have been closed. Doing away with 57 one-room schools necessarily lessened the number of local associations but did not lessen the total membership.

Two county conventions are held annually—one in the early fall in the outlying districts not so easy of access, to which delegates travel by automobiles; and the other in late winter in the densely populated places which are reached by trains and trolleys or by busses. Since our county was organized we have twice entertained the State convention.

Membership Fees Are Purely Nominal

A tax of 3 cents per capita (no association paying less than $1), with life memberships at $10 and associate memberships at $1 annually, enables the county parent-teacher association to carry on and to meet its financial obligations.

The present county superintendent of schools asserts freely that "The Home and School League, as it has been working in our county, has done more to create public sentiment in favor of educational advancement than any other single organization or group of organizations in the county." It is not too much to say that the achievements of the county organization are due in great measure to the aid and stimulation of the State and national organizations. Each of the three county presidents has been a member of the State Board of the Pennsylvania Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Large Proportion of Mexicans in Public Schools

Mexican children composed about half the total enrollment of 1,280 pupils in public elementary schools of Santa Paula, Calif., during the school year 1926–27. Many of the Mexican pupils were brought in under the compulsory education law, which requires all children to attend school to the age of 16. Because of language handicap, it was necessary to segregate about 42 per cent of the total enrollment, all Mexican children. The average retardation of Mexican pupils was 90 per cent, as compared with an average for native American children of 34 per cent.

Of the graduates of New York State normal schools and teachers' colleges in the past six years, it is known that 94.25 per cent taught the year after graduation, and that 96.42 per cent of those who taught were employed in the schools of the State of New York. The relatively small number not recorded as teaching includes those who are continuing their studies, those who were unable to find positions, those who failed to report their movements, and those who married or died.

New Books in Education

By JOHN D. WOLCOTT
Librarian, Bureau of Education

BOOK, WILLIAM F. How to succeed in college. Baltimore, Warwick & York, Inc., 1927. 192 p. tables. 12°.

In beginning his report of this study, the author, who is head of the Department of psychology at Indiana university, calls the attention recently given to the investigation of individual differences in mental endowment and to the scientific measurement of such differences, the greatest single contribution which psychology has made to educational theory and practice during the past decade. But of even greater importance, perhaps, is the individual's ability to use all his endowments and powers in an effective way when confronted by his tasks. The chief aims of the present study, which is based on an investigation of methods of work of Indiana university freshmen during three years, are to define the more important factors which condition a student's success in college and in later life, to ascertain what adjustments college students are now making to these elements in a successful life, and lastly to determine the extent to which college students may be assisted in making a better adjustment to all these factors in a special "how to study" or orientation course.

DOWNEY, JUNE E. The kingdom of the mind. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. ix, 207 p. illus., diagrs. 12°. (The Young people's shelf of science, ed. by Edwin E. Slosson.)

The Young People's Shelf of Science series aims to present modern views of the several sciences in a comprehensive and attractive form for people in their teens and over. This volume by Dr. Downey, professor of psychology in the University of Wyoming, is designed to teach a boy to know himself, as Socrates advised.

FLEXNER, ABRAHAM. Do Americans really value education? Cambridge, Harvard university press, 1927. 49 p. 16°. (Inglis lectures in secondary education, 1927.)

The intellectual factor in education is emphasized by the author of this lecture. He asks whether Americans value scholarship in the sense in which he believes it can be fairly said that scholarship is valued and honored in certain other countries which he names. Do we attach distinction to the capacity for severe intellectual application as such, quite apart from its material rewards and applications? He thinks both these questions must at this time, as a general thing, be answered in the negative. The writer therefore finds a serious deficiency in the American appreciation of education—a failure to value scholarship and the capacity for severe and disinterested intellectual effort, and gives his reasons for this view.

FOSTER, HERBERT H. High-school administration. New York and London, The Century Co. [1928]. xvii, 665 p. tables, diagrs. 12°. (The Century education series.)

The aim of this book is not primarily to contribute either new devices or new principles of high-school administration, but to synthesize current practice with a commonly accepted philosophy of education. It opens with a discussion of ideals and aims and an explication of ten fundamental principles of secondary-school administration. It next deals with the high-school principalship and the teaching staff, the pupils and their needs, the curriculum, and the school life. Finally, it goes thoroughly into the problems of management, high-school finances, the keeping of records and reports, and the external relationships of the high school. Much attention is given to the problems of the small high school. The volume is equipped with suggested problems for class discussion, diagrams, and charts, and specimens of school records and reports. The appendices include a full bibliography, an account of the Dalton plan, and other helpful material.

GRUENBERG, BENJAMIN C., *ed.* Outlines of child study; a manual for parents and teachers. Rev. Edited by Benjamin C. Gruenberg for the Child study association of America, with an introduction by Edward L. Thorndike. New York, The Macmillan company, 1927. xxii, 289 p. 12°.

In this new edition of the Outlines, the contents have been rearranged to agree more closely with the sequence of topics in "Guidance of childhood and and youth," a volume of selected readings in child study which was published last year. The reading references have been revised by inclusion of the new literature on the subject.

HAWKES, HERBERT E. College—what's the use? Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday, Page & company, 1927. v, 143 p. 12°.

From the results of many years experience in dealing with students in Columbia college, Dean Hawkes relates in these pages, in an informal way, some of his attempts to aid in solving the personal problems of these young men, involving questions relating to heredity, capacity, ambitions, and weak spots of character as well as strong ones. He discusses the reasons why one should go to college, the failures of boys in college, fitting college to the boy, and why parents fail. The subjects of financial handicaps, requisites for success, athletics, fraternities, and religion of college students are also considered, together with the matters of college pranks and discipline. Finally, the Dean answers the charge of H. G. Wells that college years are wasted for American youth.

PATTERSON, HERBERT. Ethics of achievement: an introduction to character education. Boston, Richard G. Badger, The Gorham press [1927]. 482 p. tables. 12°.

Noting that the study of ethics is becoming more general every year, the author has produced this work, which is in textbook form, but is intended also to interest the general reader. It is a fairly comprehensive, nontechnical introduction to the problems of character education. Throughout the book, the topics of paragraphs are put in the form of questions, a method of treatment which will probably prove stimulating to thinking even when the suggested solutions to the problems are not accepted. Twelve chapters are included which give the ethical views of certain great moral leaders and teachers of mankind. Those selected for this purpose are Confucius, Plato, Aristotle, Epicurus, Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius, Spinoza, Kant, Schopenhauer, Spencer, Nietzsche, and Jesus. The book aims to be helpful to the reader in formulating a working philosophy of life.

PROCTOR, WILLIAM MARTIN, *ed.* The junior college: its organization and administration. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford university press, 1927. x, 226 p. tables, charts. 8°.

Nine of the 12 contributors to this volume are actively connected as teachers or executives with public junior colleges in California. These collaborators represent every type of junior college—the city junior college, the large rural junior college, the small union junior college, the junior college connected with a teachers college, as well as other varieties. Various phases of administration and organization of junior colleges are discussed by these writers from their particular points of view. Mr. Proctor, professor of education in Stanford university, has edited the volume, to which President Wilbur of Stanford university contributes an introduction. The marked growth of the junior college movement in recent years, especially in California, is described, and the need of proper guidance and direction for the future development of this movement is set forth. The book also shows the important public services rendered by the junior colleges. It is hoped that the treatment here given will be of value to persons interested in the junior college in other states as well as in California.

SHEEHAN, MARY A. Extra-curricular activities in a junior high school. Boston, Richard G. Badger, The Gorham press [1927] 181 p. illus., tables. 12°.

This book aims to discuss outstanding extra-curricular activities from a theoretical and a practical standpoint, considering not only the why, but also the how. Illustrative material is drawn from the Washington Junior High School of Rochester, N. Y., which has from its beginning served as an experimental school in the development of junior high school procedure. The author wishes to put the experience of her school at the service of others dealing with the same problems. All phases of extracurricular activities, except athletics, are discussed in detail in this account. Space is given to the health education section only which concerns every teacher.

TONKS, HELEN L. Psychological foundations of teaching. New York, Globe book company [1927] xi, 212 p. 12°.

This book discusses those principles of psychology which assist the teacher to devise and to evaluate methods of teaching. On the theoretic side, the treatment is purposely limited, in order both to avoid contentious theoretic discussion and to enlarge its usefulness as a guide to practice. A set of problems and a bibliography are given at the end of each chapter. The author has had extensive experience in teaching in New York City—formerly in the public schools and in the Ethical culture school, and now with the department of education of Hunter college.

WHIPPLE, HELEN DAVIS. Making citizens of the mentally limited; a curriculum for the special class. Bloomington, Ill., Public school publishing company [1927] vi, 374 p. 12°.

Several years of experience as director of special education in the city schools of Jackson, Mich., and later as supervisor of special classes in the State of Wisconsin, have convinced Mrs. Whipple that the present scarcity of materials of instruction in the literature on the subnormal has seriously handicapped the special-class teacher, and has led to wide divergencies in the kind, amount, and suitability of the training given to subnormal children. This book has therefore been prepared in order to systematize procedure, and embodies a curriculum presenting a composite of the best practices of the best special-class teachers whom she has observed, and at the same time conforming to the principles which psychologists agree should govern the training of the subnormal.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1928

Schools Must Solve the Problems of Our National Life

UR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM must be directed and operated in such a manner that our democracy may grow and approach perfection. We must develop a trained electorate. This means universal education, protracted education, education for leading and following, education for self-discipline. We must also insure national well-being. Therefore earning and spending, producing and saving, extension of present improvements and the development of new conservation of life and resource, and achievement of potentialities, are paramount problems of the school. We must stimulate self-government. Here our school system is at once a cause and an effect, an instrument and an object moved. We must see that our towns, our cities, our localities, are not objects of derision, but examples of proper administration. Most clearly our argument points to the importance of the institution for the training of teachers and the laboratory of research. Our schools must be in the best of hands.

—*William F. Russell.*

Intelligent Occupation a Part of the True Educational Process

THERE still exists a widespread misunderstanding of the whole process that we call education. There is a popular notion that somehow, somewhere, and at some time it is formally begun and then formally finished. Nothing could be further from the fact. It is a constant and continuous adjustment of human organism to human environment, to the end that the human organism may be enriched and perfected and the human environment understood, penetrated, and advanced by persistent and lofty human effort. The only difference between the educational process in infancy, in adolescence, and in mature life is that the human organism constantly strengthens its powers of resistance and constantly increases its powers of control. Intelligent occupation itself is as much a part of the true educational process as is study in classrooms, in library, or in laboratory. * * * Education declines to assume that human experience begins anew with the birth of each child and that life must be begun all over again in a sort of symbolic Garden of Eden in the history of each individual human being. Education worthy of the name holds to the profound and fundamental truth that human experience has already come a very long way from its crude and simple beginnings and that what has been gained so painfully and at so great cost through the long ages, each new child is entitled to be helped to know, in order to shorten the time that he is to be enslaved to ignorance and in order to lengthen the time and to strengthen the weapons in which and by which he is to gain true knowledge and use it. Information is the raw material of knowledge, and knowledge is the beginning of wisdom but not more than that.

—*Nicholas Murray Butler.*

SCHOOL LIFE

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OUTDOOR EXPERIENCES CHARACTERIZE CUBAN KINDERGARTENS

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Unification of Secondary Education the Outstanding Need

Secondary Schools of the United States in Process of Reorganization. Extraordinary Success in Reaching and Holding Large Proportion of Population Has Made Difficult the Realization of Other Aims. Great Diversity of Practice Has Arisen. Setting Up of Three Distinct Classes of Institutions to be Deplored. Common Administration of Secondary School Units Favorable to Continuous Curriculum

By EUSTACE E. WINDES

Assistant Professor of Secondary Education, University of Virginia

AN AUTOIST observing the arm signal of a driver in the traffic stream just ahead said to his companion, "What is he going to do now?" His companion replied, "It is perfectly clear. He will either go straight ahead, turn right, turn left, stop, or back up." The observable signals of secondary education practice in the United States at the present time are similarly clear. Based on observation, certain students of comparative education in the rôle of critic have charged that we have no directive purposes in secondary education; that in comparison with certain European systems of secondary education we are turning into colleges and upon society puling intellects having little desire for further learning and small capacity for self-direction when faced with learning tasks. To the latter charge we probably shall have to plead guilty. In fact, we pass the charge back and forth daily among ourselves. The senior high school charges the junior school with passing up to it an inferior product. The college criticizes the senior high school in the same way. Within the schools, teachers make the same assertions concerning the instruction of the next preceding grade or course.

Motivating Concept in Apparent Confusion

To the charge that we have no directive purposes, however, we make denial. The diligent seeker of relationships can cut through the apparent confusion of practice and find a motivating concept that explains the turmoil. That concept is of the secondary school as a vital institution of a democratic social order—an order conceived as a dynamic force stimulating and cooperating with the individual in his efforts to secure the satisfactions of worthy living, that these efforts may result in powers and capacities and attitudes which will in turn so play upon the social order as to make it a more efficient, stimulating, and cooperating force. There is implicit in this concept a responsibility of the school to each individual as an individual. A responsibility to improve the social order, and itself as a creative rather than regulatory agency, is equally implicit. The school of a democratic state can never become static. It must be in continued transition.

Variant Practices are Easily Classified

Responsive to this concept, secondary schools of the United States are in process of reorganization. The variant practices of the present, moreover, are easily classified as gropings in an effort to realize these purposes:

1. To reach and enroll in secondary schools all children of secondary school age.
2. To give to individual pupils enrolled proper rates of progress in learning.
3. To secure for individual pupils enrolled desirable educational outcomes.
4. To provide and use efficiently the means for accomplishing the three preceding purposes.

These purposes, of themselves, are somewhat implicit in their suggestion of appropriate means. We are not lacking, however, in more specific statements of purpose. It is necessary only to mention the formulations of the Kingsley committee; those of Koos, of Bobbitt, and of various curriculum committees of recent years.

Difficulties Growing Out of Success

Our outstanding achievement to date must be recorded as that of extending secondary education to a larger percentage of the population of secondary school age. We have, in a generation, reduced the degree of selection from the potential secondary school population from a ratio of approximately one in ten to a near approach to a ratio of one in two. This has been accomplished both through reaching a higher percentage of the potential secondary school population, and through holding those reached a longer period of time.

Our remarkable success in this direction has made our realization of the other named purposes exceedingly difficult. It has resulted in a broadened range of inherent ability to learn in the secondary pupil population, a broadened range of learning status at entrance, and a broadened range of appropriate specific purposes in life for which individuals should be educated. The broadening of range of ability and of learning status has come about largely through accretions to the low ends of the ranges of the distributions with a consequent lowering of the central tendencies of the distributions.

To maintain standards of accomplishment, provide for suitable progress in learning by individuals, and for appropriate special learnings under these conditions has proved to be no easy task.

Publication sponsored by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, J. B. Edmonson, chairman.

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In part the difficulties are those inherent to discovery of effective educational means even though the ends be clearly defined. In part the difficulties arise from controls in the forms of arbitrary standards imposed in good faith at an earlier day when a philosophic guess was all that was possible. In part they arise because men become enamored of institutions rather than institutional products.

Collectively, these difficulties have bred a diversity of practice that is making secondary education of to-day needlessly inefficient, and justifying, in some measure at least, the phrase heard not infrequently, "Conspiracy in educational retardation." Before we make substantial progress toward those aims concerned with quality of educational products and efficiency of process, we must cut through the present turmoil to unity in at least three important aspects which are here discussed in order.

A Unit Secondary School

We have agreed that our task calls for an extended secondary school. We are engaged in extending the secondary school downward, horizontally, and upward. Unfortunately we have proceeded through setting up three distinct institutions, i. e., the segregated junior high school, the segregated senior high school, and the segregated junior college. We have insisted upon separate administration of these institutions and a fixed number of years during which the pupil shall be subject to each. Each administration is suspicious of the good judgment of the other. Each higher school attempts to fix the conditions of instruction in the next lower. Each lower school resists attempts to dictate. As we apportion different levels of secondary education to special instructions, we break the continuity of learning. We duplicate machinery; we duplicate instruction. We set the stage for sacrificing pupils and the social order in the interest of special institutions. We divide our house against itself, and slow down the process of transition toward an institution which can function efficiently.

Segregated Schools Have Retarded Progress

Insistence upon segregated schools at the different levels of secondary education and application of a time-serving 6–3–3–2 formula has materially slowed down the reorganization movement in secondary education. The movement has made little progress in the South because of the belief that if the 6–3–3 formula could not be applied the 7–4 formula might as well be retained. In other geographic regions, prior to the past four years, the dictum that a junior high school must be a segregated school confined the movement toward an extended period of secondary education largely to cities of over 100,000 population. During the past four years, however, the smaller school communities have begun to establish joint junior-senior schools and undivided 5 and 6 year schools, with good results.

The movement has spread until the joint and undivided types of extended secondary schools outnumber the segregated schools by approximately 2 to 1. It is a movement toward unity that is well considered. When we can similarly break down the barriers between senior high school and junior college, we shall have a situation which will make possible the earlier and essential purposes of an extended secondary education period. These purposes were: Earlier introduction to secondary education providing a better kind of education for the years of early adolescence; improvement of the quality of secondary education; and earlier termination of preparatory education in the interest of earlier entrance of youth upon productive employment or professional and technical education.

Continuous Secondary School Curriculum

With common administration of secondary school units a continuous curriculum providing real sequences in subject matter becomes a possibility. The facts of duplication of subject matter at the various levels of secondary education are well known. So long as each institution mixes general and special education, permits pupils to begin special education at the secondary education level served by it, and assumes that instruction in the special field at the preceding level is worthless, duplication must continue. Subject matter sequences which challenge pupil power and promote further learning become an impossibility. This condition is primarily responsible for pupil loss of will to learn, and the fact that our pupil product lacks intellectual power.

The learning retardation and effect on pupil attitude toward learning tasks resulting from this situation are serious. Of recent years the situation has become more serious because of the tremendous overlapping in individual courses within each institution, which is a resultant of the multiplication of special courses of ill-defined content, and efforts at curriculum construction which appear to assume that any body of subject matter which has been made systematic becomes academic, formal, and undesirable as a means of education of adolescents.

The combined effect of special institutions, multiplications of courses, and abandonment of subject divisions of knowledge is resulting in a teaching process that is becoming more and more concerned with items of experience and rarely reaches the point of organization of experience. Essentially we appear to be failing to extend secondary education downward or upward or in any direction. We appear to be extending elementary education to undreamed of proportions. We need to find unity in secondary school curricula.

Outright State Support of Secondary Schools

The tremendous popularity of secondary education, its extended scope, its growing complexity and consequent mounting costs demand outright State support of secondary schools.

Secondary schools vary not only because of lack of agreement upon appropriate means of instruction but because their administration is of necessity a compromise between theory and possible practices as conditioned by financial support. So long as the lower levels of secondary education are conditioned by the ability and willingness of local communities to contribute funds, those communities which provide liberally and maintain comparatively superior schools must continue to pay the price of pupil retardation when their pupils are mingled at the higher levels with those from poorly supported and inefficient institutions.

There is reason, also, for the expressed fear of thoughtful men that we can not as a Nation support a system of universal secondary education if we hold to our present system of financial support. Tremendous as maintenance costs must become as we further extend secondary education, we conceivably could pay the direct costs of maintenance. The direct costs of maintenance, however, are not the principal costs. The costs that we shall probably discover we can not sustain are the costs to the social order arising from continually holding out of productive employment higher and higher percentages of youth of ages 14 to 20.

Equalization Formulae Fail to Equalize

We recognize clearly the duty of the State to equalize the burden of school support and to enforce standards which presumably guarantee a certain minimum quality of instruction. For these purposes we evolve complicated equalization formulæ and provide subventions for special educational activities. Our formulæ always fail to equalize and our subventions frequently provoke a spread of local resources over such a range of activities that all are ineffective. With peculiar stubbornness, however, we refuse to adopt the obviously desirable principle of outright State support.

If the secondary school can shorten the period of preparatory training through

unified administration, continuous curricula that provide real learning sequences and comparable quality of instruction in individual schools made possible through adequate financial support from the State, direct compensation for extension of secondary education to higher percentages of the population will have been provided. If these achievements maintain present-time requirements of secondary education, or even extend those requirements, the burden can be borne, provided more real learning is secured in a given period of time and provided that learning is an asset to individuals in producing goods of worth. In either case we can continue our program in confidence.

Fifth Celebration of Child Health Day

May Day, or Child Health Day, will be celebrated for the fifth season this year. Like "clean-up" day and other such annual occasions it offers a poor substitute for all-the-year-round efforts for child welfare, but it is far better than no recognition of this subject, and it leads in time to more thorough-going work.

Thirty-three national agencies have cooperated in securing the appropriate celebration of the day, and the report of the American Child Health Association, which originated the idea, states that the day was celebrated last year in every State and in Hawaii.

Though not confined to children of school age, in many cities and in rural regions its celebration brought with it the physical examination of all children in the public schools.

The American Child Health Association has issued a May Day Festival book containing suggestions for appropriate pageants and programs, and it has also published attractive posters for the occasion.—*James F. Rogers, M. D.*

Foreign Mothers Taught in Their Own Homes

Provision for instruction in English in their own homes for foreign mothers has been made by the board of education of Pittsburgh, Pa. Groups will be formed to meet in different homes, and short lessons will be given once a week by specially trained teachers. Books and working materials will be furnished by the board of education. Every effort will be made to acquaint the women with educational and welfare facilities of the city, community houses, libraries, health clinics in hospitals, mothers' meetings in schools, and other community agencies.

Purposes of the Conference on Rural Teacher Training

Adequate Preparation of Teachers for the Specific Task of Teaching in Rural Communities and Placement of Teachers Which Will Take into Account the Training They Have Received are Problems that Press for Recognition

By JNO. J. TIGERT

United States Commissioner of Education

THERE are from time to time certain problems which are vital to the progress of education but which are either entirely neglected or interest in them is momentary and sporadic. It has been the practice of the United States Bureau of Education to call attention to such problems and to sponsor a concerted and scientific attack upon them. After this has been achieved the activity is as far as possible turned over to interested groups to be conducted on their own responsibility.

One of the problems pressing for recognition is that of adequately preparing teachers for the specific task of teaching in rural communities and of effecting a placement of the teachers trained which will take into account the specific type of training they have received. In the maladjustment between the teachers' training and the positions they eventually fill the rural schools have undoubtedly suffered most. It is for the purpose of finding a better adjustment between the various phases of teacher training and teacher placement that this conference has been called. Many related problems are of necessity involved. The following are probably the most important:

(1) State-wide knowledge of the number of teaching positions for which special preparation is needed.

(2) Kind of courses or curricula to be given in agreement with the work of such positions.

(3) Knowledge of the number of annual replacements in the several types of positions to be used as a basis for the establishment of facilities which will insure a sufficient number of trained teachers for each type and avoid a surplus in any one.

(4) Guidance within teacher-training institutions in the selection of curricula by students. Giving consideration to individual preferences and abilities and to the necessity of harmonizing the enrollment in specialized curricula with the forecast of the State's need as revealed by the studies of necessary replacements, and thus insuring that when courses are completed there will be enough trained persons available for the positions and enough positions of the types for which persons are trained.

(5) Intelligent plans for placement of the trained personnel to avoid placing persons who have been trained for a certain type of work in positions which need another type of training.

(6) Follow-up work from teacher-preparing institutions such as will enable the institution to keep in touch with the success and failure of its graduates and to consider these practical results in the revision of courses, methods, organization, etc.

(7) A State program for systematic in-service training involving intelligent cooperation of administrators, supervisors, teachers, and teacher-training institutions.

With these neglected but important phases of training, selection, placement, and maintenance of an adequate staff of teachers for rural schools this conference is concerned. We can not have better schools until they are staffed with better teachers, and we can not have better teachers until we improve our processes and techniques of training them.

Abstract of address. The conference on the professional preparation of teachers for rural schools was called by the Commissioner of Education to be held at Hotel Lenox,, Boston Mass., February 25, 1928. A report of the proceedings and abstracts of some of the papers read will be printed in the April number of SCHOOL LIFE.

Counselors Encourage Further School Attendance

A thousand girls were placed in positions last year through the agency of the girls' continuation school of Newark, N. J.; in Trenton 150 were placed; and other schools had correspondingly good records, according to a report of the State director of continuation schools. During the year 418 boys and girls were induced to return to regular schools to complete their courses. In the past seven years continuation schools in the State have been instrumental in returning 3,007 minors to all-day schools, and numbers of other children have been influenced to continue their education in evening schools.

Schools and Museums Working Jointly for Visual Education

Two National Organizations Representing the Schools and the Museums Respectively are Promoting Relations. Instruction is Given to Classes at the Museum, and Illustrative Material is Supplied to Aid Regular Work of Classroom. No Duplication of Effort in Two Types of Service. More Small Museums are Needed

By LAURENCE VAIL COLEMAN

Director, The American Association of Museums

THE IMPORTANCE of visual material in the classroom is well recognized. The rôle which museums play as custodians of objects which can be used as tools for the teacher has been demonstrated. However, all that is known is not applied and all that has been shown is not adopted widely. A recent estimate indicates that less than 2 per cent of the school children in this country are under the direct influence of museum collections. It should be encouraging, therefore, to observe that two national organizations, representing respectively the schools and the museums, have addressed themselves to the task of promoting school-museum relations.

True Technique Involved in Cooperation

What is the nature of the contact between the school and museum? Is it one of cooperation of ill-defined character, or does it involve a true technique? Emphatically the latter.

The work is carried on along two lines: First, instruction of classes at the museum to give the children opportunity to broaden their experience beyond the horizon of the classroom, the home, and the street; and second, lending of illustrative material to the school in order to provide the teacher with objects of her own selection for use as aids in the regular work of the classroom.

Museum Instruction Supplements Schoolroom Teaching

Instruction at the museum, which supplements but does not duplicate classroom teaching, is scheduled for regular hours, and efforts are made to carry out a sequence of thought even though the visits of any one class are at long intervals. At a museum hour the instructor first leads the children in a free discussion of selected museum material or tells a story about the objects. In this way the children get some understanding of the subject in hand, and then the group breaks up and the boys and girls indulge in museum games. These consist of efforts to answer questions by inspecting exhibits and reading labels. The questions are offered singly or in groups, by word of mouth or in print according to the age of the children. This combination of methods, simple and uncalculated as it may appear, embodies the fundamentals of good instruction. It combines observation and reasoning in the discussion with expression in the games.

In some instances this work at the museum is administered under a plan by which teachers in school service are assigned to the museum where they work under the immediate direction of museum authorities.

In order to sustain the interest of children who have been reached through museum hours, it is the practice in many museums to have study-clubs, hobby-clubs, classes, or other forms of periodic group activity.

Illustrative Material for Classroom Use

Lending of illustrative material—the second school service—is regarded as an extremely important museum activity, and the soundness of it is evidenced by the fact that school departments in several cities, notably St. Louis, have organized school museums of their own to discharge this one function.

Museum collections in the classroom bring the world to the children

The educational museum of the St. Louis public schools is characterized as a "museum on wheels." Its exhibits consist of a complete set of the objects available for lending; they form a sort of visual catalogue. There is also a printed catalogue from which any teacher in St. Louis may order by number—perhaps after having familiarized herself with the material by inspection of the exhibits. Orders are given on blanks which are collected by representatives of the museum. They are filled by the shipping department of the museum and objects are delivered by auto truck. The driver, when calling, delivers material for the current week, takes up orders for the coming week, and collects used material of the week before. Hundreds of thousands of objects are circulated in this way each year.

St. Louis children study Indian life with museum specimens

This same function is discharged in many other cities by local public museums which have lending collections of carefully selected objects suitable for the classroom and devoted exclusively to school use. Museums of art, science, and history carry on this work.

Specific Purpose for Each Service

It will be noted that the two types of school service, namely, instruction at the museum and lending to the classroom, represent no duplication of effort. Each has a specific purpose which can not be served by the other. The first gives the children insight into subjects which would not otherwise come within the ken of childhood; it initiates experience. The second makes the regular work of the classroom more impressive.

The above-mentioned efforts of national organizations to develop school-museum relations are being focused first upon the lending of material. Both the National Education Association and the American Association of Museums have adopted a statement of principles drawn up by their joint committee.[1] This declaration indicates what the schools should do to bring the children in touch with the greatest of all museums, the out-of-doors, and to supplement their study in the open by the use of museum objects and pictorial illustrations. It also recommended that normal schools and teachers colleges train their students in the use of materials, and that schools give adequate support and aid to museums in selecting material, caring for it, and making it accessible to classrooms.

Having secured an agreement on principles, the committee has now undertaken actively to develop the use of lending collections. It recommends to its two organizations that there be appointed a commission consisting of representatives of the universities, colleges, and schools and of representatives of art, science, and history museums whose duty it shall be to gather information as to where material for visual education can be obtained, and also to furnish material to schools in places in which there are no museums. The initial problem is to find ways of financing the commission so that a secretary may be employed to carry out the program.

Most Useful Kinds of Visual Material

In order to make clear its meaning, the committee has prepared the following list of the kinds of visual material which it considers to be most useful:

1. Actual objects, such as mammals, birds, insects, specimens of sea life, food products, tree products, materials for clothing, materials for shelter, raw materials in the different stages of manufacture, etc., actual specimens from the fields of biology, geology, botany, anthropology, and the other various branches of science.

2. Lists of available educational films and slides showing growing and moving

[1] Bailey, Henry Turner. Report of joint committee on school-museum relations. Proceedings of the sixty-fifth annual meeting of the National Education Association. Vol. 65, 1927, 239–242.

Classes from Buffalo schools play museum games

things and industrial processes; in short, the activities of nature and men.

3. Facsimile reproductions of historical documents, pictures, and objects in the historical museums of the country, of special value in the teaching of American history and literature.

4. Reproductions in color of the finest pictures, textiles, and other decorative material in American museums.

5. Photographs and reproductions in color of objects in natural history museums having unusual cultural values.

6. Reprints of illustrations in black and white and color from the best work of artists, modern and ancient.

7. Photographs of the finest sculpture, the finest architecture, and the finest handicraft produced in the United States and in other countries.

8. Reproductions in color of the finest mural decorations in American buildings and elsewhere.

New York teachers may borrow museum groups or single objects

9. Illustrations of the finest products of American industry.

10. Pamphlets made up of sample pages of the finest work of American designers and printers.

11. Illustrated pamphlets descriptive of the scenery, institutions, occupations, and resources of cities and countries, such as are published by boards of trade.

The chairman of the joint committe, representing schools, is Henry Turner Bailey, director of the Cleveland School of Art, and his associate chairman, representing museums, is Carl G. Rathmann, director of the educational museum of the St. Louis public schools.

Of course, full realization of the committee's ideals must await the growth of museums in number and effectiveness. Such development will depend in large part upon what is done about, first, small museums; second, county museums; and third, branch museums. Small museums already exist in great number and recent years have witnessed the creation of new ones at accelerating pace. So marked has this activity been that the American Association of Museums embarked recently upon a program of effort in behalf of these little institutions whose progress will affect markedly the future of visual education in small towns. County museums are scarcely known to-day, but they are beginning to put in appearance and there is reason to believe, partly in the light of library experience, that they will ultimately take up the burden of service for the rural schools. Branch museums are also things of the future, but here again trends lead one to think that museums in the larger cities will take this means of extending their influence into the ramifications of urban life.

In the last analysis, however, museums can not create adequate school service by their own unaided efforts. They will have to wait to an extent upon the development of teaching methods in those subjects which call for use of visual material. The three most important museum subjects are art, natural science, and history. Art study is relatively far advanced in the schools and we may pass over this for the time. With history it is different, for objects are scarcely used at all, despite the fact that material which museums of history would gladly lend could be the means of giving life to this subject which for the juvenile mind is not redolent of appeal. Here surely is a field of inquiry which invites study.

Teachers Lack Knowledge of Subject Matter

The status of natural science is somewhat more encouraging but not altogether satisfying. Nature study is carried on in the elementary schools in very casual fashion. From the report of a recent survey it is plain that a great majority of teachers lack knowledge of subject matter and understanding of method, and also that adequate supervision is not provided by the schools.[2] Nature study is usually left to the initiative of the teacher; there is little real incentive to give it attention, although sympathy with the work is very general. The primary reason for this state of things seems to be that public opinion—and therefore the sentiment of school patrons—has little understanding as to just what nature study is or is good for. The work has not been adequately popularized, and, further, it has not received sufficient study from the pedagogic viewpoint to reveal values which would force it to the sympathetic attention of teacher-training institutions. Plainly, all who are interested in the development of the work should devote themselves to the creation of the requisite public understanding and sympathy.

However, without waiting upon progress in this direction, a second line of effort may be urged. This is research in the teaching of natural history with a view to finding its basic values and to defining clearly its place in the curriculum, effective methods of presenting it, and administrative procedure by which it may best be carried forward. This is work for the educators, and it should lead to the preparation of a generally acceptable course of study. There need be little doubt that outdoor work would find an important place in any such well-considered scheme, and that museum service would be recognized as an essential element.

In conjunction with and following such research there should be well-fortified attempts, perhaps through the instrumentality of State bodies, to place in the hands of teachers condensed or carefully selected statements of subject matter, suggestions as to class procedure and information which would enable them to find illustrative material. The effectiveness of such leadership, even in the face of the present indifference, has been shown by results which the State college of agriculture has achieved in New York through regular contacts with teachers.

It would seem that the immediate approach to whatever share museums may have in this situation, so far as specific activity can be added to general effort, may be embodied in the program which has been developed by the aforementioned joint committee of the associations which represent school and museum interests.

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[2] Nature Education in Elementary Schools. A partial report of a committee working on nature education under the auspices of the American Nature Association and the direction of E. L. Palmer, of Cornell University. Washington, D. C., Bulletin 18, the American Nature Association, January, 1926, 20 pp.

Organization and Plan of the Land-Grant College Survey

Comprehensive Study of All the Activities of the 69 Institutions is in Progress. Active Work Done Largely by Members of College Faculties. Earnest Attention to Character of Instruction. Promotion of Student Welfare Especially Studied

By JOHN H. McNEELY

Assistant to Director Land-Grant College Survey

RUNNING the entire gamut of the activities of the 69 land-grant colleges in the United States, including every problem of administration and type of education to the vocations adopted in life by the students after graduation, the survey of these institutions now being conducted by the Bureau of Education of the Interior Department bids fair to be one of the largest of its character ever undertaken in the history of the country.

The work of the survey, which is being performed chiefly by leading members of the faculties of the land-grant colleges themselves has been organized into six general divisions. These include overhead problems, resident subcollegiate instruction, resident undergraduate instruction, research, adult education, and student relations and welfare.

In the inquiry into the overhead problems, every phase of the general administration and organization of the different institutions will be studied. Among these subjects are the constitution, powers, and relationships of the State governing boards; the process of securing State funds for their support and other fiscal relations; the social, economic, and educational benefits derived by the State and its people from the institutions; the duties and activities of the president's office; the organization of the major divisions and subdivisions; the internal financial methods of control including budget making; the physical plants, relating to the construction of buildings and equipment to conduct the educational services; and the duties and functions of the registrar's office. The libraries in each of the colleges, comprising all matters of their control, management, and services in the different educational fields are also under this division.

Character of Subcollegiate Work

The study of resident subcollegiate work of the institutions includes the methods of administrative control over the department devoted to subcollegiate education, the duties of the director of this branch, the housing and equipment provided for the proper conduct of the work, whether the registration of students enrolled in subcollegiate classes is handled by the institutional registrar or other agencies, library facilities, and the types of education that are offered to students pursuing courses below the college level.

The most important features of the survey deal with the resident undergraduate and graduate work which is being studied in great detail. In addition to collecting complete information upon external and internal overhead administration of these branches, including the duties and activities of the deans or directors of each of the departments, special emphasis is placed on a complete inquiry into subject-matter fields, such as undergraduate and graduate agriculture, engineering, home economics, teacher training, arts and sciences, commerce and business, military training, and professional veterinary medicine. Research and graduate study in all these fields, including the experiment stations, farms, laboratories, and facilities for this type of work, is also the subject of an exhaustive study.

Services Rendered through Extension Activities

The services which the various land-grant colleges are rendering outside their institutions through extension and adult education comprise another important phase of the survey. Collection of data is being made on organization provided for this work, which is partially financed by the Federal Government through the Smith-Lever Act; the plants provided and the facilities available; the number of the staff employed, the accomplishments in the specific fields, including agriculture, engineering and industry, visual instruction, community and club services, commerce and business and other types of education.

The promotion of student welfare by the institutions makes up the final general division of the survey organization. The questions to be examined in this connection include the staff employed to promote student welfare; student organizations, including fraternities; physical welfare of the students, including athletics; mental hygiene; orientation of new students; housing and feeding; self-help; scholarships and fellowships, loan funds; student discipline; prizes and other inducements to high scholarship; care of deficient and backward students; occupational guidance; placement services; student unions; and alumni relationships. A questionnaire has been prepared which is to be sent to graduates and former students of the land-grant colleges for the purpose of ascertaining the lines of business which they have entered since leaving college and the use they have made of the education they obtained in college.

The land-grant college survey was inaugurated by the Bureau of Education on July 1, 1927, as a result of an appropriation of $117,000 made by Congress for this purpose, and is to extend over a period of two years.

International Pedagogical Congress in Berlin

The International Union of Teachers' Associations will be inaugurated in Berlin about the middle of April. This international union, in contrast to other international organizations, is entirely neutral in politics and religion. It has set for itself the task of promoting peaceful cooperation among the nations through the spread of the common school and the improvement of public education. As a feature of this inauguration a pedagogical congress will meet at Berlin April 12 to 17, 1928, to which the school authorities of all civilized States, the school authorities of communities, and the teaching staff of all countries are invited.

The German Reich, the State of Prussia, and the city of Berlin are strongly supporting this congress. The congress will offer a series of lectures on common schools, on the status of pedagogical science, and on other questions which relate especially to public education. Outstanding men and women who enjoy great respect not only in the pedagogical world but also in the general public life of Germany have been obtained for these lectures.

Among the honorary members are Doctor Becker, Minister of Science, Art, and Instruction; Mr. Boss, mayor of the city of Berlin; Mr. Loebe, president of the Reichstag; and Doctor Stresemann, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Doctor Becker will be the presiding officer.

The work of school classes will be offered for inspection in order that an insight may be gained into the practical work in the German schools. Typical school organizations and social and political organizations of the city of Berlin will be inspected. A great "school and instructional-appliance exhibit" will complete the review of the status of common school affairs and school organization.—*Tschentscher, chairman of the management of the pedagogical congress.*

Kindergartens are Developing Satisfactorily in Cuba

Christmas Traditions of the North Accepted in Tropical Cuba. Children Display Patriotic Enthusiasm in Songs. Unification of Kindergarten and Primary Work Desired by the National Director

By MARY DABNEY DAVIS

Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Bureau of Education

A COURTYARD with growing plants, window frames from floor to ceiling protected by ornamental iron grills but with no windows to exclude the air, cool tiled floors, 40 active children working under the supervision of 2 teachers—this is typical of Cuba's 285 kindergartens.

Christmas preparations were under way when delegates to the Fifth Pan American Child Congress visited the kindergartens. A great Christmas tree was pictured on the floor of one kindergarten with large green sticks. On the wall of another kindergarten a poster of children dancing around a decorated evergreen tree and another of Santa Claus and his reindeer showed how the northern traditions have been accepted for Christmas celebration in the southern countries. Games followed the handwork period. The children guided an original dancing game themselves, played several of the organized hiding and finding games, such as the "Bell ringer" and "Magic music," and then, for the visitors' benefit, they sang the Cuban national songs. They sang both the one written to celebrate Cuban liberty and the present national anthem. Such patriotic enthusiasm as the young kindergarten children displayed should surely produce a race of staunch supporters of the Cuban Government.

In this, as in other kindergartens visited, there was a delightfully informal atmosphere. The children worked independently and assumed responsibility in caring for their play materials.

First-hand contact with nature is the basis of language instruction

Two major problems are faced by the kindergarten teachers and the kindergarten supervisor in Cuba. The first of these is a matter of school buildings; the rooms available are too small for housing large play apparatus or for permitting many activity games for large groups of children, and though there are many parks in the city of Habana playground space has not yet been provided. This is also an active problem for all elementary-grade teachers. The second problem is the economic necessity for using small play materials, principally the Frœbelian gifts. Every effort is being made to find uses for these materials which will be in harmony with modern principles of self-initiated, creative work.

All kindergartens in the island of Cuba, like all other educational activities, are under Federal supervision. Senorita Catalina Fernandez de los Ríos has charge of all kindergarten work. She visits the several cities and Provinces and holds local and divisional meetings of teachers. In addition, Senorita Fernandez edits a professional magazine, the Monthly Review of the National Kindergarten Association, a magazine devoted to the advancement of interest in kindergarten education and to the improvement of methods and materials of teaching. This magazine is the official journal of the National Kindergarten Association, an organization which brings together students in the normal kindergarten training school, teachers in the public kindergartens, and all persons interested in the education of young children in Cuba.

The National Kindergarten Association before the statue of Luz y Cabellero

Primary Teachers Invited to Join

The association issues an invitation to the teachers of primary grades to join their interest in educational methods of teaching with that of the kindergartners, and one of the future goals of the association is to help effect a unification of the kindergarten and early elementary-grade work. Substantial growth has brought the membership to 300, an assurance of the association's future success. The annual program directs and orients the

professional efforts of the members of the association through lectures and discussions. The meetings also include a social hour, and at least once a year a fine excursion to some national or historical point of interest is planned.

For the progress in kindergarten education throughout Cuba Senorita Fernandez de los Ríos is largely responsible, and great appreciation for her work is expressed by Dr. Ramino Guerra, superintendent of public instruction. A warm invitation has been extended to Senorita Fernandez and to the Cuban National Kindergarten Association to attend and to send delegates to the meeting of the International Kindergarten Union which will be held in Grand Rapids, Mich., in the month of April. Visits by professional people in other countries, as with those in the widely separated cities within our own country, broaden our vision and our sympathies and open lines of cooperative work of value to both educators and children.

Complete Accord Between Home and School

During the first 10 weeks of the present school year each elementary building of Evansville, Ind., has had practically 100 per cent visitation by parents. It is evident that the parents in this city of 125,000 inhabitants better understand modern school methods and that they know and appreciate the teachers who are so very important in the lives of their children.

Superintendent John O. Chewning, the principals, and teachers deserve the credit for this achievement. The teachers sent out the welcome, and in cases of definite inability of parents to visit the school the teacher visited the home.

The following extract from the Public Schools Bulletin is an expression of an elementary principal's attitude:

"What a change! What a change! If memory serves correctly, time was when teachers and parents were unacquainted and often suspicious of each other. Figuratively speaking, the schools were locked against the parent. Often, however, a belligerent patron would 'crash the gate' and bring confusion and turmoil to the school. Once in a great while, too, some great soul would find the gates ajar and would steal into the building and into the teachers' hearts almost unaware."

The change is attributed to a different attitude on the part of the teacher, friendly feelings brought about by the parent-teacher clubs, and the advent of a younger generation of parents who are determined to keep up pleasant relationships which they themselves formed in school.—*Homer L. Humke.*

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Czechoslovakian Law Requires the Maintenance of Libraries

Every Community Must Employ a Librarian and Must Provide Suitable Quarters and a Subvention for a Library. Large Cities Must Maintain Public Libraries of Musical Compositions. State Pays One-Tenth of the Cost

By EMANUEL V. LIPPERT
Prague, Czechoslovakia

SINCE LONG AGO in Czechoslovakia all cultural associations used to establish their own libraries and greater towns used to found public libraries. In the year 1919 a law was passed in the Czechoslovak Parliament of such kind that was passed up to that time in no other State.

The law ordered that all communities are obliged to maintain public libraries. Every town having 10,000 inhabitants must appoint a special officer—a librarian. This officer must have passed a full secondary-school and one-year course for librarians. In smaller communities a teacher, who acquired the librarian's technique in a monthly course for librarians, is appointed in most cases as librarian. For librarians in small parishes the Ministry of Education sends a practical handbook on administering small libraries. Instructors of the ministry perform the inspection of all libraries. A fifth of all books in every library must have instructive content. Greater towns are obliged to open a reading room of journals at the library. The greatest towns must have a local public library of musical compositions too.

Special Libraries for National Minorities

The law on the public libraries has a great importance for education of nationality minorities. According to the law, national minorities, numbering in a community 200 persons at least, have the right to establish a special public local minority library or a special department of the local public library.

Every library is managed by a library council that is composed of persons of the same nationality for which the library was established.

In Czechoslovak Republic, especially in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, only a small number of illiterates was found, therefore the public libraries were spreading very quickly. In many communities the former libraries of associations were changed into public libraries. The community must now secure for its library quarters, fuel, lighting, and a subvention according to the number of inhabitants.

In the year 1920, 3,400 public libraries had 1,650,000 books; in the year 1926, 16,200 public libraries had more than 5,000,000 books. The expenses for libraries were 15,000,000 kroner. In Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia only 6 per cent of all communities have not yet their own library. One library is on average for 894 inhabitants, 44 books are for 100 inhabitants, 7.1 per cent of all inhabitants are constant readers, and 1 reader had borrowed on average 18.3 books.

The communities must pay about 90 per cent of all expenses; the State pays 10 per cent. The State presented to communities for their libraries nearly 50,000 books. Of all expenses a fourth is necessary for salaries of librarians and other employees. On average a community pays for every inhabitant 1.39 kroner yearly on the library. In Subcarpathian Russia 300 library reading rooms were organized having over 50,000 Russian books and papers.

Persian Minister Objects to Bible Teaching

A development disturbing to important foreign investments in Persia was the insistence of the Ministry of Education upon closer adherence by foreign schools to the curricula of similar Persian institutions. Particularly obnoxious, from the viewpoint of foreign missionary educators, is the demand that students be instructed in the Chariet or Islamic law, which contains a number of teachings repugnant to Christians. Equally important is the ministry's objection to the teaching of the Bible. Schools maintained by foreign mission boards in the United States or Europe naturally contend that to omit Bible study from their school work would be untenable.

Prolonged negotiations having produced no result, the American school at Hamadan, sponsored by the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions of the United States of America, closed its doors early in December. All other foreign schools still functioned at the close of the year and it was hoped that some way would be found leading out of the impasse.

The budget of the Ministry of Education provides for six normal schools in provincial centers and for a number of new primary schools. They probably will be ready to receive pupils some time in 1928.—*Orsen N. Nielsen, American consul, Teheran, Persia.*

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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MARCH, 1928

Advance in Civilization by a Primitive People

PRESERVATION of a race threatened with extermination has apparently been accomplished in Alaska. Gloomy stories of the condition of the Eskimos were brought back by Government officers whose duties carried them to that Territory in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Threatened starvation of whole villages was described repeatedly. Whales, walrus, and seal on the coast; fish and aquatic birds on the streams; and wild caribou on the inland plains for generations afforded abundant food for the Eskimos. But the continuous activity of a large fleet of whaling vessels between 1850 and 1883 destroyed the whales in Alaskan waters or drove them far into the Arctic Ocean. Walrus, which were formerly numerous, were hunted relentlessly for the ivory that their tusks afforded, and they, too, approached extinction. Seal and sea lion became so scarce that it was difficult for the natives to procure skins to cover their boats, and the flesh was so rare as to be considered a luxury. American canneries took possession of the streams, and the salmon which the natives had been accustomed to utilize for their winter's food were shipped out of Alaska by the million cans. Caribou were driven into inaccessible regions and lost as a source of food and raiment after they were hunted with breech-loading firearms instead of bows and arrows.

To make matters infinitely worse, rum and disease brought into the Territory by conscienceless whalers and traders undermined the health and the energy of the natives to an alarming extent.

Instances of seasons destitution were frequently reported. On King Island in 1891 the people were reduced to a broth of seaweed and were obliged to eat their sled dogs to sustain life. They were saved from actual starvation by the timely arrival of the revenue cutter *Bear*. A few years before three villages on St. Lawrence Island were practically wiped out, and when the revenue cutter visited the island putrefying corpses were found everywhere. In the winter of 1891–92 the people of Point Hope were without food and had to abandon their village and make their way to other villages, in some instances a hundred miles away, to keep from starving.

Such facts as these were well known to those who were acquainted with Alaskan conditions in the early days; and Capt. M. A. Healy and Lieut. J. C. Cantwell of the *Bear*, Dr. Sheldon Jackson, general agent of education for Alaska, Henry D. Woolfe, and others earnestly urged in official reports and in articles in the public press that action be taken to relieve the situation.

Charles H. Townsend, a naturalist of the United States Fish Commission who visited Alaska as a passenger on the revenue cutter *Corwin* in 1885, was apparently the first to propose that tame reindeer be purchased in Siberia and transported to Alaska. The suggestion finally bore fruit. How the plan was discussed between Doctor Jackson and Captain Healy; how it was presented to Dr. W. T. Harris, the Commissioner of Education, and met his enthusiastic approval; how a fund was raised by private subscription to initiate the enterprise; how a few deer were bought in Siberia and safely transported to Alaska; how Congress appropriated small sums with which 1,280 reindeer were imported between 1892 and 1902—all this has been frequently told.

The results that were predicted by the original advocates are now to be seen. Not less than a half million reindeer are thriving in Alaska; few of them are in the ownership of the Government; the majority are the property of the Eskimos; in some districts the number of Eskimo owners exceeds the number of Eskimo families; a very large proportion of the Eskimo population are either owners of deer or are otherwise interested in the industry; they are now essentially a pastoral people. The danger of widespread starvation has passed.

The problems now presented relate to the allotment of the pasture grounds and the methods of marketing the surplus meat. These are questions of practical administration and of business enterprise. Compared with the original problem of preserving a people from starvation they are of minor concern. It is a matter of extreme gratification that the Bureau of Education has been the instrument by which the improved condition of the Alaskan natives has been brought about.

"Teaching as a fine art" will be the keynote of the Eighth Annual Ohio State Educational Conference which the College of Education, Ohio State University, will conduct at Columbus on April 12, 13, and 14.

Southern Experience Shows Eleven-Year Course is Enough

Of the 844 secondary schools on the accredited southern list of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States in 1926, 53.1 per cent were built on a seven-grade elementary school and 46.9 per cent were built on an eight-grade elementary school. More than half the schools complete the high-school course in 11 years. A study, conducted by the secretary of the commission on secondary schools, covering six years, of the records in college of the graduates from the schools on the southern list brings this statement from Doctor Roemer: "There does not seem to be any appreciable difference between the efficiency of the seven and eight grade elementary school as measured by this process."

The table presented by the secretary in his report shows less than one-half of 1 per cent difference. One wonders why school boards continue to pay for an extra year or keep the children an extra year in school without additional advancement. One wonders why superintendents will advise this waste of money and of time. Here are nearly half a million high-school pupils succeeding under the 11-year system. It is no experiment. It has proven its worth by 30 to 40 years' trial.

While New England was trying out the nine-grade elementary school and all the North an eight-grade elementary school, the South built its system on a seven-year elementary school. The junior high school was put in chiefly to reorganize the advanced grammar grades, and bring the adolescent period within the high school.

Salt Lake City has recently changed from an 8–4 system to a 6–5 system and the superintendent reports favorable results and the approval of the people. There is not any one of the seven objectives that can not be realized in an 11-year system as readily as in a 12-year system. The commission on reorganization of secondary education did not commit itself to any set plan, but was dealing chiefly with the adolescent period. The report clearly states that many should go on to the senior high school from the eighth grade in the interest of "economy of time."

Do the pupils who come up from the three-year junior school to the tenth grade show any superiority over those who formerly were promoted from the same grades? Ask the senior principals. Then why waste the year and all that extra year's cost?—*High School Quarterly, University of Georgia, Joseph S. Stewart, editor.*

France Makes Beginning of Free Secondary Education

Expected to Lead Finally to Abolition of Fees in All Secondary Schools, but That End is Considered Far Away Because of Cost. Small Sum Involved in Present Measure. To Make Secondary Education Entirely Free Would Require 58,000,000 Francs

THE BUDGET for 1928, which has been adopted by the French Parliament, provides money for a first installment of free education in certain types of secondary schools, to begin on October 1 next. Although the sum voted for the last quarter of this year is only about £2,700 (333,000 francs), corresponding to an expenditure of about 1,000,000 francs in a full school year, the reform is potentially much more important than this slender provision would appear to indicate.

It establishes a principle which can be applied progressively to an increasing number of schools. In the view of M. Herriot, the present Minister of Education, it is calculated to lead in the end to the abolition of fees in all secondary schools, but that is clearly too costly a measure to come at present within "practical politics."

Designed to End an Anomaly

As is so often the case, this preliminary reform is not, in the first instance, the offspring of a theory or an ideal, but is designed to put an end to an anomaly which has grown up in the actual practice of education. The cause of the anomaly is the increasing tendency of elementary education to spread into fields formerly reserved for secondary education.

In many provincial towns there exist side by side a collége, or secondary school, and a higher elementary school (école primaire supérieure). The collége, of which the building is owned by the municipality though the educational administration is under State control, provides a full course of instruction leading up to the baccalauréat, the passing of which gives pupils the right to compete for entry into the universities. The école primaire supérieure is, as its name implies, an outgrowth of the elementary school. Pupils pass into it from about the age of 11, remaining until about the age of 15. During this period their education runs parellel with that of the collége, though pupils of the latter establishment continue their course until about the age of 17. In practice the pupils of both schools in many towns attend the same classes and are taught by the same teachers in the same building during the period in which the course of instruction is common to both.

There is a similar joint arrangement between the colléges and the écoles professionnelles (higher elementary schools giving a training for trades) in towns where the latter establishments exist. As the collége belongs to the secondary educational system proper, its pupils pay fees. Instruction in the higher elementary school, on the other hand, is free. There has arisen, therefore, the anomaly of "paying pupils" sitting in the same classes by the side of "non-paying pupils" to receive identical instruction.

The money voted in this year's budget will be used to abolish fees in these joint classes. It should be pointed out that, being restricted to this purpose, it does not make education at the collége free through the whole course up to the baccalauréat. In the final two classes, attended only by pupils of the collége itself, fees will for the present continue to be paid. The important fact remains that, so far as these institutions are concerned, secondary education is made free over a considerable period of the school career. The reform does not, of course, apply to the great lycées at all.

Reform Has Already Begun to Spread

Limited as it is at the beginning, there is a good deal of likelihood that the reform will spread. It is, indeed, already doing so. During the budget debates it was contemplated that it would be applicable to 56 colléges. Since then the number has grown to 77. Wherever a higher elementary school becomes attached to the collége of a small provincial town, the municipality will be entitled to ask that the new rule shall be put in force.

There is, however, a limit to the possibility of extension of the reform in this way. The multiplication of higher elementary schools is limited by the amount of money allocated in the budget for these institutions. On the other hand, it is evident that pressure will be put on the Ministry of Education to continue along the path which it has begun to tread. It will be argued that in insisting on fees for one part of the collége course while the rest is free the ministry has created a fresh anomaly. There is something illogical, also, in giving a measure of free secondary education to one town while denying it to another merely because it has not a higher elementary school attached to its collége.

If the whole of secondary education were made free, the direct and immediate cost to the State would be 58,000,000 francs a year, the amount of the fees at present paid by the 155,000 boys and girls who attend secondary schools of every kind. In the present condition of French finance it is difficult to foresee the time when the treasury will be in a position to find such a large sum.

There is no doubt that, in the view of many public men and of administrators of the French educational system, the present reform is the beginning of a much larger one.—*London Times Educational Supplement.*

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated:

State laws and regulations governing teachers' certificates. Katherine M. Cook. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 19.) 40 cents.

Statistics of teachers' colleges and normal schools, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 30.) 10 cents.

Statistics of private high schools and academies, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 31.) 10 cents.

Statistics of city school systems, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 32.) 30 cents.

Statistics of public high schools, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 33.) 10 cents.

Land-grant colleges, 1926. Walter J. Greenleaf. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 37.) 15 cents.

Record of current educational publications, July–September, 1927. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 38.)

Statistics of State school systems, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, No. 39.) 10 cents.

Certain practices in city school administration. Walter S. Deffenbaugh. (City school leaflet, No. 29.) 5 cents.

Annual report of the Commissioner of Education for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1927. 10 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Eight Chilean teachers recently sent abroad by the Government for advanced study have entered universities in the United States. Other groups have gone to Switzerland, Belgium, and Germany.

Fresh-Air Rooms Bring Strength and Joy to Anemic Children

Experience of Chelsea, Mass., School Has Been Highly Satisfactory. Early Opposition of Parents and Children Entirely Overcome. Two Meals Daily are Served and Teachers and Pupils Prepare Them

By ENA G. MACNUTT
Williams School, Chelsea, Mass.

OUR fresh-air room is ideally located on the south corner of the building, with windows on two sides of the room that open like doors. The room is equipped with portable combination desks and chairs that can easily be moved about and long tables where our meals are served. Each child is furnished with a cot and Army blankets and an Eskimo suit for cold weather.

The first matter to be considered at the beginning of the school year is the selection of the class. The method which we have used for the past few years has proved to be the most satisfactory. First on our list are the children in whose families there are cases of tuberculosis (active cases are not admitted to the room) and any other children who may be recommended by the school nurse as especially needy.

At the beginning of the school year every child in the building is weighed and measured. A record of his height and weight is kept on his physical record card, also a record of his condition, whether overweight, normal, or underweight, and if underweight, the per cent underweight. Only those who are seriously underweight can be considered for the fresh-air room, as the class is limited to 24. From the underweight group the school physician, school nurse, and teacher select the most needy cases to make up the class. Upon entering the room, each child is given a physical examination by the school physician and all defects are noted on special cards printed for this purpose. These cards are kept on file for future reference and for correction of defects.

Health is the First Consideration

The health of the children is naturally the first consideration in this room, but in spite of the short time spent on academic work, the children seldom fail to be promoted and frequently have double promotions. A child who at the beginning of the year seems dull, listless, and stupid often proves to be a bright pupil when he has acquired a strong body.

For a number of years we had difficulty with children and parents who objected to their being placed in the fresh-air room. This was due largely to misunderstanding and ignorance of our object, the parents feeling that it was a "charity." "I give my child plenty to eat at home," they would say. The children feared loss of promotion and disliked the idea of being placed in a special class. This difficulty has been overcome by making the rule that any child who is selected for the class *must* stay in the room for three weeks. By the end of three weeks, the child has almost invariably learned enough of the value of good health to wish to attain it, and has so enjoyed the friendly comradeship and the responsibility placed upon him that all objection is forgotten. Many of the stories written by the children later in the year show their change in attitude.

Preparation of Meals Helpful to Teacher

Contrary to the usual arrangement in such rooms, all meals are prepared and served by the pupils and the teacher. While this doubles the work of the teacher and shortens the time for academic work, it has distinct advantages. It gives the teacher opportunity to study the effects of various diets on the gain of the class and to change them accordingly. It also gives the children practical training in the selection of foods and in the preparation and serving of meals. With children of foreign parentage this sort of training is often needed in the homes and is of great value there.

Distinction a Reward for Cleanliness

The first half hour of the morning is devoted to inspection and health talks. Before school a monitor examines all children for clean neck, face, ears, hands, and finger nails. After the opening exercises the clean people inspect each other for neatness of dress, polished shoes, etc., disputed cases being referred to the teacher. Those who pass this inspection write their names on the board. The messengers for the day are chosen from this list, and the monitor for the next week is chosen from those who have been clean every day for the week preceding. Through the desire to be a monitor or a messenger lasting habits of cleanliness are formed, for though some children keep clean for cleanliness sake a greater incentive is required for others. During this period the daily health record is made up. This consists of cards on which the rules of the health game are printed. Each rule that has been kept for the day preceding is checked and the total score kept for the day and week. This keeps the rules always in mind and inculcates them as habits.

Academic work follows till 9.45, when lunch is served, consisting of oatmeal and milk, or cocoa and crackers, or bread and

Every child aids in preparing or serving the meals

butter. One of the older girls usually makes the cocoa and other girls serve it cafeteria style.

Each child has his or her work to do in preparing, serving, and clearing up after the meals. The girls are divided into sets of four or five and each set works in turn as dinner or luncheon helpers. They vie with each other in efficiency of service, and the younger girls often do as good work as the older. These girls set the tables, serve and clear away all meals,

Dinner is served between two rest periods

and wash the dishes. The boys prepare the vegetables for cooking, rinse the dishes ready for washing, open and close the windows, etc.

While the children eat their lunch the teacher prepares the dinner and places it in the fireless cooker, where no further thought need be given it till time to serve it. If more than the lunch time is needed for the preparation, the children work by themselves at their lessons from the outline on the board for the day. They know they must complete them before the close of the session.

Part of Rest Period Before Dinner

At 11.30 the portable desks are pushed back to the wall and cots are set up for the rest period. After washing their faces and hands, all but the dinner helpers lie down for a 15-minute rest period before dinner. Dinner is served soon after 12, followed by the toothbrush drill. Then the class returns to the cots for a half-hour nap, while the dinner helpers wash the dishes which the boys have rinsed and stacked between the courses. By having three sets of helpers, the girls lose their rest period only once in three days. Formerly we had all the rest period after the noon meal, but experiment proved that a rest period before dinner added to the weekly gain.

The following are typical menus. In order to avoid monotony, the same menu is never used two weeks in succession, and the daily menus are varied also by the change of a dessert, vegetable, etc.

MONDAY	WEDNESDAY
Meat loaf.	Beef soup with vegetables.
Baked potato.	Lettuce salad.
Creamed carrots.	Rice pudding.
Apple tapioca.	Milk.
Milk.	

TUESDAY	THURSDAY
Scalloped potato.	Stewed kidney beans.
Macaroni and cheese.	15-minute cabbage.
Scrambled egg.	Baked or scalloped potato.
Buttered beets.	Baked apple.
Stewed prunes.	Milk.
Milk.	

The milk is always served at the end of the meal, experiment having proved that the children gain more when they drink their glass of milk after finishing their dinner.

Other dishes that are frequently served are Hamburg steak and spaghetti, lamb stew, Lima beans, vegetable chowder, potato chowder, rice and cheese, macaroni and tomato, spinach, other fresh vegetables in season, rice and raisins, fruit tapioca, bread pudding, brown Betty, corn-meal mush, Waldorf and fruit salads. We find that the average family eats very few vegetables besides potatoes, and great effort is made to have the children learn to like and to appreciate the value of fruit and vegetables so that they will ask for them at home.

Each child brings his own potato and a slice of bread and butter each day. Fifty cents a week per pupil, $12.50 per week, in all, is furnished by the city for the other food; $5 of this money is spent for milk, which allows two glasses daily for each child, used either in cooking or for drinking.

Children Are Weighed Each Week

Each child has a weight record on the wall where he can see it easily and follow his progress. On these records are the name, age, height, weight, and normal weight of the child. The card is divided into squares, each representing one-half pound in the vertical column and one week in the horizontal line. The children are weighed each week and mark their own progress on the record card. The boy and the girl who gain most for each week have a gold star at the top of their card.

The difficulty of food idiosyncrasies has been almost entirely eliminated by giving a star on the weight record to every child who eats all that is served to him for a week. Each child has a ticket

After dinner the children return to the cots

and at the end of the meal a monitor punches the tickets for all children who have eaten all of the lunch or dinner served to them. If his ticket is punched for every meal in the week, he has a star on his weight record. The monitor for punching the tickets is chosen by vote of the class from those who have received a star for the week preceding. The need of this plan disappears in a few weeks, for the children soon learn to like the food that they at first refused to touch. We continue the plan, however, for the pleasure they take in watching the row of stars grow and for the benefit of the new pupils who take the places of those who attain their normal weight and leave the room.

In the column at the right of the weight record the various points of gain are marked, 10 per cent, 7 per cent, and normal, a red star indicating the 10 per cent point, a blue the 7 per cent, and a yellow star the normal weight. Our first object is to reach the 10 per cent line, and when that is reached a star is placed on the red name card on the back of the chairs. When the 7 per cent line is reached, the red card is replaced by a blue one, and when the child is up to normal weight he has a white name card. When he has held his normal weight for a few weeks, he is examined by the school physician, and if no special reason for his remaining longer in the fresh-air room is found, he returns to his regular classroom and his place is taken by some child on the reserve list. Usually about half of the class return to their rooms before the end of the year. These children return weekly to be weighed, and their condition is carefully watched.

Weighing days, the changing of the name cards on the desks, writing of the board record, and marking the gain on the weight record are events that are looked forward to with much anticipation, and enthusiasm in following the rules of the health game is promoted by these devices. So far as possible this work is done by the children themselves. Parents' interest can be aroused by sending home a weekly or monthly report of the child's progress.

Health Posters Promote Interest

There are always health posters of all sorts on the walls of the room, some borrowed from the State, others purchased or given by various organizations for the promotion of better health, and many made by the children themselves. These teach what are healthful foods, outline good meals, and picture the rules of the health game. Changing the posters frequently promotes interest in them, and hanging them near the dining tables promotes discussion of them among the pupils during lunch and dinner.

The pupils make good progress in academic work

On one board is a list of the names of the children in the room, headed by:

RED—DANGER AHEAD___ In red chalk.
BLUE—WON'T DO_____ In blue chalk.
WHITE—ALL RIGHT_____ In white chalk.

At the left of the names are stars, red, blue, or white, according to the per cent the children are underweight. All children who are more than 7 per cent underweight have a red star. The day he reaches the 7 per cent weight he may change the red star for a blue one, and on reaching normal weight a white star replaces the blue.

At the right of the names are two columns, in one of which is recorded the amount the child is underweight; in the other the amount he has gained. After the weekly weighing the children change their own records according to the results of the weighing and each finds for himself the amount he still has to gain. Stress is laid on the child's increasing his own per cent of gain, rather than competing with others in the amount of gain, as such competition is often discouraging.

"Health Day" Observed Every Month

One day of each month is kept as health day. There is no academic work on this day, the whole session being devoted to the reading of health stories, writing original poems and stories, making health posters, etc. For these posters use is frequently made of pictures cut from magazines, the children making rhymes or short pertinent sentences to print beneath. On health day, those who have made the greatest gain during the month are allowed to take down the posters from the walls of the room and put up others of their own choice. The health story books written by J. Mace Andrews have been particularly helpful:

"A Journey through Healthland,"
"Boys and girls of Wide Awake Town," and
"Health and Success."

Many valuable pamphlets on this work have been published by the United States Bureau of Education and can be obtained from the Government Printing Office at Washington. The American Child Health Association, the department of health of Massachusetts, and doubtless other States have issued similar material.

The total yearly gain of the class for the past three years has been in the vicinity of 350 pounds. Some children gain from 15 to 20 pounds and some gain less than 10 pounds; 10 pounds is about the average gain per child.

Increased Weight Follows Dental Treatment

Such changes as having a rest period before dinner as well as after, serving a glass of milk *after* the noon meal, drinking a glass of water before each meal have been the cause of some of the increase in gain. Dental work is also a leading factor. During the first two years the room was in operation only such dental work was done as it was possible to persuade the parents to have done. Then for several years the dental work was done at the school, with the parents' consent. There are always a few parents who object, but practically all the children had their teeth treated early in the year, and the results were evident from the marked increase in gain. And the difference was noticeable in the gain in the children whose parents refused to have the work done as compared with those who took advantage of the opportunity. During 1926–27 the dental clinic was not in

operation, and there was a very perceptible drop in the yearly gain.

Many children who are underweight are habitual tea and coffee drinkers, and this has been proved to be one of the leading causes of their condition. One boy who had been making very little progress during the two months he had been in the room suddenly began to make remarkable gains each week. Inquiry disclosed the fact that he had "got tired of being behind the other fellows," so he stopped drinking tea and coffee and drank a quart of milk every day instead.

Children Suffer from Lack of Sleep

Lack of sufficient sleep and rest also contributes very largely to underweight. Many children keep very late hours, and both they and their parents seem entirely unaware of, or indifferent to, the fact that a child requires more sleep than an adult. This is one of the most difficult problems, especially in a congested district. When all the children of the neighborhood are playing noisily in the street long after a child's bedtime, it requires more strength of character than the average child is blessed with to disregard the taunts of the others and go to bed at the proper hour. This problem could be partially solved by the "city fathers" by making and enforcing a curfew law. Parents need education along this line also.

Each year we have several cases of defective eyesight or defective hearing. These children are underweight because of the strain of trying to hear and see with ears and eyes that are far from normal. A more rapid increase in gain is always noticeable when a child has been fitted with glasses. One child was in the room a whole year before we could persuade the parents to get glasses for her. She made so little progress during the year that we took her into the room again. Early in the year she was fitted with glasses, began to gain, and in three months had attained her normal weight and had left the room.

Better Health After Tonsil Operations

Special effort is also made to have tonsil and adenoid operations performed when necessary. Such an operation is practically always followed by better health and sometimes helps those who have defective hearing. Lip reading for those who are not helped by this operation would have the same effect on the hard-of-hearing child that glasses have on those with defective eyesight. Valuable information on this subject can be obtained from the pamphlet "The Hard-of-Hearing Child" published by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education.

By the close of the school year the majority of the class have reached the normal or 7 per cent weight line. Though they may be below normal weight in the fall, we do not take them into the room again unless there is some special reason for it. They have learned the rules of the health game and what they need to do to have good health and their places are taken by new and more needy cases.

Economy of Time Through Reorganization of Junior College

By CHARLES H. JUDD

Director School of Education, University of Chicago

UP TO the present time the junior college has been thought of as a part of the traditional educational system of America. It has been regarded merely as a transplanted freshman and sophomore year. The transplanting has consisted in detaching the two years in question from the last two years of college. Sometimes the junior college has stood as a separate institution, sometimes as a relatively unassimilated part of a public-school system. In view of the conservative attitude of educators, the curriculum of the junior college has been very commonly dictated by the conventional practices of colleges, all the courses offered being duplicates, so far as possible, of those given in neighboring four-year institutions.

The time has arrived for a frank recognition of the fact that the whole American educational program is in process of reconstruction. The work of the lower schools has been so much improved that pupils are ready for mature advanced studies long before the end of the eighth school year. In like fashion, pupils who were formerly thought of as immature adolescents are ready for courses which formerly belonged in the college.

It is a distinct economy of human time and effort to advance pupils into higher opportunities of study as soon as they are ready. The junior college belongs to the period of secondary education and should be attached to the high school. Pupils should be allowed to complete secondary education, including junior college work, earlier than is possible under the conventional plan of American education. Economy of time, as thus defined, does not in any way curtail the opportunity of individuals but opens these opportunities at an earlier period in the individual's life. Economy of time thus means earlier entrance on advanced stages of study.

Abstract of a statement before divisional meeting of the department of superintendence, National Education Association, Boston meeting.

College Students Conduct English Exercises

As an experiment the socialized recitation plan in college work has been introduced this year in the State College of Washington, Pullman, in classes in oral English. Each class has been organized with a president, a secretary, and two critics. Students have entire charge of preparing and staging programs at each session of the class. The professor's duties are mainly advisory, and giving at the end of the class period a brief constructive criticism of the students' work. Among the advantages of the method are development of naturalness and ease in the speaking conduct of students; cultivation of an "audience sense" on the part of students; and criticism by fellow students as well as by the instructor.

Agricultural Colleges Supported Principally by States

State participation in the support of land-grant colleges in the United States increased from 38 per cent of the whole in 1901 to 52 per cent in 1926, as shown by a study of land-grant colleges by Walter J. Greenleaf, associate specialist, published by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, as Bulletin, 1927, No. 37. In spite of the fact that Federal appropriations to land-grant colleges and universities increased more than 500 per cent during this period, contributions from other sources were proportionately greater, and during the school year 1925–26 Government participation amounted to only about 10 per cent of all institutional receipts. This fact indicates a healthy condition of the colleges, large State appropriations reflecting increased popular interest in education of this character. Of total receipts of $129,219,491 during the year, $66,893,568 was contributed by the States in which the institutions are located. State appropriations were expended for operation and maintenance, permanent improvements, lands, buildings, experiment stations, research, regulatory service, and endowment.

Activities of the Parent-Teacher Associations of Michigan

By MILDRED RUMBOLD WILKINSON

National Congress of Parents and Teachers

ALTHOUGH it is one of the largest organizations in this country, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers differs from other organizations in its constantly changing membership. Parents drop out of the local grade associations as their children go on to higher grades; often families move to other localities in the same city, leaving one association to join another. The work goes on, but the workers continually change.

Mrs. J. K. Pettingill, of Lansing, Mich., president of the State branch, stresses in her New Year's message the importance of the service rendered during the short-time membership. "Most of us," states Mrs. Pettingill, "are called upon to give to this parent-teacher movement but a brief service in point of time, a few years at the most. Let us give ourselves intensely and devotedly before we step aside to let others take our places; then we shall have the satisfaction of knowing that we have done our best; that we have been for a short time a part of a fine, great cause, and that we have availed ourselves of an offered opportunity for worth-while service."

That the parents and teachers of Michigan have availed themselves of this opportunity is evidenced by the record of the accomplishments of the past year as reported by Mrs. Fred. S. Raymond, of Grand Rapids, president of the State branch last year and now acting chairman for Founder's Day for the national congress.

Informed Workers the Primary Aim

This branch, organized in 1917 with 70 associations, had more than 60,000 members in 925 associations in April, 1927. Although the State branch is proud of this growth it is stressing increased membership not so much as trained leadership and informed parent-teacher workers. Michigan is divided into nine districts with definite plans for the work of each district.

In order to carry on effectively a working program in each county, county councils have been organized. There are at present 18 of these councils and 35 county chairmen. Thirty-six cities have city councils. Without this help the routine of the State office would be much more complicated and less effective.

In preparation for the training of leaders Mrs. Charles E. Roe, field secretary of the national congress, conducted a "leadership institute" at the State convention and assisted the officers in arranging and planning classes for leaders, which were held later in other parts of the State. This was one of the three projects approved by the State board and carried out during the past year.

The second, a community score card, was prepared by a committee composed of a State university professor, a high-school principal, and the State chairman of recreation. This score card is especially planned for the use of communities which are willing to check their needs and call upon organizations or individuals that can help to better conditions. Ten requirements were enumerated which constitute the best type of community. A selected group of leaders scored these. By this method of self-examination a check up on community needs was made, the results listed, and plans made to improve conditions for happiness, health, ethical ideals, and education. This score card was printed in the January issue of the Michigan Educational Journal and reprints may still be obtained.

Scholarships Aid Teachers in Health Study

The third was a health project. Local associations offered scholarships to teachers willing to attend some university or summer school for special work in health education. These were chosen for special fitness and ability to bring back new ideas along health lines. This plan follows a resolution passed at the State meeting last year which urged superintendents of schools and school boards to employ teachers who emphasized health education in their preparation. Two such scholarships were granted for last summer.

Michigan is fortunate in having a full-time lecturer on social hygiene provided by the State department of health. The State child hygiene chairman has given excellent assistance. All material for the summer round-up was mailed from her office. She is also a member of the staff of the State department of health.

The department of public instruction has rendered material assistance in printing the report of the 1926 convention and a reprint of the State handbook compiled by Mrs. Edgar Kiefer in 1924. Again this year, as last, this department, through the county commissioner of the county where the State convention was held, provided financial assistance for the speakers who appeared on the program.

Interest in the summer round-up has steadily increased. Two years ago one school enrolled; last year, 42. On May 1, 1927, 273 associations were listed in this attempt to have children 100 per cent physically fit for school. Kalamazoo (city and county) and Grand Rapids and Kent County registered 100 per cent. Kent County nurses, through the assistance of the Junior Red Cross, conducted a county-wide campaign, and Wayne County, Bay City, and several other districts worked for 100 per cent enrollment. The governor of the State, under date of March 30, 1927, issued this proclamation to encourage the state-wide plans for child health day, May 1:

"In furtherance of the splendid effort of the organizations interested in the development of a child-welfare program I wish to commend this very worthy undertaking.

Children Our Most Valuable Asset

"Outside the work of building the kingdom of God there is no more important work than the building of clean, honest, Christian men and women. The boys and girls, our most valuable asset, must have first consideration, therefore I earnestly request the people of this State to observe Sunday, May 1, 1927, as child-health day—this day to be devoted to directing the attention of the public to the vital importance of improving conditions upon which child health and child welfare depend."

The standards in literature committee doubled the number of chairmen, 45 working along this special line. The preschool committee had a record equally as good, and the child study and adult education outlines for the past year gained steadily in their appeal.

Normal Schools Give Credit Courses

Two of our State normal schools gave parent-teacher associations credit courses in their summer schools, and two arranged sectional meetings at the time of their midyear conferences. Professor Arnold, of Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio, was invited to speak at the summer parent-teacher conferences at Ypsilanti State Normal College and Western State Normal College at Kalamazoo. Our home education chairman is the director of continuing education at the Michigan State College. The children's reading chairman is director of library extension at Ann Arbor. She recently, through the public relations committee of the Michigan Library Association, outlined a plan whereby the needs of each community may be known. With this information local groups are urged to strive more earnestly for better books and more books for every citizen in Michigan.

The student loan committee sent questionnaires to educators and council presi-

dents asking for data and opinions as to future activities of this department. The general preference seemed to be for local loan funds, rather than a state-wide fund. Many such funds are now established, some for the use of high-school students, others for college students.

By the cooperation and encouragement of county council workers music teachers for one-room country schools have been provided in some counties. Teachers of high standard go from one school to another to give instruction, both vocal and instrumental. One county had a combined county-wide glee club of 300 voices and an orchestra of 125, trained separately and then assembled under the direction of a trained leader. These groups presented an inspiring program for one county council meeting and have awakened interest in music in the rural districts. Many parent-teacher associations have furnished musical instruments, uniforms, and music for orchestras and bands.

Mother-singers' clubs have been formed. One group of 30 voices ranging in ages from 30 to 60 furnished the music for the annual founders' day banquet. Christmas caroling has been sponsored, and a prize has been offered for an original song, words, and music, for the Michigan branch. Thirty-five thousand Michigan song sheets were sent out this year. Some of the songs were of patriotic nature, some from the national song sheet, and some were original words set to music. Three prizes were given for the best of the last-named class.

A feature of the tenth annual convention was a breakfast on the opening morning for men delegates. Sixty fathers were enrolled and 45 attended. The breakfast was in charge of the State vice president, Mr. Dennis Strong. A few men are officers, and many more serve as committee chairmen. A resolution was presented to the convention urging the encouragement of father delegates. The theme of this convention was "Trained leadership—informed membership."

Well-Prepared School Lunch for 15 Cents

A plate lunch of four carefully selected food articles, at 15 cents per plate, is served to pupils of Roosevelt Junior High School, Richmond, Calif. Two women, a cook and a salad maker, prepare the food, and 300 pupils are served in 10 minutes. This arrangement eliminates choice of food by children, and tends to create a taste for wholesome food. The service so far has been self-supporting. Similar lunch service will be installed in the senior high school when the new building is occupied.

Supervision from the Standpoint of the Teacher

By CORNELIA S. ADAIR

President National Education Association

EDUCATIONAL systems must keep their courses of study flexible enough to be in accordance with the needs of children if they are to keep abreast of the needs of a rapidly changing civilization.

Courses of study reflect child needs best when they are the product of the cooperative effort of teachers and supervisors. Curriculum building has proven one of the best means yet found for training teachers in service. It helps to train each teacher to study the problems of the individual child. It encourages teachers to seek a new content in education and to vitalize the old content by more effective forms of organizations and interpretation.

Just as the supervision of children has been made more constructive by the modern educational advance so has the supervision of teaching become a profession in itself. The development of the departments within the National Education Association suggests this growth. The department of secondary school principals is larger than the whole association a few years ago. It is a far cry from the so-called early supervision which consisted of an occasional visit to the school by the district trustees, to the highly trained, sympathetic and efficient supervision of the modern school principal and his staff.

Good supervision has definite, well-understood standards and a well-organized program. It is essentially a cooperative procedure. It supplies the means which enable teachers to live up to the set standards and to carry out the authorized program.

What teachers need is inspirational leadership. Much that is superimposed is valueless. Encouragement and suggestions together with helpful demonstrations will build up a teaching morale worthy of the name.

Abstract of statement before department of superintendence, National Education Association, Boston meeting.

Four Languages Stimulate Parent-Teacher Work

A special edition in four languages—Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and English—of The Pinion, a student publication of McKinley High School, Honolulu, Hawaii, was issued recently to acquaint parents of pupils with activities of the school and to stimulate the participation of the parent-teacher association in school work. Branch meetings of racial groups and a drive in the school, with the offer of a prize to the class having the largest parent membership in the association, have been successful in increasing membership in the parent-teacher association and enlisting the cooperation of parents in supplying needed equipment and assisting in other work of the school.

State Supervision of School Sanitation

Responsibility for sanitation of schools in at least 12 States is placed upon the State department of health, in 6 States it is under the supervision of the State department of education, and in 12 States the responsibility is shared jointly, as shown by a study of the present status of school hygiene in the United States recently made by Dr. James Frederick Rogers, chief of division of physical education in the United States Bureau of Education. A sanitary survey of 92 schools was made last year by the department of health of Indiana. Improvements were ordered in 68 cases, and in 24 cases use of buildings was prohibited until sanitary conditions had been remedied. The State department of health of Connecticut recently completed a survey of school water supply, and the department of health of Kentucky is making a sanitary survey in 40 counties.

Practical Instruction Interests "Problem Boys"

A study of the oil industry, involving construction of a miniature plant, was successfully used in arousing the interest of 25 "problem boys" in the elementary school of Martinez, Calif., whose relatives or friends are connected with the industry. The project motivated their reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. They studied the geography of the oil section, refineries, and pipe lines; made drawings of the formation of oil-bearing strata, and of the progress of the oil from the earth to the refinery; studied the history of the use of oil; and wrote compositions.

Influences That Helped to Build Abraham Lincoln's Character

Lincoln Himself Declared that He Owed Everything to His Mother. Attitude of Productive Activity was a Significant Characteristic. Participation in Rustic Debates on Religious and Political Questions Meant Much in Intellectual Development. Religious Element was Strong in Lincoln's Home Environment

By F. M. GREGG

Professor of Psychology, Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln, Nebr.

(*Continued from the February number.*)

WITH the coming of the spring of 1826, when Abraham Lincoln was 17, his school days completely ended. He worked around home and in the neighborhood the first half of the year, but in midsummer he secured a job at Poseys Landing, at the mouth of Anderson Creek on the Ohio River, 18 miles to the southeast of his home. His principal occupation was to operate a ferry across Anderson Creek. Occasionally he took a passenger out to a river steamer and put him aboard. Once he hurriedly took two passengers with their trunks to a halting steamer, and each tossed back to him a half dollar, the first "big money" he ever received for his services.

The spring of 1827 found Lincoln again at work at Poseys Landing. The Dill brothers, on the Kentucky side, had a license to ferry passengers across the Ohio. On one occasion, after Lincoln had repeated his practice of conveying passengers to the middle of the Ohio, the ferrymen called him over to the Kentucky side of the river. They threatened to duck him for taking their business away from them, but on looking him over a second time, they decided to invite Lincoln to go with them to Squire Pate's courtroom, a few hundred yards away. Once there they put him under arrest and the case of the Commonwealth of Kentucky versus Abraham Lincoln was on for immediate trial.

Logical Argument Wins Court Decision

Magistrate Pate heard the evidence on both sides. Lincoln admitted the facts alleged but denied having infringed upon the rights of the licensed ferrymen, who were authorized to carry passengers across the river. The license, however, did not forbid others from ferrying passengers to the middle of the stream. He argued that the ferryboat could not always be on the Indiana side of the river and that river steamers should not be held up until ferrymen could come across for Indiana passengers. Lincoln's straightforward story so impressed Magistrate Pate, that he acquitted him of the charges brought against him.

Lincoln thus became interested in legal proceedings and frequently after this event he went over to Pate's courtroom to hear cases argued. He also obtained a copy of the Statutes of Indiana from the sheriff of Spencer County, who lived in Jonesboro, and read it completely through. He borrowed other legal books from Judge Pitcher at Rockport. On one occasion he walked 13 miles to Boonville to hear a famous pleader, Attorney Breckenridge, in a case at law. On the conclusion of the proceedings he said to Breckenridge that this was the greatest speech he had ever heard. Thus, Lincoln slowly was drawn into his future profession, the law.

Beloved Sister Dies in Childbirth

A month before his nineteenth birthday, Abe was called to the Pigeon Church to attend the funeral of his only sister, who had died while giving birth to her first child. Sarah was much beloved by him, for she had been a mother to him in the dreary months after their real mother had died. For the second time in his life, he was called upon to look into an open grave that received the body of a loved one.

Opportunity to See Outside World

Abe finally grew restless under his father's restraint and control. He consulted with his friend Woods at Rockport about leaving home "for good," but Woods advised him to go back and remain until he was legally of age. Shortly after his return home, he was given the chance as a companion of Allen Gentry, to take a flatboat load of goods to New Orleans for James Gentry, to be sold in the Ohio and Mississippi River towns. This gave him the coveted opportunity to see something of the great world outside of southern Indiana. The flatboat was sold, and the return was made by steamer. The expedition, which occupied the time from March to June, brought an income of $8 a month and young Abe's board. This was not the trip that evoked from Lincoln his famous remark about slavery; that was uttered when he visited New Orleans a few years later.

After returning to Jonesboro, Abe again entered on the same dreary round of

Jones's store stood at "J" and the log schoolhouse was at "S"

existence which had characterized his life for several years. Thus time wore on until he was nearly 21 years old. In the interval a part of his time was spent as a clerk in Jones's store. His particular job was to butcher and dress pork and sell the meat. His political education grew apace before the fireplace in the store, where the solons of the neighborhood collected to discuss the issues of the day. Here he became acquainted with Judge Daniel Gross, of the State legislature; Congressman Ratliff Boon, of Boonville; and William Prince, who had much to do with training the company of militia at Boonville.

Anderson Creek where Abraham Lincoln operated a ferryboat

In the fall of 1826 Lincoln began to assemble materials for building a cabin for himself, but his plans were upset when another epidemic of the "milk sick" appeared in the valley of Pigeon Creek. His father, becoming alarmed, promptly decided to leave the fateful valley, and migrate to the prairies of Illinois. The building stuff which Abe had collected was sold. Abe and his father built a wagon, the wheels of which were solid narrow sections of a big log, to convey the household goods to Illinois. In February, 1830, just after Abe had become of age, the Lincolns and all their relatives traveled by ox teams over the rest of the Troy-Vincennes trail via Boonville to Illinois.

An Awkward Youth, Potential of Achievement

Thus did Indiana send Abraham Lincoln forth from her borders, "a tall, strong, awkward youth who had not been seriously in love, who had not united with any church, who had not cast a vote, but who had in him the promise and potency of great achievements." So wrote Barton, Lincoln's biographer.

We now say "good-by" to Lincoln as he goes off to his new home and his greater career. Perhaps we can best conclude this sketchy review of an important period of his life by a brief examination of the psychological influences that helped to build his character. In the first place, he had the full benefit of an intelligent and devoted mother's love. In later years he declared that he owed everything to his mother. This statement may well have included both his mothers, though one of his biographers thinks he referred only to his stepmother, whom he revered to the end of her days and to whom he devoted his first large lawyer's fee for the purchase of a home.

While Lincoln was never an enthusiast for physical labor, he early learned to work and to be always profitably occupied. He seems never to have indulged in card-playing to occupy his time. Neither was there opportunity to expose himself to the contagion of the modern madness for amusement. The real child-labor problem of all times, and particularly of our own, is not nearly so much to protect the child from labor as it is to inculcate in him habits of industry. An attitude for productive activity was one of the significant social heritages of the Great Emancipator and greatly helped to make him what he finally became.

Intellectually, Lincoln probably obtained his greatest schooling in Jones's store, as he sat by the fireplace at the north end of the long room. The largest contribution that came to him from his frequent visits to the Jones's store was the chance to participate in the hot debates on slavery, baptism, foreordination, sobriety, the communism of the New Harmony settlement, the internal improvements of the country, and Jacksonian democracy. At this same fireplace he must have picked up a great wealth of human incidents that served him on so many occasions in his later years.

Religious Influence an Essential Element

The religious element in his life contributed a very essential part to his character. The human mind is fundamentally and inescapably social. What one is depends very much on whom one personally cares for. If one does not care for anybody very much, his will be a wobbly character. If he cares for the approval of a particular social group, the ideals of that group will shape his character. If he cares for a divine companion, he will be religious. In Lincoln's case he heard the Bible read and prayers offered every morning and evening throughout his boyhood and youth. The group of pioneers whose religious lives centered at the little Pigeon Church became the center of his social orientation. It made him a predestinarian, and he learned to fear and reverence God and to keep His commandments.

Looking at Lincoln in a geographic way, one may conclude that Kentucky gave him birth, Indiana gave him character, Illinois gave him opportunity,

Lincoln's first trip to New Orleans began at this point

America gave him vision; and the God of the Universe gave him affection for all mankind. In return, Abraham Lincoln left to this country an example of unfaltering patriotism, to his fellow men the ideal of abounding human sympathy, and to the world at large the memory of "a man for all the ages."

In the story of Lincoln, as here presented, it will have been noted that his "home town" is said to have been Jonesboro, instead of the Gentryville of the Lincoln biographers. Such a departure calls for explanation.

The last log house of Jonesboro stood until about 1900

For information on the subject of Lincoln's home town in Indiana, the writer is indebted to visits made to the place and to data gathered from various sources, among them being the bulletin of the Southwestern Historical Society, for December, 1926; the article by Judge Roscoe Kiper, of Boonville, in the Kiwanis Magazine, February, 1927; and from Government post-office records. But most of all he is indebted to Mr. and Mrs. Bullock, now about 70 years of age, and to their daughter, Grace Jeanette, who is the principal of the Gentryville public schools. Since 1885 the Bullocks have owned the land upon which the original Jonesboro stood, and they still live in the old brick house that was built many years ago by the Jonesboro storekeeper, William Jones.

Sites of Homes Marked by Household Debris

The Bullocks gathered their information from the older people of the generation of men and women who preceded them. The places where the dozen or more cabins stood are still marked by bits of old-fashioned dishware and other surviving remnants of pioneer domestic life. Indeed, Mr. Jones's log barn and his remodeled store were still standing when the Bullocks came into possession of the place, as well as the last of the habitable log houses of Jonesboro.

Many years ago an old pioneer, William Padgett by name, told Mr. Bullock, that he had attended school on that spot, and that the accepted tradition was that here is where Abe Lincoln had gone to school. So far as the writer knows, this is the first published information of the definite location of any of the schools in Indiana attended by Lincoln.

The reason for the decline of Jonesboro and the rise of Gentryville was that about the summer of 1830, that is, shortly after the Lincolns left for Illinois, the Rockport road was put through to Bloomington in central Indiana; this extension carried the crossroads about a half mile to the east of the original site of old Jonesboro out across the marshy valley of Pigeon Creek to the north. At this new crossroads the land was owned by James Gentry, and here a new town began to spring up. The post office records show that a post office bearing the name of Gentrys was established there in March, 1831.

On the southwest corner of the crossroads William Jones erected a new store building and moved his merchandise to that place. The post office records further show that the name of the new town and post office was changed to Gentrysville in 1835, and then in 1837 to Jonesboro, which name it bore until 1844, when it finally became Gentryville. With the coming of a railroad in later years a half mile south of the cross roads, the business section of the town moved down near the railroad station. The 500 villagers now live in houses strung along this half mile of "main street"; a paved road, a part of the Hemmingway highway, runs through it.

It is the dream of the writer that some day not far distant, the State of Indiana or some patriotic organization may take over the town site of the original Jonesboro and build a replica of the old hamlet. A corresponding action has been taken at New Salem, Ill., to which place Lincoln went from Indiana, and that interesting spot is the mecca of thousands of autoists every summer.

A beautiful park has been established to commemorate the burial place of Nancy Hanks Lincoln, and a fine granite monument marks the location of the old Lincoln cabin, in the school yard of what is now Lincoln City, a town that sprang up in the latter part of the nineteenth century because of the discovery of coal and the coming of a railroad.

A continuous parkway from Lincoln City to Old Jonesboro, 2½ miles away, would not only preserve the sacred spots so often traversed by Abraham Lincoln during the 14 years of his life in Indiana, but would furnish to the passing generations a concrete picture in the reproduced Jonesboro, of a pioneer village of the log-cabin days of a great Commonwealth.

Another International Compact in Education

By an agreement between the University of San Marcos and the University of Paris, signed during the past month, a Franco-Peruvian university is established which looks toward helping the students of each country in the other, toward spreading a knowledge of each country in the other, and toward a system of exchange professors.—*Pierre de L. Boal, American chargé d'affairs ad interim, Lima, Peru, September 1, 1927.*

The Lincoln cabin was in what is now a school yard

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1928

Teachers Maintain an Exceptional Standard of Conduct

UR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM has called its teachers from the body of the people, and has commissioned them to teach the ideals of the mass as well as the knowledge of the more favored few. It is, therefore, in itself truly democratic. This teaching of ideals is by its nature spontaneous and unstudied. And it has had to be sincere. The public-school teacher can not live apart; he can not separate his teaching from his daily walk and conversation. He lives among his pupils during school hours, and among them and their parents all the time. He is peculiarly a public character under the most searching scrutiny of watchful and critical eyes. His life is an open book. His habits are known to all. His office, like that of a minister of religion, demands of him an exceptional standard of conduct. And how rarely does a teacher fall below that standard! How seldom does a teacher figure in a sensational headline in a newspaper! It is truly remarkable, I think, that so vast an army of people—approximately eight hundred thousand—so uniformly meets its obligations, so effectively does its job, so decently behaves itself, as to be almost utterly inconspicuous in a sensation-loving country. It implies a wealth of character, of tact, of patience, of quiet competence, to achieve such a record as that.

—*Herbert Hoover.*

Secondary Education of Universal Accessibility and Maximum Flexibility

I BELIEVE IN A SYSTEM of secondary education which has universal accessibility and maximum flexibility. I believe that we should put forth in this country all the energy we can command in the effort to supply the oncoming generation with the most stimulating ideas that we can offer. I believe that this duty will be most fully discharged by enriching the curriculum. I do not believe that the highest form of training is secured through mere sequential drill. I believe that it is possible to stimulate the minds of pupils to independent thinking and that such thinking is the highest achievement of an educational institution. I believe in local control guided by science. Above all, I believe in giving the people of this country a clear idea of the virtues and advantages of our educational system. I believe that a discussion of American problems can be carried on in such a way that the young people in the schools will have a true idea of their privileges and opportunities and the public will be willing to support adequately the experiment of universal secondary education. ¶ In this faith, I am confident that it is the duty of all who are aware of the magnitude and importance of this enterprise to turn away from trivial criticism and from speculation as to possible abandonment of the present type of organization and to use all the energy that is available in bringing into the present system the most highly trained leaders that can be provided.

Charles H. Judd.

SCHOOL LIFE

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April
1928

WELLINGTON, THE CAPITAL OF NEW ZEALAND, POSSESSES A SUPERB HARBOR

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Secretary of the Interior, HUBERT WORK - - - - - *Commissioner of Education,* JOHN JAMES TIGERT

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Eventful Meeting of Department of Superintendence at Boston

Secondary Education in Its Various Aspects Was the Central Theme. Address by President Lowell, of Harvard, Evoked Spirited Response. Influence of Nature and Nurture Upon Intelligence and Upon Achievement, as Presented in Twenty-seventh Yearbook of National Society for the Study of Education, Was the Subject of Fruitful Discussions. Sectional Meetings of Unusual Excellence

By KATHERINE M. COOK
Chief, Rural Education Division, Bureau of Education

SO THIS is Boston! With a background of historical significance unequaled by any other city in the country large enough to entertain the constantly growing group which attends the annual winter meeting; with the coldest wave since 1924 involving two days of zero weather in a week of prevailing sunshine; with more than the usual social attention, including that from the governor of the State as well as city and educational officials, Boston greeted the fifty-eighth meeting of the department of superintendence and allied organizations. The meeting passed into history in a dramatic final session, the first of departmental general programs to be devoted to aeronautics, with the idolized "Lindy" as a speaker and for once an onlooker also while his mother was presented with the gold emblem symbolizing life membership in the National Education Association.

Excellent Program Gave Substance to Meeting

The theme of the fifty-eighth meeting as established in advance in an outstanding and carefully prepared program was secondary education in all its different phases, reaching upward into the field of higher education and downward into that of the elementary school. But a program is only a program. It does not make a meeting—not always, at least. It may give substance, but events give tone. Giving tone to the meeting and determining the trend of many a discussion in the general, sectional, and the equally significant and interesting lobby programs were a few outstanding addresses and events. First in importance in this respect was President Lowell's address at the Monday morning general program. This was perhaps the most thought-provoking, if not the most generally approved, address of the meeting.

New President Elected Without Opposition

Perhaps of equal interest and importance was the presentation of the twenty-seventh yearbook of the national society, together with the discussions and criticisms during the two meetings devoted to it. The election without opposition of Superintendent Boynton to the presidency, following his spirited answer to President Lowell's criticisms of the public-school system, was another one of the high spots which gave raison d'être to various applications and references made in the course of many addresses and discussions throughout the sessions.

President Lowell's subject was the "Relation of secondary schools to colleges." The following are some of the outstanding passages of his address:

> The cost per student in the faculty of arts and sciences at Harvard in 1911-12 was $183.38, and 1926-27, $305, an increase of 67 per cent, while in the same period the cost of salaries per pupil in the public schools of 20 large cities in Massachusetts had enlarged 167 per cent. The public may well ask itself why so rapid an increase and whereunto it will grow. The teaching profession sees no need of a limit, but the public is likely to differ with that view. * * *
>
> Why should not secondary schools in America, as in England, France, and Germany, finish secondary education by the time the pupils are in their nineteenth year, the age at which they graduate therefrom in all these countries? That they do not do so in this country is universally admitted, with the result that the colleges devote one or two years—usually two—to instruction of a secondary nature before the student is prepared for work of university grades. Some colleges are therefore proposing to divide their courses into two distinct parts, the first two years being frankly of secondary character; and all over the country, increasingly as one travels westward, junior colleges are being set up which are not really colleges but schools for continuing secondary education. * * *
>
> At present American youth either enters upon its career in life too old, or it is deprived of a couple of years of instruction which the young people of the same age enjoy in Europe. The retardation is only in small part due to the secondary school itself. It is in the main caused by beginning the whole process of education too late, by the slow progress in elementary schools, and by insufficient provision for more rapid advance by the pupils who are destined to go far. * * *
>
> Have we not neglected a little this side of the problem in our effort to push all children through the whole educational mill; and in doing so have we not to some extent unwittingly sacrificed the more intelligent to their own damage and that of the community? * * *
>
> One of the defects we observe in not a few candidates for admission to college is a dispersion of high-school studies over many fields, no one of which has been pursued long enough to give a thorough grasp of the subject. * * *
>
> There has been an overwhelming revulsion against the drudgery of dull disciplinary tasks that bred disgust with school and all its mechanism. An attempt has been made to render study pleasant, but often, unfortunately, by making it easy.

Incoming President Made Direct Response

Naturally such a challenge to the superintendents of the country, the one group most directly responsible for existing conditions, whatever their nature, not only evoked a direct reply but answering echoes from many speakers throughout succeeding meetings. Dr. Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools of Ithaca, uncontested candidate for the presidency of the department, made the direct reply:

> Our American public schools are great service stations established by and in the interests of the public for all the children of the people at a cost that is comparatively negligible when we take into consideration the service rendered. * * *

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It is rather naive for a great college president to say that the public schools are trying to run the whole mass of the population through the same mill. The selective process goes on all through the school system. Not half of the 1 per cent of our population graduating from high school goes on to college. If the wrong ones are admitted the trouble is with the college gatekeeper. President Lowell says we should graduate pupils at 16. The answer is that we do. Colleges have to be petitioned to accept children who are graduated so young that the colleges do not want them. He says the junior college is not a real college. The fact is the 300 junior colleges in America are a protest against the exclusion act of higher educational institutions.

Referring to President Lowell's reference to European schools, Superintendent Boynton said:

The time will never come in this country when we pattern our school program on those of European schools. It is for American conditions, not European, that we are training our pupils in public education.

Following are a few examples from the many speakers who at different meetings and from various points of view referred directly or indirectly to the cost of education, doubtless prompted by Doctor Lowell's address:

Dr. Fletcher Harper Swift, on Wednesday morning's general program devoted to the financing of public education, said that "no one would think we are spending too much money for schools who could visit the rural schools and see under what handicaps education is carried on." He said that in one of the States of the Union one-tenth of the teachers are receiving $300 a year or less.

State Supt. Albert S. Cook, of Maryland, at the same session, told the conference that mass education is the safeguard of a democracy and equality of opportunity is the ideal of our democracy. He said there should be equality of educational opportunity for all children of the State; that is the ideal back of the equalizing principle in State-school support.

"Extravagant, are we? No; economical compared to the play boys of the colleges. Inefficient? Hardly, when our task is to give secondary education to all democracy's children. And we speak up boldly in justification of our labor because we believe that the glory of America is her public schools," said James C. Bay, superintendent of schools, Easton, Pa.

Yearbook Arouses Sharp Debate

The discussions of the twenty-seventh yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on Nature and Nurture resulted in two spirited sessions, the first taking on somewhat the aspect of a debate, with pointed questions coming in rapid-fire manner from the floor. The discussion for this evening centered on the influence of nature and nurture upon intelligence. Such well-known and proficient speakers in debate as Charles H. Judd, Frank N. Freeman, W. C. Bagley, Lewis M. Terman participated. Doctor Freeman and Doctor Terman apparently upheld the hereditarians, Doctor Bagley and Doctor Judd the more ardent believers in the possibilities of learning. A second session held the following Tuesday evening was devoted more particularly to criticism of the content of the yearbook from the standpoint of the influence of nature and nurture upon achievement. S. A. Courtis discussed it from the standpoint of the measurement and analysis of school achievement; Arthur Gates from that of observed results and theoretical concepts. Bird T. Baldwin discussed "heredity and environment or capacity and training" and B. R. Buckingham "the meaning of small differences in educational procedure." Part II of the yearbook, the subject of the evening's program, was introduced by Lewis M. Terman, chairman of the yearbook committee.

Echoes of the discussion were widespread during the week. Interpretations, of course, differed, hereditarians finding in the investigation substantiation for all their claims and beliefs, while the environmentalists, believers in the possibilities of learning, apparently felt equally encouraged by the results.

The junior college, the newest member of the secondary education family, received far more attention than on any previous program of the department.

Endowment Fund for Educational Research

The report of Supt. R. J. Condon's committee on financing educational research, in which he recommended a drive for a million-dollar endowment fund, was of outstanding interest. Doctor Condon's committee suggested the creation of a fund sufficient to produce an annual income of $40,000. This "should be a genuine cooperative undertaking by which the superintendents themselves, through sacrifice and devotion to the public welfare, undertake the raising of the fund through small gifts rather than large ones." No paid solicitor should be employed. The fund should be managed by trustees of the National Education Association and the work carried forward by committees and commissions appointed by the executive committee of the department of superintendence and subject to their general direction. The report states: "While deeply appreciative of the grant that has been made ($15,000 from the Carnegie Corporation), without which the work of the past four years could not have been done, we do not believe we ought in the future to depend upon such gifts." This attitude of the committee will be recognized as in one sense a right-about face from that which in the past has been rather generally adopted in regard to research, many educators and research committees having felt that endowment funds so lavishly spent in general research and welfare work should be available for research in education.

Conferences Held by Bureau of Education

The Bureau of Education held three special conferences at Boston, all of which are reviewed elsewhere in this number.

Sectional meetings, of which there were the usual number, were of unwonted excellence and value. Among the very active and rapidly growing allied organizations are the department of elementary principals; a new organization of elementary supervisors, an outgrowth of the conference on educational method; and an enlarged council of women in administration. The group discussing platoon schools had large and enthusiastic meetings. Rural education received more than the usual share of attention. One of the outstanding addresses on that subject was by Adam McMullen, Governor of Nebraska.

Many delegates arrived several days in advance of the regular opening meeting on Monday, some to attend preliminary conferences, such as that of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges, those of the National Society for the Study of Education, that called by the Bureau of Education on rural-teacher training, and the like. Others came early to have more leisure for visiting Boston and vicinity. "Patriotic pilgrimages" claimed considerable time and attention of delegates. Wednesday afternoon a large delegation went to Plymouth, where a special pageant was staged in their honor. Lexington and Concord, Salem, the Wayside Inn, and the schoolhouse of Mary's little lamb were drawing cards of considerable importance. Devoting one full program to a discussion of the relationship of schools to aviation was an innovation.

Some Meeting Places Hard to Reach

Meeting places were widely scattered and somewhat difficult of access in many instances. Mechanics' Hall is better suited for exhibits than for meetings in which carefully prepared and scholarly addresses are to be delivered and comfortable seating as well as seeing and hearing is of paramount importance. However, excellent programs and good taxicab service compensated for some inconveniences. Hotel accomodations seemed ample, of a high degree of excellence. The Boston meeting was probably the largest held so far.

Physical education, which usually includes health education, in public schools is required by law in 35 States. Seventeen States employ a State director of physical education.

"You Can Do It," the Motto of Denver Opportunity School

Practical Objective Held Out to Students is "Prepare for Your Job and Succeed in It." Improved Relations Between Employers and Employees an Achievement Credited to the School. Will Teach Anything any Student Wishes to Learn, Without Regard to His Age or Previous Preparation. Teachers Are Chosen with Great Care

By L. R. ALDERMAN

Specialist in Adult Education, Bureau of Education

THE OPPORTUNITY SCHOOL is located near the business center of the city of Denver. It is housed in a dignified old school building that had been abandoned, and in one wing of a projected new building. This new wing is in striking contrast to the old building and shows the great changes in school architecture that have taken place in the past half century.

The office of the principal is at present in the old building. As one enters this building he sees on the wall a large motto, "You Can Do It." After a visit with the principal, Miss Emily Griffith, the writer was impressed with the fact that this motto expresses an important phase of the philosophy of the school. Each student is impressed with the idea that he can do it. The school is different from most schools in that the student is given in the beginning an assignment that he can do and that is of immediate importance to him. When this assignment is completed the next assignment is made, and so on.

Determining what the student should select as his objective is not a simple matter. It is at this point, perhaps, that Miss Griffith shows her greatest skill. While her complete sympathy with the student is most evident, the more effective characteristic is her ability to help the student select the work that is vital to him. The ability to do this comes not only from insight but from the genius for taking pains to discover all the essential elements in a case. Just as Luther Burbank was able to discover

The students of Denver Opportunity School are of all ages and of many types

differences in plants which most people would not see, so this woman is able to eliminate the obvious and lead the student to discover the things that he should select as his first task.

Most students in the Denver Opportunity School are employed or are seeking employment. This fact, perhaps, makes

One of the departments opened in the new wing

definite selection of immediate objectives easier than it otherwise would be. The writer was soon impressed with the fact that this school is in a very real way an enlightened employment bureau. If the reader is inclined to assume that this is an unworthy aim he is asked to hold his judgment in abeyance until the end of the story.

Aims to Fit Individuals for Employment

The school is, of course, more than an employment bureau; the fitting of individuals for successful employment is one of its most prominent aims. It is interesting that this school with such a practical and immediate objective as "Prepare for and succeed on your job" should develop such a thirst for information and culture that the busy students would secure 48,156 books from the central library in one year in addition to using constantly the Opportunity School's library of 2,500 volumes. Many of the books read were purely cultural. This creation by the Denver Opportunity School of the desire for information and culture approximates what is claimed for Danish folk high schools. It would be very profitable if we were to ascertain what kind of schools create the keenest thirst for information and culture as shown by the reading of its students.

A most optimistic feature of the cooperation between the Denver Opportunity School and Denver business men is that certain of the latter have consciously in mind two objectives—make the business pay and develop employees. Experience is showing that the surest way, in the long run, to make business pay is to develop the employee.

The old idea of some business men that employees should be kept alert by a constant fear of being discharged is giving way to the more constructive idea of cooperation between employer and employee because of the fact that the employer thinks of his plant as a part of the school from which the employee came and to which the employee goes from time to time for special instruction. Denver business men look upon the Opportunity School as *their* school from which they can get earnest employees and to which they can send employees for training.

Miss Griffith suggests that in all cases school men and women will do well to study the employment bureaus in their cities, because by these agencies their students are measured in the wage scales of the time. Many students must and most students may depend upon their own earning capacity. A school system to serve all the children of any city should have in mind those who must seek employment at an early date. Any school system that does not in its scheme of things offer information and culture to the employed is missing an important opportunity for service.

Struggles Due to Lack of Training

When asked how she got the idea for such an institution as the Opportunity School, Miss Griffith replied:

Eleven years ago I was teaching an eighth grade in a part of Denver where the parents of my students were having a hard struggle to keep their children in school. Upon visiting the homes I found that much of the struggle was due to the untrained fathers, older brothers, and sisters who were the wage earners. I found just a little help would mean much to the family. After many interviews with unemployed men and women, with free employment bureaus, with girls and women, high-school boys, college-trained people, I found them all untrained, discouraged, and out of step with any kind of skilled work.

I visioned a school in which there would be no age limit, no entrance requirement, no required number of hours, a place where a person could study the subjects he needed in order to fit him for life. I talked with educators, boards of school directors, organizations, luncheon clubs, women's clubs, labor workers. Finally, it was decided to let us have a school building which was not in use, being too near the heart of the city for a regular public school but ideally situated for a people's school.

The door of the Opportunity School is often the beginning of a new life

When asked in what particulars her school differs from other public schools of the city, Miss Griffith said:

No age limit for enrollment; no entrance requirements; no specified length of time for completion of a course; only the big vital facts emphasized in a subject; try to meet the immediate needs of pupils; do not believe in failure—in fact, do not allow failure. If a student falls behind he is given individual attention at once. We know our students. We make a special effort to know the ones who seem to need us most. We know their home life, where they work, and their employers. We place thousands of students in positions. The citizens of Denver, through their interest in the school, try to help build up the students we send to them. One of the big encouraging things that has happened during the last five years has been the changed attitude of employers toward their employees, and I think much of this is due to our follow-up.

Just the other day I sent a man over 50 years of age to take a position as bookkeeper. In a very short time the employer telephoned me that the man was snowed under. I told him that I had worked two years with that man and that he must not fail on his first job; that I was sending a teacher down and that with the teacher's help and his help we could pull him through. We not only got his help but the help of the whole office force, and the man remained.

We make a practice of telephoning firms whose employees are attending our classes. Just to-day I called up an electric firm and asked the manager if he knew that one of his men had been attending our classes here in applied electricity for two years. He said, "No; I did not know it; but that man will realize that I have found it out when the next promotion is made here."

The personal attention given to our students is somewhat different from that given in many schools and colleges. In our foreign department, for instance, each student carries a card which says, "The bearer of this card is a student of the Opportunity School and is worthy of your respect." You can imagine what that means to a man who has very little knowledge of our language and customs and is seeking a position."

When asked if she had the aims of the school in printed form, Miss Griffith gave the writer the following statement:

(1) To provide the fundamentals of an education for those persons who have been deprived of school advantages in youth.

(2) To provide a working knowledge of many of the trades and industries.

(3) To offer opportunities to men and women already in mechanical and industrial pursuits who have the ambition to become more efficient workers.

(4) To give another chance to boys and girls who, for various reasons, did not fit well in the regular public schools.

(5) To give people born in other countries a chance to learn English and also to prepare themselves for naturalization and citizenship.

The writer asked Miss Griffith if she had any suggestions for other cities that might wish to establish such a school as the Opportunity School of Denver. She said:

All cities wish to avoid waste. Chambers of commerce spend long hours studying this subject. The old mines at Cripple Creek and other places in Colorado are gradually being worked over to find if some ore is left in the discarded piles of dirt and if any by-products may be found.

A wing of the Opportunity School recently opened

No one can visit a city of any size in the United States without seeing the terrible waste of possibilities of untrained people. These people look at you on every corner; you meet them at every turn of the road. The only regret in a school of opportunity is the fact that one has a chance at so very few of these people on account of the limited space and equipment of the school.

The Opportunity School has grown from the very first. Last year, from September, 1926, until June, 1927, the attendance was 9,500. Seven thousand of the students were over 18 years of age.

Great care is taken in the selection of teachers for this school. The professional requirements for teachers of academic subjects are the same as for the elementary and high schools of the city. As far as possible, teachers are selected who have had experience which seems to fit them for sympathetic understanding of the problems that are likely to arise because of the wide range of age and educational desire incident to the many-sided purposes of the school. Instructors in all trade departments are men and women with years of successful trade experience. The subjects taught, grouped according to departments, are:

ACADEMIC

Elementary: Common branches, with some specialized prevocational subject.

Secondary: Full high-school course planned with reference to individual need and outlook.

INDUSTRIAL

Auto-mechanics—starting, lighting, and ignition; vulcanizing; baking; bricklaying and estimating for same; carpentry—use of steel square; drafting—architectural, mechanical, and use of slide rule; electricity—applied and in apprentice classes; welding—acetylene, electrical; machine-shop practice; shop mathematics; blueprint reading; paperhanging; landscape gardening; plumbing; printing; show-card writing; shoe repairing; beauty-parlor trade; millinery; sewing; cooking; dietetics for nurses.

COMMERCIAL

Accounting; arithmetic for business; bookkeeping; commercial law; use of dictaphone; English for business; multigraphing; office practice; use of office machinery; salesmanship; shorthand; show-card writing; spelling for business; telegraphy; typewriting.

To the school come hundreds of adult Americans who have learned in their contacts with the industrial world that they lack a working knowledge of the common branches and must be taught them if they are to secure advancement in the business in which they are employed. Upon enrollment these students are assigned to a room that resembles an ungraded country school. From here they are assigned to the rooms for instruction fitting their specific needs, and their individual programs are worked out through skillful guidance.

There are also classes to which adults unable to speak the English language may come, both day and evening, for instruction. For these classes the teachers have made special preparation concerning the best methods of teaching adult foreigners, not only English but all that pertains to becoming good citizens of America. The naturalization classes for foreigners desiring to take out citizenship papers are always crowded. These potential citizens learn not only of formal matters which pertain to the government of city, State, and Nation, but how to fit into their community life.

The classes for boys and girls in the elementary grades who do not fit into the regular school form a very important part of the program of the institution.

The Opportunity School also has an accredited high-school department, and students may receive, upon completion of the prescribed courses, the regular Denver high-school diploma. In the main this department seeks to help mature students who failed to secure high-school education earlier in life. Some of the students come

(*Continued on page 149.*)

Council of State Superintendents Discusses National Problems

Interrelation of State Departments of Education with Bureau of Education Occupies One Whole Session. Council Will Meet in Washington. Research Upon a National Scale Concerning Supply of Teachers and Sources of Revenue

AMONG the sections of the department of superintendence of constantly increasing importance is that of the National Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education. Six regular sessions were held by the councilat Boston, most of them at the department of education offices in the statehouse. A unique feature of the social program prepared for the entertainment of the council took place on Saturday preceding the regular meetings. The superintendents and commissioners met in the senate chamber of the historic Massachusetts statehouse—open for the first time to other than senators or senatorial groups for such a purpose. From the senate chamber the council proceeded to the statehouse grounds, where the United States Commissioner of Education placed a wreath at the base of the statue of Horace Mann, which stands, as the world of educators knows with a degree of pride, at one side of the entrance to the statehouse.

Commissioner Smith "Calls the Roll"

Luncheon was served later at the Wayside Inn, and a visit was made to the restored schoolhouse famous as the setting of the story of Mary's Little Lamb. Here the United States Commissioner of Education, introduced by the commissioner of education for Massachusetts, Dr. Payson Smith, "opened school," and in the manner of the best school tradition called the roll of chief State school officers of the several States.

Among the topics of special importance, or attracting greatest interest, discussed at the meetings were supervision of State expenditures for education and interrelation of the State departments of education and the United States Bureau of Education. The whole of one session was given to the discussion of the latter topic, the presentation being made by the Commissioner of Education. Considerable sentiment has been developing for some years in favor of a meeting of the national council, in addition to that held in conjunction with the department of superintendence, during which full consideration could be given to topics of immediate interest to members of the council, and especially to those topics concerned with cooperative relations between the State departments of education and the United States Bureau of Education. This sentiment culminated at Boston in the decision of the council to meet in Washington at a time to be designated later by a committee appointed for the purpose. The Commissioner of Education was invited to assist with the preparation of a program and other details of the conference.

In requesting an expression of preference as to significant topics for discussion at such a conference the Commissioner of Education set forth a number of problems for consideration. The collection of complete and accurate educational statistics is among the most pertinent problems concerning which concerted action of State departments of education and the Bureau of Education is essential. The Bureau of Education is the only organization which has for a period of years collected, published, and disseminated information concerning the educational situation in the United States. This has been possible through voluntary cooperation on the part of State departments of education. The value of this service is generally recognized. As the significance of statistical information is becoming better understood and more widely appreciated this service increases in value and importance. Many State departments of education are relatively understaffed so far as an expert statistical corps is concerned. The demands for educational statistics are becoming greater and the type of statistics collected more complicated.

State Departments Might Collect Statistics

That representatives of the Bureau of Education and of the State departments could profitably devote considerable time to consideration of means of securing more correct and more complete country-wide data was a suggestion to which the council was apparently agreed. It is desirable that all statistics be collected through State departments of education. At the present time this procedure is impracticable, since some States collect from administrative subdivisions within their States the type of data collected by the Bureau of Education and others do not. It is therefore essential for the Bureau of Education to collect from administrative subdivisions in *all* States in order to secure uniformity, even though duplication necessarily follows. It might be desirable that the type of reports be changed if agreement could be made among all the States on the type most essential and valuable.

Another significant problem for consideration suggested by the commissioner concerned a plan by which State departments of education and the Bureau of Education may be articulated in the function of acting as a clearing house of information. Such an articulation would undoubtedly avoid many existing duplications and misinterpretations as to administrative organization and practice.

There are apparently a number of problems in research in which the Bureau of Education and State departments of education are mutually interested which should be studied on a national scale. Three ways were suggested of carrying on such studies: (1) Securing a grant from one of the several foundations which might be interested; (2) asking certain selected individuals interested in philanthropic investigations for specific appropriations; (3) an investigation made by the Bureau of Education under special congressional appropriation for the purpose.

Study of Finance is Desirable

A number of studies which the State superintendents felt most desirable to be made were discussed. The factors involved in training an adequate supply of teachers and the possibility of a study of financing schools which would result in a constructive plan of procedure for the future were among those which received the most attention. The council apparently feels that there is at present little guidance in the matter of adequate sources and effective methods of school support. Studies now available, while setting forth detailed facts, have not resulted in outlining a constructive line of procedure for the future action. We should know more about sources of support and about methods of distribution which are equitable and based on scientific principles, and similar significant problems. As a result of the threshing out of these questions the council appointed a committee to come to Washington early in the spring to discuss with the commissioner in detail definite plans for the conference to be held in Washington, probably in December. Superintendent Allen, of North Carolina, newly elected president of the council, will act as chairman of the committee. It is believed that this action on the part of the Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education is a very significant step in educational progress.

Hot lunches at noon are served in 2,286 schools in the State of New York, according to a report of the State supervisor of nutrition.

A Comparison of Standards for Secondary Schools of Regional Associations

By E. D. GRIZZELL

Chairman, Commission on Secondary Schools, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland

THE New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized in 1885. Although it is the oldest of the five regional associations, it is the only one that has not established standards for secondary schools and higher institutions. The North Central Association was the first to formulate such standards. These standards, established in 1905 and modified from time to time, have influenced to a large extent the standards established by the associations in the Southern, Northwest, and Middle States.

Great Similarity in Features and Relationships

In comparing the standards for secondary schools of these four associations it is apparent that there is great similarity in features and relationships. There are, however, important differences which should not be overlooked. The features and relationships, concerning which standards have been established by one or more of the associations, are: (1) Requirements for graduation; (2) instruction and spirit; (3) minimum number of teachers; (4) qualifications of teachers; (5) salary schedule; (6) teaching load; (7) program of studies; (8) buildings, equipment, etc.; (9) laboratory facilities; (10) library facilities; (11) records; (12) pupil load; (13) annual report; and (14) term of accreditment. The last two features are not really matters of a professional nature and should probably be considered as regulations governing the accrediting procedures.

Ten Items Common to Four Associations

The accompanying table presents the essential details concerning the 14 features and relationships considered in the standards of the four associations. Of the first 10 all are common to the four sets of standards, except that the program of studies is treated indirectly or by implication in the standards of the Northwest and Southern Associations, and the salary schedule is not mentioned in the standards of the Northwest Association. In addition to these 10 items, the North Central and Northwest Associations have standards for records and pupil load. These matters should be considered sufficiently important to be included in the standards of the Middle States and Southern Associations.

Similarities in Standards

There is close similarity in standards relating to requirements for graduation, instruction and spirit, teaching load, buildings and equipment, laboratory and library facilities, records, and pupil load. The slight differences in these standards are not significant except in the following instances: The North Central and Northwest Associations provide definitely for the three-year senior high school, as well as for the regular four-year high school. The Southern Association requires 16 units for graduation, instead of the 15-unit requirement for the four-year high school common in the other associations. The standard relating to instruction and spirit is almost identical in the four associations, except that the North Central Association includes community cooperation, and the Middle States and Southern Associations consider success of graduates in college as important criteria. The standard for teaching load is practically identical in the four associations, except that the Northwest Association permits a maximum daily pupil-period load per teacher of 160 instead of 150; and the North Central Association mentions only five periods as a daily teaching load; while all the others specify six periods as a maximum with five periods as the recommended standard load. The standard for buildings and equipment is practically identical in all but the Middle States, in which the statement of the standard is less detailed and specific. The standard for laboratory and library facilities varies slightly in detail. The North Central Association requires an annual inventory of laboratory equipment and a classified and catalogued library; the Southern Association requires a library of 500 volumes, exclusive of duplicates and Government publications. The North Central and Northwest Associations have identical standards for records, and their standards for pupil load are somewhat similar though stated differently.

Significant Differences in Standards

The chief differences in standards relate to minimum number of teachers, qualifications of teachers, salary schedule, and program of studies. In the case of the minimum number of teachers no two standards are alike. The standard of the Middle States is the lowest and that of the North Central Association the highest. The standards for qualifications of teachers differ considerably in all the associations, the standard of the Middle States being the lowest and that of the North Central the highest. Professional training is required in all but the Middle States, in which experience may be substituted.

Academic Teachers Must Hold Degrees

Another significant difference in standards is the requirement in the Middle States and Southern Associations providing that three-fourths of all teachers of academic subjects shall hold college degrees, while the North Central and Northwest Associations require all teachers to hold degrees. The North Central standard further specifies that teachers of academic subjects shall be assigned to teach in the field of their major or minor specialization. The standards concerning professional training of teachers of academic subjects are slightly different, the North Central and Northwest Associations requiring 15 semester hours and the Southern Association 12 semester hours. The standard relating to salary schedule is extremely indefinite in the Middle States and North Central Association. The Southern Association specifies a definite minimum salary for teachers; the Northwest Association ignores the matter entirely. The standard relating to program of studies varies considerably in detail. The North Central Association is quite specific as to the number of units in academic subjects to be offered. The standard of the Middle States merely indicates the scope of the program; and the Northwest and Southern Associations have no standard dealing specifically with the program of studies.

Suggestions for Improvement of Standards

The existing standards need clarifying. The North Central Association has adopted a procedure which is a step in the right direction. In their recent revision of standards an attempt is made to separate the recommendations from the standards. Likewise policies and regulations have been stated separately. Inter-

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pretations of standards are needed also in order that there may be no doubt as to the meaning and application of standards.

There is great need for research to determine the validity of certain existing standards. For example, the standards for teaching load are being questioned in some quarters. A matter of such importance should not be dismissed with a mere gesture. Standards for laboratory and library should be defined more clearly. There should be adequate standards for school records, pupil load, salaries, expenditures for secondary education, student activities, and a score of other significant features and relationships. The necessity for careful research is apparent if standardization in secondary education is to serve as a means of promoting sound progress.

Features and relationships considered in standards of four regional associations

Middle States and Maryland		North Central		Northwest		Southern States	
Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.
1	1. REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADUATION	4	1. REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADUATION	4	I. REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADUATION	(a)	1. REQUIREMENTS FOR GRADUATION
	(1) Completion of 4-year course of 15 units, 120 hours each. (2) Recitation period, 40 minutes. (3) School year, 36 weeks (variation from length of school year must be justified). (4) 2 hours of shop, laboratory, and study hall, equivalent to 1 hour regular class work.		(1) Completion of 4-year course of 15 units, 120 hours each. (2) Completion of 3-year course of 11 units, 120 hours each. (3) Recitation period, 40 minutes. (4) School year, 36 weeks. (5) 2 hours of shop and laboratory, equivalent to 1 hour of regular class work.		(1) Completion of 4-year course of 15 units, 120 hours each. (2) Completion of 3-year course of 11 units, 120 hours each. (3) School year, 36 weeks. (4) 2 hours manual training or laboratory work, equivalent to 1 hour classroom work.		(1) Completion of 4-year course of 16 units. A unit is approximately ¼ of a year's work of 20 periods per week. (2) 2 hours manual training or laboratory work, equivalent to 1 hour classroom work.
2	2. INSTRUCTION AND SPIRIT	5	2. INSTRUCTION AND SPIRIT	5	2. INSTRUCTION AND SPIRIT		2. INSTRUCTION AND SPIRIT
	(1) Efficiency of instruction. (2) Acquired habits of thought and study. (3) Intellectual and moral level of school. (Determined by inspection or by achievement of graduates in higher institutions.)		(1) Efficiency of instruction. (2) Acquired habits of thought and study. (3) Intellectual and moral level of school. (4) Cooperative attitude of community. (Determined by inspection.)		(School atmosphere) (1) Efficiency of instruction. (2) Acquired habits of thought and study. (3) Intellectual and moral tone. (Determined by inspection.)	(f) (g)	(1) Efficiency of instruction. (2) Acquired habits of thought and speech. (3) Intellectual and moral tone. (Determined by inspection and record of students in college.)
3	3. MINIMUM NUMBER OF TEACHERS	10	3. MINIMUM NUMBER OF TEACHERS	6	3. MINIMUM NUMBER OF TEACHERS	(g)	3. MINIMUM NUMBER OF TEACHERS
	(1) Equivalent of full teaching time of 3 teachers of academic subjects. (2) Teachers of vocational subjects if offered.		(1) 5 full-time teachers of academic subjects (this requirement has been modified slightly). (2) Sufficient number of qualified teachers to care adequately for all instruction offered.		(1) 4 teachers of academic subjects, exclusive of superintendent. (2) Teachers of vocational subjects adequate to care for instruction.		(1) 4 teachers giving full time to high-school instruction. (2) Teachers for vocational subjects if local conditions warrant. Number must be adequate.
4	4. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS	7	4. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS	7	4. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS	(b)	4. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS
	(1) Three-fourths of teachers of academic subjects, 4-year degree from approved higher institution. (2) Other teachers, successful teaching experience. (3) Professional training or successful teaching experience.		(1) All teachers and supervisors of academic subjects, training equivalent to graduation from approved college (not retroactive). (2) Professional training of teachers and supervisors of academic subjects, 15 semester hours (not retroactive).		(1) All teachers of academic subjects, graduation from approved college or university. (2) Professional training of teachers of academic subjects, 15 semester hours. (Variation to extent of 20 per cent allowed to new schools under certain conditions.)		(1) 75 per cent of teachers of academic subjects including principal and teachers of agriculture and home economics, bachelor's degree from approved higher institution. (2) All beginning teachers and principals shall have 12 semester hours' work in education.
4	5. SALARY SCHEDULE	6	5. SALARY SCHEDULE		5. SALARY SCHEDULE	(k)	5. SALARY SCHEDULE
	(1) Salary schedule sufficient to secure teachers with qualifications required.		(1) Salary schedule sufficient to command and retain teachers with qualifications required. (Interpretation a responsibility of State committee.)		No mention of salaries.		(1) Minimum salary of $1,000 for teachers.
5	6. TEACHING LOAD	8	6. TEACHING LOAD	8	6. TEACHING LOAD	(c)	6. TEACHING LOAD
6	(1) 5 daily periods of classroom instruction (maximum, 6 periods). (2) Daily teaching load, 150-pupil periods per teacher. (Deviation must be justified under standard 2, instruction and spirit.) (3) Pupil-teacher ratio, 30 to 1, maximum.		(1) 5 daily periods of classroom instruction. (2) Daily teaching load, 150-pupil periods per teacher. (3) Pupil-teacher ratio, 25 to 1 (30 to 1, a maximum). (Administrative and other professional members of staff to be counted for such part of their time as is devoted to the management of the high school. Clerks may be counted for half time.)		(1) 5 daily periods of classroom instruction (6 periods a maximum). (2) Daily teaching load, 150-pupil periods per teacher (160-pupil periods a maximum). (3) Pupil-teacher ratio, 25 to 1 (30 to 1, maximum). (Administrative and other professional members of the staff may be counted for such part of their time as is devoted to the management of the high school.)	(i)	(1) 6 daily periods of classroom instruction, maximum. (2) Weekly teaching load, 750-pupil periods per teacher, maximum. (3) Pupil-teacher ratio, 30 to 1, maximum. (A school is definitely rejected if pupil-teacher ratio is violated.)
7	7. PROGRAM OF STUDIES	10	7. PROGRAM OF STUDIES	[6]	7. PROGRAM OF STUDIES		7. PROGRAM OF STUDIES
	(1) English, mathematics, foreign languages, social and natural sciences, practical and fine arts, physical education. (2) Vocational subjects if local conditions permit.		(1) 3 units in English, 2 units in social science, 1 unit in biological science or general science, 1 unit in physical education or health (with or without credit) required of all students in 4-year high school. (2) Vocational subjects where local conditions render introduction feasible.		(1) Academic subjects implied. (2) Vocational subjects where feasible. (There is no standard dealing with program of studies specifically.)	[(b)] [(g)]	(1) Academic subjects implied. (2) Vocational subjects if local conditions warrant. (There is no standard dealing specifically with program of studies.)
8	8. BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT, ETC.	1	8. BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT, ETC.	1	8. BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT, ETC.	(e)	8. BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT, ETC.
	(1) Location, construction, and care, such as to insure hygienic conditions for pupils and teachers.		(1) Location, construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, methods of cleaning such as to insure hygienic conditions for pupils and teachers.		(1) Location, construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, methods of cleaning such as to insure hygienic conditions for pupils and teachers.		(1) Location, construction, lighting, heating, ventilation, lavatories, corridors, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, methods of cleaning such as to insure hygienic conditions for pupils and teachers.

Features and relationships considered in standards of four regional associations—Continued

Middle States and Maryland		North Central		Northwest		Southern States	
Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.	Standard	Features, etc.
9	9. LABORATORY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to the needs of instruction in subjects taught.	2	9. LABORATORY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to the needs of instruction in all courses offered. (2) Annual inventory should be made of all laboratory and shop equipment.	2	9. LABORATORY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to needs of instruction in subjects taught.	(d)	9. LABORATORY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to needs of instruction in courses taught.
9	10. LIBRARY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to the needs of instruction in subjects taught.	2	10. LIBRARY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to the needs of instruction in all courses offered. (2) Library shall be classified and catalogued.	2	10. LIBRARY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to needs of instruction in subjects taught.	(d)	10. LIBRARY FACILITIES (1) Adequate to needs of instruction in courses taught. (2) 500 volumes, exclusive of duplicates and Government publications.
	11. RECORDS No standard.	3	11. RECORDS (1) Accurate and complete records of attendance and scholarship, convenient for use and safely preserved.	3	11. RECORDS (1) Up-to-date records of attendance and scholarship, accurately kept and safely preserved.		11. RECORDS No standard.
	12. PUPIL LOAD No standard.	9	12. PUPIL LOAD (1) 4 unit courses or the equivalent in fractional unit courses, normal load for credit toward graduation for average or medium students. (2) Students ranking in upper 25 per cent may be allowed to carry more than 4 units for credit. (Variation from this standard must be explained to State committee.)	9	12. PUPIL LOAD (1) 4 units a year, exclusive of music, drawing, physical training, type writing, and student activities. (2) If 15 per cent of pupils exceed the normal load explanation must be given.		12. PUPIL LOAD No standard.
						(h)	13. ANNUAL REPORT (1) Annual report required, must be filled out and placed on file with inspector. (2) Schools having 12 teachers make complete report every 3 years on teachers and report annually any changes in teachers.
						(j)	14. TERM OF ACCREDITMENT (1) 1 year.

"You Can Do It," the Motto of Denver Opportunity School

(*Continued from page 145.*)

for professional and others for cultural reasons. For example, among those enrolled may be found the following: Men in electrical and engineering courses whose need is great for high-school mathematics; women who must have the required high-school education before beginning training for the nursing profession; high-school graduates reviewing subjects for examination before entering college; many employed persons who aspire to some profession which requires high-school education and who are doing intensive work in the school outside of business hours; men and women in the workaday world who feel that they can increase their earning capacity by supplementary study; parents (may their number increase) who wish to be better companions to their children and better guides for them in their school work.

Commercial classes are arranged to meet the needs of all types of students, and individual instruction is provided when necessary. This department has received impetus through the cooperation of business and professional firms of Denver.

In the beginning announcements that classes would be started upon request were inserted in employees' pay envelopes. The first class organized was for a large group of employed stenographers who realized their lack of the fundamentals of a business education—spelling, English, vocabulary. At present the commercial department offers a complete business course, including a working knowledge of office equipment found in up-to-date places of business.

Trade classes for men and women are available at the Opportunity School during both the day and evening. In the classes for men the day students are those who are learning the trade or those who have been laid off for a few weeks and are improving their time by study, the night classes being composed, for the most part of men who are studying trades allied to their daily jobs.

Into the classes for women are admitted only those who are definitely planning to enter a special trade. Not only is the trade taught but all the possibilities of the trade, business training necessary to succeed, and so on. If a woman of limited means opens a millinery shop, the students cooperate in planning for the opening day, hats being made, and every other possible assistance being given by the school.

The question one has in mind after seeing what this school offers is, What is the cost? Here is what the Denver Board of Education says of the cost:

> In order to estimate the cost of such a school in terms of average daily attendance, when compared with other schools whose educational costs are computed on this basis, it may be stated that 9,343 pupils were enrolled during 1925–26 for an average of 2.28 hours per day. This is less than one-half of a school day, or 45.6 per cent of a five-hour day and 38 per cent of a six-hour day. The average daily attendance on the 2.28 hours a day basis was 3,450, which on the five-hour basis would be reduced to 1,573 pupils. The total cost of operating the school during 1925–26 was $168,487.88 and the cost per pupil, based upon 1,573 pupils for a five-hour day, was $107.11. The cost per pupil recitation hour was $0.113

As one passes through the building of the Opportunity School he sees well-equipped shops for the training of machinists, garage men, vulcanizers, welders, bricklayers, printers, bakers, electricians plumbers, railway engineers, and firemen. For the instruction of the two last-named

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· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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APRIL, 1928

Typical Reactions to President Lowell's Address

THEY were comfortably talking shop after dinner at a schoolmen's club. Several of them had just returned from Boston and they were bubbling over with the address that President A. Lawrence Lowell made before the department of superintendence. They discussed it without rancor and their comments were marked by respect for the distinguished speaker and by recognition of his sincerity and constructive purpose. None denied the ability of the presentation nor the substantial truth of the basic statements of the address, although it was held that some of the conclusions and implications failed to consider all the essential facts.

The elementary principal had heard the address and had been struck by the care with which the speaker had explained the increase of 67 per cent in the cost per student for salaries at Harvard, although the increase of 167 per cent in the cost per pupil of elementary schools for salaries in 20 Massachusetts cities was stated without a word of the attending circumstances. The large percentage of increase in salaries probably came from unduly small payments at the earlier period rather than unduly large payments at the later period, he suggested. "Higher qualifications are now demanded of teachers, and higher salaries are the necessary concomitant. In the past teachers have been absurdly underpaid, anyway. New subjects have been introduced in response to popular demand which require specialists at higher salaries. And the excessive numbers of children assigned to a teacher have been reduced to more resonable limits. All these things mean greater per capita costs which are wholly justifiable." So spoke the elementary-school principal.

The high-school principal referred to the "constant tendency to introduce new subjects good in themselves, which crowd out, not from the list of subjects taught but from the studies of the individual, things of a larger educational value." The multiplicity of new subjects was freely admitted, and equally freely was it admitted that undesirable conditions have arisen which have not been fully met. "But this is not a problem of the high school alone. The complexity of modern civilization and the enormous growth in the body of available knowledge have caused unprecedented expansion in the number of courses which the colleges must offer, and have almost overwhelmed the professional schools, especially the medical schools. No class of schools has yet solved these problems and the secondary school is in no worse position than the rest," quoth the high-school principal.

"Similarly," he asserted, "aversion to dull disciplinary tasks is not peculiar to the high school. When the colleges find a way to produce the same zest in the drudgery of classroom exercises that the students show in their sports the high schools will follow with alacrity. But the whole tendency of present-day life is to make things pleasant—and easy—if possible. Leniency and not severity marks the attitude of parents toward their children; teachers of every degree are no longer taskmasters but companions and guides; employers exert themselves to provide safe and pleasant conditions of employment; the great motive of industrial progress is to find an easier way to do things. Shall the high school be asked to maintain an atmosphere at variance with the atmosphere of the world about it? Have not high-school men always been in full agreement and sympathy with the colleges in the effort to cultivate in their students a greater sense of responsibility for their own education?" And the high-school principal heard no word of dissent.

Finally the question of earlier graduation arose. Little opposition was shown to President Lowell's wish to send men earlier into productive activity, though differences of opinion were expressed as to ways and means. At last the interlocutor propounded this query: "If a boy has shown substantial character, high I. Q., good habits of study, ranking in the best quarter of his class, could not that boy do the work of the freshman class in college after three years in the high school?" The reply of the high-school history teacher was prompt and emphatic: "He could if it depended on my subject. My fourth-year course is a college course, and the teachers are better trained than those usually assigned to college freshmen." This attitude was disclaimed by the visiting high-school principal, who said earnestly: "I am principal of a high school; we do high-school work only, and our boys need all the four years to prepare for college."

The assistant superintendent was strongly of the opinion that such a boy could easily enter college if his courses were intelligently chosen. "Naturally if we should undertake to send students to college after three years in the high school," he said, "we should arrange the curriculum accordingly. But bright children frequently skip a grade in the elementary school and soon catch up and maintain themselves in the higher grade. To skip a high-school grade would be more difficult, to be sure, but not beyond the powers of the boy described. It is our regular practice to expedite the passage of bright children through the grades, usually by skipping a half grade at a time; and a considerable proportion of the pupils pass through the eight grades in seven, six, or even five years."

At this juncture the dean of the University School of Education dryly remarked: "That boy could do freshman work. No doubt of it. But you must not let the registrar find out that he is trying it."

The sequel came a few days later. The interlocutor put to the registrar the same question he had put to the group at the club. The answer came without hesitation: "Certainly he could do college work; but do not tell Dean X and the professors about it, or they'll flunk him pronto." Moral: Our opinion of the opinion of others has something to do with our maintenance of standards.

Catholic High Schools Show Rapid Growth

Enrollment in private high schools and academies in the United States increased from 94,931 students (47,534 boys and 47,397 girls) in 1,632 schools during 1890 to 248,076 students (114,617 boys and 133,459 girls) in 2,350 schools during 1926, as shown by statistics of private schools and academies compiled by the United States Bureau of Education, division of statistics, Frank M. Phillips, chief, and published by the bureau as Bulletin No. 31, 1927.

The number of denominational schools reporting increased from 910 schools with an enrollment of 52,441 students in 1895 to 1,703 schools with an enrollment of 185,641 students in 1926. The extent to which public schools are supplanting denominational academies of Protestant denominations is indicated by the fact that nearly every Protestant denomination reported a decrease during the period 1895-1926 in either the number of schools or the the number of students enrolled. or in both. Roman Catholic schools showed an increase during the period 1895–1926 in both the number of schools and enrollment, expanding from 280 schools with an enrollment of 12,777 in 1895 to 1,196 schools with an enrollment of 131,436 students in in 1926. Seventh Day Adventist schools increased from 20 in 1915 with an enrollment of 1,834 to 31 schools with an enrollment of 2,979 students in 1926. Methodist Episcopal schools were 60, with 5,958 students in 1895, and 64 with 9,009 students in 1926.

Conference on Professional Training of Rural Teachers

Rural Schools Suffer from Chaotic Condition in Teacher Training. Curriculum Materials, Organization, and Management of Rural Schools Offer Specific Problems. Basic Materials of Study Substantially Similar for All Groups

By KATHERINE M. COOK

Chief, Division of Rural Education, Bureau of Education

AMONG the important meetings held in connection with the department of superintendence was a conference called by the Commissioner of Education on the professional preparation of teachers for rural schools. It was held at the Hotel Lenox Saturday morning and afternoon, February 25. Approximately 150 persons registered in attendance, representing 30 different States, practically all of whom were directly engaged in the preparation of teachers for rural-school positions. The conference was distinctive in its devotion to a limited phase of the teacher-training field and in the fact that contributions were confined almost exclusively to reports of experimentation or research.

The first session of the conference was opened by the United States Commissioner of Education, who explained briefly the position of the bureau in calling conferences and outlined the purposes of this particular conference. It is the policy of the Bureau of Education specifically to avoid multiplicity of conferences. Conferences are called only on special request of particular groups interested when problems of a special nature immediately vital to educational progress have apparently been overlooked or neglected and when the time seems ripe for a concentrated and scientific attack upon such problems.

Chaotic Conditions Affect Rural Schools

The whole matter of teacher training and teacher placement with suitable curricula for specialized fields is in a chaotic condition at the present time. From this situation the rural schools suffer most. The problem is acute because we can not proceed further toward better schools in rural communities until better teachers, properly and specifically trained for this field of work, are available. Before this situation can be adequately attacked we need to know more about the number and types of teaching positions for which special preparation is necessary, the kind of curricula adapted to prepare teachers for each type; we need a full knowledge of the number and kind of annual replacements on a statewide scale and consistent and intelligent coordination between placement and training agencies as well as between in-service and pre-service training. This conference was called because the time seemed ripe to attack a number of these problems through such a program as will be presented setting forth the best information available on the various topics set up for discussion. Commissioner Tigert then introduced Mr. Ernest Burnham, from the Western State Teachers' College, Kalamazoo, Mich., to preside during the morning program, and Miss Mabel Carney, of Teachers College, Columbia University, as presiding officer of the afternoon session.

Constructing Curricula for Rural Teachers

The first speaker on the program was William S. Gray, dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, who presented a scholarly paper on the use of activity analyses in constructing curricula for rural teachers. Doctor Gray said in part:

> The crucial step in the construction of curricula for rural teachers involves selection of appropriate materials. No one in the past has known precisely what the most valuable content is considering the full range of duties of the different types of teachers; and which of the duties are most frequent, most difficult to learn, and most important. Distinct progress in the selection of curriculum materials for rural teachers followed the adoption of the principle of differentiation. This principle implies that the problems which teachers encounter in different types of schools vary. It is obvious, for example, that the subject-matter demands upon rural elementary teachers are radically different from those made on first-grade teachers in city schools, or science teachers in high schools, and that the problems of classroom organization and management in a rural school differ radically from those in a large, highly organized city school.

Further illustrations of differentiations were given as a result of the concrete experience of the speaker in the conduct of an intensive study of ways and means of reorganizing and improving instruction in reading in 20 schools, including rural, village, and highly organized city schools. A number of methods by which activity analyses may be made were suggested by the speaker. He then showed how an analysis of the activities in which teachers engage may prove suggestive to the curriculum builder, and directed attention to the procedures which may be followed in utilizing the results of an activity analysis such as Charters has provided. The speaker concluded by saying that—

> Experience has demonstrated that a comprehensive analysis of teachers' activities can be made best with ample funds and the cooperation of a large number of people. The complexity of the task supplies evidence of its urgent need. Once an analysis has been completed we have definite assurance that it may serve as a valuable aid in checking the completeness and adequacy of existing curricula. Before we can determine the extent to which curricula may be based solely on activity analyses much experimentation is necessary. In the meantime it seems advisable to utilize race experience checked by experimentation and classroom experience as a fundamental basis in determining the content of school curricula.

Differentiates Job of One-Room Teacher

Doctor Gray was followed by Mr. Verne McGuffey, who gave certain preliminary findings of his study now in progress to show how the work of the teacher in a one-room school differs from that of the grade teacher in other types of schools. On the basis of this study a check list of 112 duties and responsibilities was made which seemed to differentiate the job of the one-room school-teacher from that of the grade teacher in other situations. Data were given showing that a statistically valid difference exists between the two. Mr. McGuffey explained that his check list provided also for the expression of opinion as to the importance and difficulty of each duty and the expression of an attitude toward the job. Reasons for success and failure furnished by administrative and supervisory officials seem to point very definitely to the conclusion that the success of the teacher depends more on her attitude than on any other one factor. Mr. McGuffey's study of duties pointed out several important bases of differentiation in the training of rural-school teachers. He said only by specific and specialized training can we hope to build up desirable specific enthusiasms and attitudes.

Separate Schools for Rural Teachers Unwise

The nature and extent of curriculum differentiation in the training of rural-school teachers was discussed by W. C. Bagley of Teachers College, Columbia University, with characteristic clearness and sympathetic understanding. The speaker first referred to what he conceived to be the most convincing arguments against differentiation in curricula to fit students for rural-school service. He stated that the cleavages between urban and rural America are already too numerous. It is primarily for this reason that separate professional schools for rural-school teachers—county normal schools and high-school training classes, for example—should be looked upon merely as temporary expedients; that a policy of separate State normal schools for rural-school teachers would be unwise. The basic materials or subjects of study will not differ essentially for different occupational, sectional, or economic groups. The

rural child does not need one kind of basic culture and the urban child quite a different kind. Few people would advocate a specialized program of elementary instruction for rural children. We may be morally certain that many boys and girls now enrolled in the rural schools will spend their adult lives in the towns and cities and in occupations other than farming. This constitutes in itself a very good reason for not sharply differentiating their basic education from that which their later neighbors will have.

The Same Basic Subjects of Study

Passing to the other side of the picture, Doctor Bagley said it is beyond dispute that the task of the rural teacher is in many ways different from that of the urban teacher. Aims and objectives are not at all different and basic subjects of study should be the same. There will, however, be different emphases in certain subjects, particularly for compensating in some measure the children of each group for the cultural advantages which the environment of the other group provides. There are specific problems of health education that are of greater significance to rural children than to city children.

The process of teaching should consider first of all the background of experience from which the pupil approaches the learning task. The successful teacher capitalizes the experience of his pupils in the interest of their further growth. Even the skills with which all children must be equipped are more readily learned if closely associated with problems and needs that grow out of the pupils' own life experience.

Especially should the rural teacher be able to capitalize in the interests of education the rich natural environment of the rural child. There should be developed a keen appreciation of life in the open country, an understanding of nature and of nature's laws, and a sincere respect for the basic work of farming.

Place for Specialized Courses of Study

He said:

> In the preparation of rural school teachers, then, there is certainly a place for such specialized courses as are necessary to meet these needs. The suggestions made would involve (1) a substantial course in nature-study agriculture; (2) specialized courses in observation, participation, and responsible student teaching in rural schools under rural conditions; (3) a substantial course in rural education dealing with different emphases and methods of approach in teaching; and (4) a course in rural sociology and economics.

A discussion of the rural curriculum as judged by graduates followed. William McKinley Robinson, of Western State Teachers' College, Michigan, outlined the results of a study he has been making over a period of two years in this field. The study shows that the popular conception that students choosing rural curricula in normal schools and teachers colleges do so because the competition in other curricula is too strenuous is not supported by data collected; 149 graduates of two-year rural elementary school curricula in 13 widely separated institutions chose the rural curriculum because of their interest in rural life and people and of the opportunity offered for service. Seventy-five per cent, after experience in the field, said they would choose the same curricula again were they entering the normal school. Among the suggestions for the improvement of such courses offered by teachers in service who are graduates of rural curricula were: That the amount of observation and practice be increased, that opportunity be given to observe teaching of a greater variety in a greater number of grades and a larger number of different types of schools. Practice teaching could be improved if student teachers were given (*a*) more responsibility, (*b*) closer supervision, and (*c*) more time for practice teaching.

School Must Assume Responsibility for Graduates

The follow-up activities of a teacher-preparing institution with its graduates in rural schools as practiced in Eastern State Normal School, South Dakota, were fully described with the aid of charts, statistical tables, and the like, by President E. C. Higbie, of that institution. President Higbie said that while placement is recognized as one of the necessary services of a teacher-preparing institution, the institution must also assume responsibility for the functioning of the teachers it graduates, at least during their first year or two of service. Eastern State Normal School aims to fit the position with a good prospect or declines to make recommendations. In line with this policy, it has established a plan to follow up and supervise and help its graduates in service. The plan as developed, in brief, is as follows: A capable staff member is designated as director of field service. This person, early in the fall, obtains the names and teaching addresses of all graduates of the previous year and sends a letter to their superintendents calling attention to the fact that Eastern is very anxious to have its graduates make real successes in their work both for their own and their pupils' good, and that the institution is ready to send help or to give advice if need arises.

Field Supervisor is a Real Helper

In emergencies, supervisors are sent to the schools without delay. Generally, however, itineraries are worked out and training supervisors are given an opportunity to spend one continuous week in the field. The supervisor meets with the director and makes careful preparation for her trip, refamiliarizing herself with the college record and background of each teacher to be visited. In case a county is to be visited, the county superintendent of schools arranges her work so as to get the supervisor to the schools with as little delay and expense as possible. These visits are not inspections; they are designed to help solve difficulties and to give encouragement. The term "critic" is not used at Eastern, and the teacher in need turns to her supervisor as to a helper, and, so far as possible, she gets real help from the supervisor who has trained her and understands her.

Six Speakers for Afternoon Session

Outstanding papers of the afternoon session were presented by Alonzo F. Myers, of Ohio University, and C. Everett Myers, of Pennsylvania, on "The adjustment of the supply and demand of qualified teachers—the State's problem"; "State legislation and regulations to guarantee an adequate staff for rural-school positions," Ned Dearborn, State Department of Education, New York; "The application of standard courses to specialized needs of rural school-teachers," R. L. Bunting, Sam Houston State Teachers' College, Texas; "In-service training for rural teachers," President E. L. Hendricks, Central Missouri State Teachers' College; and "A summary of recent progress in preparing the personnel for positions in rural education," J. E. Butterworth, Cornell University.

Supply Has Caught Up with Demand

Discussing the adjustment of supply and demand, A. F. Myers outlined the situation as found in recent research studies conducted in the State of Ohio. The speaker said that the supply of teachers had apparently caught up with the demand, at least in the sense that there are enough applicants for teaching positions. It is even true that there are people with adequate training for teaching who have been unable to secure positions. What many have failed to consider, however, is that for every well-trained person who failed to secure a teaching position this year there were many inadequately trained people who did secure such positions. This, the speaker said, is one of the most serious aspects of the situation. In Ohio, the number of trained teachers who were unable or unwilling to accept teaching positions in public schools was sufficient to offset the entire contribution of the county normal schools (1,076 people) and nearly 300 more. The situation justifies the conclusion that in Ohio one of the most important problems in connection with providing trained teachers for the public schools is that of eliminating cheap competition in order to give trained teachers an opportunity to secure em-

ployment. It is also true in the Ohio situation that too many are trained as high-school teachers and too few as elementary-school teachers. Solution for Ohio's problem was suggested by the speaker by means of a plan involving comprehensive research and cooperation between the State department of education and teacher-preparing institutions.

One-Room Schools Lack Qualified Teachers

C. Everett Myers, research secretary of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, discussed the topic of adjustment of supply and demand for qualified teachers from the standpoint of the Pennsylvania situation in which recent studies have been made under his direction. He pointed out that while the percentage of one-room rural schools taught by normal-school graduates had increased in the past 10 years, the rate of progress was not sufficiently high to assure attaining the goal of qualified teachers for all one-room rural schools for many years. Mr. Myers recommended a study of the type of professional training offered for the preparation of rural teachers in order that the money appropriated for this purpose should be spent as wisely as possible.

In discussing State legislation and regulations to guarantee an adequate professional staff for rural schools, Ned Dearborn, of the State Department of Education of New York, suggested the following recommendations as effecting the assurance of such a staff: (1) A State education department charged with the general management and supervision of all public educational work of the State; a State board of education composed of laymen and nonpolitical in character, with an appointive commissioner of education. (2) The State department of education should formulate and administer necessary policies and regulations and appoint the staff of the State department of education to carry out such policies. (3) State subventions to enable the State board of education to maintain an adequate staff of assistants to establish facilities for an effective program of preparation for administrators, supervisors, and teachers and to enable local school districts to create and operate an effective program of education. (4) Local units adequate in size to solve the problems of local taxation and to provide for effective local administration and supervision.

Advocates Unification of Training Facilities

The speaker advocated unification of training facilities for the various phases of professional service for rural schools, State certification of teachers and school officers coordinated with the teacher-training program of the State, and the improvement of training and certification standards determined by the law of supply and demand.

President E. L. Hendricks, of the Central Missouri State Teachers' College, discussed the importance of in-service training for rural teachers and described the Missouri system of cooperation between the State department of education and teacher-preparing institutions in the supervision of rural schools. President Hendricks stated that he had compiled a list of 33 methods of improvement of teachers in service which when classified could be secured (1) through activities outside the schoolroom or (2) by help within. He highly stressed the value of instructional supervision of rural school-teachers, saying that it should become a profession within itself. He suggested also the possibility that teachers' colleges could probably render this service better than any other organization.

No Standard Courses for Rural Teachers

In discussing the application of standard two, three, and four year courses to specialized needs of rural school-teachers, R. L. Bunting stated that there are no standard courses in this country for rural teachers. There are many variations of a rather common pattern, but as yet courses have not been professionally constructed, experimentally applied, and comparatively proved worthy of adoption as standard. Rural teacher training is in sore need of just such scientific evaluation of the ideas now favored regarding curricula for training rural teachers. Theoretically, he stated, there seems great danger to the cause of rural education in allowing the two-year curriculum to become the typical one for rural teachers. The rural school job is generally conceded to be the most difficult professional position in American schools. For service of equal quality a better prepared teacher is required in the rural school than in our city schools where they are now asking and getting teachers with three and four years of preparation.

Progress in Training Country Teachers

Dr. Julian E. Butterworth in summarizing recent progress in preparing the personnel for positions in rural education stated that a fair degree of progress has been made in training teachers for country and village schools. The percentage of normal school graduates in rural schools has increased in the country at large and significant progress made in a number of States. There has been an encouraging improvement during the five-year period from 1921 to 1926 in the minimum standards for certificates issued to teachers. At the same time the special facilities for training teachers for rural service have been increased. While only three normal schools offered differentiated courses for rural workers in 1905, in 1923 199 teacher-training institutions were offering 380 such courses. Seventy-four were offered in rural school administration and 31 in rural school supervision and related subjects. There is a tendency also to reduce the number of teacher-training departments and institutions affiliated with or part of secondary schools and to increase the standards required for admission to them. One of the most significant developments in the field, according to the speaker, is the growth of graduate work in rural education during the last 10 years. Columbia, Cornell, Ohio, and Peabody have been particularly active in providing these facilities.

At the close of the session a number of speakers expressed appreciation of the value of the conference and a desire that similar conferences be called by the Commissioner of Education in the future. A resolution expressing this interest and appreciation and a request that consideration be given to the calling of a conference at the next meeting of the department of superintendence, if possible, by the Bureau of Education was offered by M. L. Smith, of the Michigan State Teachers' College at Mount Pleasant, and unanimously carried. In response to a large number of requests and inquiries it was announced at the conference that the full text of the proceedings would be published by the Bureau of Education and would be available at an early date.

Up-to-date Filing System Described in Government Booklet

Teachers of business courses will be interested in a booklet issued recently by the Bureau of Reclamation, Department of the Interior.

This 52-page publication, which was prepared by J. W. Myer, chief of the mails and files section of the Washington office of the bureau, and J. C. Beveridge, jr., principal assistant in the section, gives a complete description of the office system and the filing system of the mails and files section, including a comprehensive classification of the files under the Dewey decimal system and several illustrations showing the various steps taken in the process of recording, routing, filing, and charging out correspondence.

There has been a wide demand for the booklet by industrial organizations throughout the country. Copies may be obtained by addressing the Commissioner, Bureau of Reclamation, Washington, D. C.

Teaching of geography, history, and civics in schools and universities of Salvador by other than native-born teachers is prohibited by a recent law.

Ohio Branch of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers

By FANNIE ROBSON KENDEL

State President

HOW can the year's work of a State branch of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers be measured? Who decides which line of work is most worth while? And if that work is well done?

In organization and more organization one can build up large numbers of individual members and local associations, but numbers alone may not indicate real parent-teacher work by the State organization. But if throughout the work of organization of new associations and the enrolling of new members the spirit of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is carried to each member, then can it be said that continued organization is real parent-teacher work.

The spirit of the national congress is clearly shown in the words of the object: "Child welfare in home, school, church, and community." This can truly be said of the work of the Ohio branch.

A fine, sympathetic, enthusiastic young woman has been employed as full-time extension secretary by the Ohio branch for nearly three years. Her special parent-teacher training was taken at Columbia University. This has been supplemented by attendance at a national convention, and parent-teacher institutes conducted at two State conventions. The State Department of Education in Ohio has long realized the value of community gatherings in the school districts and for many years has recognized the Ohio branch as a proper social agency connected with the school in the State. The two extension secretaries who have served Ohio have been given desk room in the State department of education and are considered members of the staff. The work is recognized as extension work of the department of education, but the time of the secretary belongs to the Ohio branch.

An important and unusual rural organization demonstration was conducted in one of the eastern counties in the State in cooperation with the county superintendent. This lasted six weeks and the meetings were arranged by the superintendent.

An organization in a township even when the schools were still of the one-room rural type has resulted in immediate and concrete interest in a possible consolidated school. The slogan under which this work was carried on was "A better school for every child," and the final question left with the parents was, "if your child is not in a modern school building adequately equipped—why not?" A strong county council with just the right leader has carried on this work in the spirit in which it was organized.

The actual feeding and clothing of children is usually classed as philanthropic work, and as such would not be considered parent-teacher work, but when a special need arises such as has been the case in southern Ohio this winter, the whole State membership, through local, council, and district organizations, responded to the appeal sent out by the extension secretary with the consent of the State board. Within a month cartons of fine reconditioned clothing were sent to county superintendents needing this help and hundreds of little children were clad in suitable winter clothing, even to shoes and stockings. Money donations in small amounts and some large checks were sent, and one of the first hot-lunch stations was established in one of the counties with this money. It was necessary by January 1 to establish state-wide aid under the governor of the State for women and children in certain districts, but all remember gratefully that the parent-teacher associations responded quickly and generously to the first call.

Health work and study groups seemed to hold the greatest interest in the Ohio branch during the past year. In Toledo the study-group chairman in the locals is almost as routine an appointment as the chairman of the social committee. A fine central committee with representatives from the six councils has been working in Cleveland and large interested groups have had one or two courses each. Social hygiene and the three age levels of childhood are the special topics of study. The leaders of these classes have taken special work in the parental education department at Cleveland College, and in some instances are experienced teachers. The instruction given is of high quality. A large local association of Cleveland, over 500 members, the first to achieve the national standard for a local association, reports four courses carried on simultaneously—social hygiene, child study, home nursing, and a nutrition class. They are now starting the second term in all these classes.

Cincinnati University has a splendidly organized mothers' training center, and there are many classes meeting all over the city under the local parent-teacher associations.

The contrast between rural organization and the work of a city council was shown very plainly at the Founders' Day celebration held in Dayton this year. This year the council is interested in sponsoring parental education classes. In cooperating with other city organizations Sunday afternoon forum meetings have been held on the subject "Know youth." From three to five thousand people gather every Sunday afternoon to listen to Dr. Frank Slutz, of Dayton, a well-known progressive education man and former principal of Morraine Park School.

Rural groups more often come together to arouse interest in a possible consolidated school, or needs of a new school in the way of special equipment, or they become active in community interests and special health work. But this city group has carried on intensive organization work from the first, until the dream of the national founder, "a parent-teacher association in every school," has almost been realized.

Leaders Needed for Informed Groups

Presidents of the council have kept in close touch always with the program of the national congress and made it possible for the State organization to have the services of a full-time extension secretary by a generous gift of $1,000 in 1921. National work presented through institutes and the forming of a credit class under Wittenburg College has resulted in an informed membership. The special training for parenthood carried on this last year is a logical step in the intensive and specialized work possible in a large city. When once interest is aroused in the many aspects of parental education there is no lack of topics or people who wish to attend classes and meetings; the great thing is to find and keep high type leaders for these groups.

The work of any State branch, and Ohio follows the same plan, always includes a State convention and conferences in every district. The State convention was held in October, and six conferences were held in various parts of the State from January to April. Local associations report outstanding activities and the State officers present various phases of State work. Organized publicity, Child Welfare Magazine, and the Ohio Parent Teacher have been specially presented by the chairman of these committees and the editor of the State magazine at every district conference this year. County rallies with instruction in parent-teacher work have followed these conferences. Toledo council had a special one-day parent-teacher institute, and Columbus council has presented a series of classes for the training of local presidents. The large city council in Springfield has concentrated on the summer round-up, health rallies, and talks and round-up dinners have been held all winter. The first registration for the 1928 campaign came from this city.

It was felt by the State board that if our members could realize the great value of the National and State magazines to their work that good results would immediately be observed; and such has been the case. Every association, through its president or chairman of the program committee, receives a subscription to Child Welfare on payment of dues. This has placed the programs for the study groups in many hands, and every day some new group is noted as using these outlines. Parent-teacher groups are almost notoriously modest about their achievements. Many a fine piece of organization work, such as a complete house-to-house canvass for a membership drive or for the summer round-up, is never mentioned; only the fact of "45 children ready for the clinic," or "50 per cent of the school families enrolled in membership." But everyone knows who has taken part in such work the necessity for careful plans, close cooperation, and faithful work needed to bring results.

Room mothers, teachers, and children brought 1,160 members into Grandview Association, Columbus, in less than two weeks. Charts with red stars for mothers, green stars for fathers, and silver stars for neighbors gave each room the incentive to make the room 100 per cent, and this happened in several rooms.

Ohio has had the splendid incentive of the coming national convention to spur on the work this year. All wish to know about the convention plans and all wish to help.

The convention fund was raised by an appeal to the local associations and to the councils. All have been glad to help, and the small contributions from many associations have not been hardships for any one group.

The presentation of the program of service of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in five colleges and universities by the extension secretary last summer and the two credit courses at Wittenburg College and Bowling Green Normal College have resulted in a clearer understanding of parent-teacher work by the teachers taking these courses.

So the year swings around. It is the hope of all the workers that there has been progress during the year. More members perhaps—in February, 1927, 53,575; in 1928, 61,176. More local associations, yes; there are now 684 local associations in the Ohio branch, but what we all hope to see made permanent is the widest possible use of the educational program of the national congress. Education of the individual members for their own increased efficiency and education of the group to the needs of little children in the community. Better-trained parents for better homes, for better schools, and wider opportunities for all the children in Ohio.

Boston Conference of Kindergarten-Elementary Supervision

Criteria for Judging Values of Work Programs Was Central Theme. Unit Comprising Kindergarten to Sixth Grade, Inclusive, Held Most Desirable for Supervisory Work. Training and Relationships of Supervisors

By MARY DABNEY DAVIS
Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Bureau of Education

PROBLEMS connected with supervision of kindergarten-elementary grades in city public-school systems were discussed at a conference held February 27 in Boston at the invitation of the United States Commissioner of Education. Thirty supervisors representing 20 cities in 13 of the States and the District of Columbia attended the conference.

Programs of supervisory work are naturally influenced by the size of the city and by the grade unit assigned to the supervisors. The supervisory grade units which were represented included the following: Segregated kindergarten; kindergarten-primary; kindergarten-elementary; elementary; and combinations of grades within the kindergarten to sixth-grade group. One such combination included supervision of nursery schools with the kindergarten-primary grade group. Contributions were made to the discussions by W. S. Deffenbaugh, chief of the city schools division, Bureau of Education, and Dr. James Fleming Hosic, of Teachers College, editor of the Journal of Educational Method.

Discussion centered about criteria for judging the values of work programs. The first criterion was concerned with the unit of grades assigned for general supervisors. It is considered essential to provide a closely integrated program of educative activities for children through all the grades of the elementary school. Subjects of the elementary school curriculum have their beginnings in the kindergarten and first-grade activities. An adequate program of supervisory work cares for this unit of grade experiences and protects the children from periodic changes in methods of teaching and in classroom procedures as they are promoted from grade to grade or transferred from one building to another within the school system of a city. The consensus of opinion, therefore, of those attending the conference favored the combined kindergarten to sixth-grade unit as the one most desirable for supervisory work. The nursery school should be added to this unit as it becomes a part of the school system. With the larger city and the consequent large teaching force it becomes necessary to divide the work of this unit of grades among two or three persons. The division which was favored by the conference was the nursery school or kindergarten through the third grade and the fourth grade through the sixth or eighth grade. The lower and upper limits of these two divisions depend upon the general organization of each individual city's educational program. The conference voiced the necessity for having a coordinating officer to insure a unified program for the two divisions when such divisions are made.

Other points discussed in the light of this accepted grade unit included the experience and professional training essential for a supervisor, her official relationships to other line and staff officers of the school system, the administrative duties which become a part of her work and which should be so recognized, and the title best suited to general supervisors.

So much valuable material has been written on the techniques of supervision of instruction that the conference was contented to make certain general statements concerning underlying principles. Interest was then focused upon plans for making case studies of certain unique programs of supervisory work. These case studies will be made in cities of different sizes where problems common to all supervisors are being solved.

Urges Demonstrations in Music Week, May 6–12

American music will be better known to school children as the result of stressing native compositions in National Music Week, May 6–12. Songs of our own people may be given a novel treatment in assembly singing by using the descriptive notes in a booklet entitled "Stories of America's Songs," to be obtained without charge from the national music week committee, 45 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City. A recommended list of "American Music that Americans Should Know," made up of suggestions from a large number of prominent musicians, may be obtained from the same source. The schools are urged to utilize music week for demonstrations which will better acquaint the public with the efficiency of their training in music.

Committee on Research in Secondary Education Reports Progress

National Committee is Attempting to Coordinate Studies Pursued by Regional Organizations. Six Comprehensive Manuscripts and Ten Articles in "School Life" Sponsored by Committee During Past Year. Personnel of Committee

By CARL A. JESSEN

Secretary National Committee on Research in Secondary Education

A STUDY of secondary schools, more nearly national in scope than any heretofore attempted, will be conducted in 1930 if plans mature as laid at the recent annual meeting of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. The enterprise contemplates a cooperative study of member schools by the five regional accrediting associations of New England, Middle States and Maryland, Southern, North Central, and Northwest States.

All of these organizations have from time to time initiated individual studies of their own schools. The North Central Association carried out elaborate statistical investigations of its secondary member schools in 1915, 1920, and 1925. The Northwest Association is committed to the plan of conducting such a study in 1930 and in every succeeding year divisible by five. The Southern Association has recently completed a study of secondary schools within its territory.

Nation-wide Coordination is Contemplated

The national committee is attempting to bring greater coordination into these studies by having them all made in the same year, by having them made on a comparable basis, and by having the reports of these studies prepared by a central committee and published in a single bulletin. Since the five associations operate in 46 of the 48 States, the study under consideration will be approximately national in character.

Other activities of the national committee now in progress include studies of small high schools, urban high schools, characteristics of high-school pupils, procedure in research teaching personnel, and educational subject headings.

Bulletins and articles reporting national committee investigations have appeared frequently during the past 12 months. Following is a list of completed studies and publications of the year:

A. Jones, Arthur J. *An Outline of Methods of Research with Suggestions for High School Principals and Teachers.* Printed by the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior as Bulletin, 1926, No. 24. More than 11,000 copies have been distributed.

B. Windes, E. E. *Bibliography of Studies in Secondary Education.* Printed by the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior as Bulletin, 1927, No. 27. Approximately 8,000 copies have been distributed.

C. Norton, J. K. *Bibliography of Current Research Undertakings in Secondary Education.* Published as a mimeographed circular by the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior, March, 1927. The full edition of 2,000 copies was distributed.

D. Roemer, Joseph. *Study of Southern Association High Schools.* Completed and accepted for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior.

E. Montague, J. F. *Senior High School Promotion Plans.* Completed and accepted for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior.

F. Proctor, Wm. A. *College Entrance Requirements in Relation to Curriculum Revision in Secondary Schools.* Reported in Chapter VII of the 1928 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence.

The following articles sponsored by the National Committee on Research have appeared in SCHOOL LIFE, published by the United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, during the year:

1. Bliss, Walton B. Good Citizenship Built Upon Civic Integrity in High School. March, 1927.
2. Ashbaugh, E. J. Need of Uniformity in Certification of High School Teachers. April, 1927.
3. Windes, E. E. The National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. April, 1927.
4. Koos, Leonard V. Conditions Favor Integration of Junior Colleges with High Schools. May, 1927.
5. Ferriss, Emery N. Wide Variations of Practice in Small Junior High Schools. June, 1927.
6. Reavis, William C. General Guidance Responsibilities of the Secondary School. September, 1927.
7. Wetzel, William A. Plan of Rating Teachers Based Upon Pupil Accomplishment. October, 1927.
8. Roemer, Joseph. Accredited Secondary Schools of the Southern Association. November, 1927.
9. Roemer, Joseph. Secondary Schools of Southern and North Central Associations. December, 1927.
10. Wetzel, William A. Must Consider Pupils' Academic Ability and Requirements of Curricula. January, 1928.

Committee is an Autonomous Body

It will be noted that a close relationship exists between the Bureau of Education of the United States Department of the Interior and the national committee. This relationship originated three years ago, when, in response to an invitation issued by Commissioner John J. Tigert, a small group of men met and organized the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. From the time of its organization the committee has been an entirely autonomous body which has determined its own membership and its own policies. It has, however, maintained a close affiliation with the bureau, having at all times selected its secretary from among representatives of the bureau and having relied upon the bureau to publish the greater number of its studies.

That this relationship is effective is indicated by the accomplishments of the 3-year old committee. That the connection is cordial is evidenced by the following resolution passed unanimously at the Boston meeting of the committee:

Resolved, That it be the sense of this body that our relations with the Bureau of Education are much better understood as a result of this conference.

That we reaffirm our pleasure in said relations and express our desire that we cooperate to an even greater degree in the future.

Officers and members of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education for the ensuing year are as follows:

Officers

Chairman, J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan.

Vice chairman, W. R. Smithey, University of Virginia.

Secretary, Carl A. Jessen, Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

Organization Representatives

E. J. Ashbaugh, Ohio State University, representing Educational Research Association.

Francis M. Crowley, Washington, D. C., representing National Catholic Welfare Conference.

R. N. Dempster, Johns Hopkins University, representing National Association of Collegiate Registrars.

J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, representing North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Ralph E. Files, East Orange, N. J., representing Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

Francis M. Froelicher, Old Farms, Avon, Conn., representing Progressive Education Association.

W. H. Gaumnitz, Washington, D. C., representing Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

J. C. Hanna, Springfield, Ill., representing National Association of High School Inspectors and Supervisors.

Carl A. Jessen, Washington, D. C., representing Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

A. J. Jones, University of Pennsylvania, representing National Society of College Teachers of Education.

Leonard V. Koos, University of Minnesota, representing National Society for the Study of Education.

J. K. Norton, Washington, D. C., representing National Education Association.

C. W. Newhall, Shattuck School, Faribault, Minn., representing Private School Association of the Central States.

J. Orin Powers, George Washington University, representing Phi Delta Kappa

William A. Proctor, Leland Stanford Junior University, representing California Society for the Study of Secondary Education.

W. R. Smithey, University of Virginia, representing Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States.

Morton Snyder, Washington, D. C., representing Headmasters' Association.

Ph. Soulen, University of Idaho, representing Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

John J. Tigert, Washington, D. C., representing Bureau of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

William A. Wetzel, Trenton, N. J., representing National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Members at Large

Charles F. Allen, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Ark.

Thomas H. Briggs, Columbia University.

W. H. Bristow, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill.

George S. Counts, Columbia University.

Jesse B. Davis, Boston University.

Aubrey A. Douglass, Leland Stanford Junior University.

D. H. Eikenberry, Ohio State University.

E. N. Ferriss, Cornell University.

E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania.

M. E. Ligon, University of Kentucky.

Jesse Newlon, Lincoln School, Columbia University.

W. C. Reavis, University of Chicago.

Joseph Roemer, University of Florida.

Milo H. Stuart, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

Paul W. Terry, University of North Carolina.

Willis L. Uhl, University of Wisconsin.

E. E. Windes, University of Virginia.

State University Establishes School of Religion

A school of religion in the State University of Iowa was inaugurated in 1927. It is a regular department in the college of liberal arts. Control is vested in a board of trustees on which Catholics, Jews, Protestants, and the university are represented. Registration in the new school was slightly less than 100 students. Courses are elective. Undergraduate studies include the Old and the New Testament, ethics, and educational use of the Bible. In the graduate field, courses are given in comparative religion and the history of religion.

Meetings of Joint Committees for the Study of Platoon Schools

Assistant Superintendent of Denver Schools Shows that Platoon Schools Produce Saving of $2.77 Annually per Pupil for Instruction. Exhibit of Development of Originality in Art Under Platoon Plan

By ALICE BARROWS

Specialist in School Buildings, Bureau of Education

THE national research committees on platoon schools appointed originally by the United States Commissioner of Education and later made joint committees of the Bureau of Education and the National Association for the Study of the Platoon or Work-Study-Play Plan of School Organization, held their annual meetings in Boston at the Hotel Statler at the conference on platoon schools, February 27 to March 2. The committees were those on buildings, organization, auditorium, libraries, training of teachers, music, special activities, education of public opinion.

At the meeting of the committee on platoon-school buildings, on February 27, lantern slides of different types of new buildings were shown in connection with the talks by William B. Ittner and Frank Irving Cooper, architects. J. W. Ramsey, superintendent of schools of Fort Smith, Ark., described in detail the five different types of existing buildings in which he had started platoon schools.

At the meeting of the organization committee, on February 28, at which "Platoon organization and school costs" were discussed, Homer W. Anderson, deputy superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo., said that the results of a careful study of six paired platoon and nonplatoon schools "showed that, based on membership, the average cost per pupil for the six platoon schools was $69.86 and for traditional schools $72.63, or $2.77 lower annual instruction cost per pupil in the platoon schools." In regard to costs of buildings for platoon and nonplatoon schools, Mr. Anderson said that in Denver the community demands an auditorium and gymnasiums for both platoon and nonplatoon buildings, and that "if we would not install a platoon school in a building which is provided with auditorium and gymnasium it would be necessary to add at least four classrooms, at a cost of $9,000 per classroom, or $36,000. * * * In other words, to provide these facilities (auditorium and gymnasium) and let them stand idle, as in a traditional organization, would be much more expensive than our community or any other community could afford."

The subject of the music committee meeting was "The growth of instruction in instrumental technique in the public schools: An opportunity for the platoon school." Norval L. Church, Teachers College, Columbia University, and John A. O'Shea, director of music, public schools, Boston, gave papers on the "Educational principles and aims involved" and "The development in this field." In order to illustrate his discussion of the various instruments and methods of instruction, Mr. O'Shea brought with him to the meeting a boys' band, 15 sixth-grade violinists, and 12 fifth and sixth grade pianists with their practice keyboards. Each of the groups gave demonstrations.

In connection with her talk on art in the committee on special activities, Miss Ella A. Fallon, supervisor of elementary schools, New Britain, Conn., brought a beautiful exhibit of the art work of children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in platoon schools in New Britain to illustrate "the development of originality in art under the platoon plan."

Two of the best attended meetings were those of the committee on auditorium and committee on training of teachers for platoon schools. Both these meetings were in the form of round-table discussions, based on questions sent to the chairmen from superintendents of platoon schools from all over the country. The questions taken up in the auditorium committee covered such points as the training of teachers for the auditorium and other activities in platoon schools, the equipment and methods of organizing the auditorium, the use of the training teacher, and programs for the auditorium.

Some of the problems discussed in the committee on training of teachers were: The relation of normal and teacher training schools to the problem of training teachers for the varying needs of platoon schools; how to secure properly trained library teachers; opportunities for training principals and teachers in service by means of conferences, demonstrations in organization, methods and exhibits; and the problem of training principals for the conduct of platoon schools, who, in turn, must train their teachers.

An American Teacher of Home Economics in New Zealand

Winter Experiences Disagreeable to Persons Accustomed to Steam Heat. Characteristics of Englishmen Appear Strongly in the People of New Zealand. Salads, Green Vegetables, and Fruits Not So Much Used As in America. Modern Methods of Education Taught in Training Colleges but Not Yet General in the Schools

By LILLIAN B. STORMS

726 Bond Building, Washington, D. C.

AFTER we have been to Europe, the Near East and then the Far East, there are still places left to visit, and one of them is New Zealand. And it is a place where everyone else has not been.

New Zealand and Australia reach down toward the South Pole about as far as any land goes in the Southern Hemisphere and they are nearly halfway around the world from New York City. The ocean trip is just the right length from Vancouver or San Francisco, 20 glorious days, down across the Equator and through the Tropics. Either route includes two stops at South Sea Isles to break the monotony of days at sea. Twenty days on the ocean is long enough to get one's sea legs, settle down to life on a boat as one can not do on a short trip, and really learn how completely enjoyable a sea trip is.

Climate Necessitates Extra Underclothing

Japan, northern China, and New Zealand are all equally poor places for tourists in winter. The only safe way is to acquire sufficient wisdom to wear one, perhaps two, and possibly three woolen union suits and even then expect to be very uncomfortable. In none of these countries is it as cold as in our own country at similar latitude, and because three narrow islands constitute New Zealand there are no extremes of temperature.

But summer in New Zealand is a different matter. From November 1 through March, and sometimes part of April, there are many interesting places to go, and with fair comfort. True, woolen underwear is almost a necessity, especially in the mountain districts, and sweaters and heavy coats are needed for the cool evenings and for mountain motor rides.

The cities of New Zealand are interesting for the public gardens and for the museums where there are really fine collections of early Maori art and craft. Very little modern use has been made of Maori designs, which is a pity, for the native wood carving embodies conventional curved patterns of great beauty. The Maoris are an interesting and superior native race, although only a short distance away in Australia the aborigines are of a very low type. Maori legends say the first canoes came to New Zealand from Hawaii and that they made the return trip to Hawaii; probably this trip was made several times. It must have taken several weeks in canoes, for now the ship takes 14 days from Honolulu to Auckland.

Formal Entertaining in the Homes

There is less club and fraternal life in the cities than in this country, with the result that more entertaining is done in the homes. Even in the home of moderate means there is some of the English formality in entertaining. The afternoon tea is almost universal, and one never goes to a home in either the morning or afternoon, or for that matter the evening, that tea, sandwiches, and cake are not served. It is hospitable and sociable, although hard on one's enjoyment of the next meal when one is not accustomed to it. Nutritionally, the evil lies in the fact that having had afternoon tea and the children had a "piece," or more than one piece, the evening meal is apt to consist of bread, butter, jam, and tea, with perhaps cake. That is too much like the afternoon repast and inadequate for growing children. Through nutrition studies at the University of New Zealand we determined that out of 710 families whose menus we had for a week each the aforementioned was the evening meal one or more times in 38.3 per cent of the families.

There are fundamental similarities in the life among English-speaking peoples, providing they are in groups sufficiently large to make possible their adherence to English standards for and ideas of living. The differences only serve to emphasize the underlying similarity. However, we are not inclined to comment on these familiar aspects; we take them for granted. The points of difference first attract our notice and, as in different sections of this country, variations in accent, interests, food, and customs all seem conspicuous. So, while calling attention to the variations from what we think of as usual, there are customs and food habits similar to ours which are ignored, with the result that undue emphasis is laid on the unfamiliar.

Consumption of Meat is Remarkably High

The food habits of the people of New Zealand are more like those of England than like ours. The per capita consumption of tea and meat far exceeds the consumption of those articles here. New Zealand is a meat-producing country and chilled meat is one of the principal exports. The per capita consumption is given in Abstract of Statistics as 355 pounds per year, or nearly a pound a day. Allowing 20 to 25 per cent for waste, that figure would be 270 to 280 pounds net per year. The gross consumption of Australia is given as 193 pounds and of Canada it is only 161 pounds. In the World Almanac

Wellington Technical High School instructs several thousand students in its day and night classes

for 1928 gross consumption of meat in the United States is given as 142.8 pounds. Nutrition studies conducted through the cooperation of the home economics teachers in the schools of the Dominion last year show that meat is eaten 11.2 times per week in the average family, or nearly twice a day. This means that many families regularly have meat three times a day.

Whangarei River flows through scenes of picturesque beauty

The per capita consumption of coffee in New Zealand must be practically nothing, as against our 12 pounds per year. Very little coffee is used—and half of that is chicory. It is made with hot milk and when served is very weak. In one of the dormitories one cup of ground coffee was used to make coffee to serve 40 people and we did not recognize that it was supposed to be coffee. Many people in New Zealand have tea seven times a day and some of those times more than one cup. The tea is strong—they think our tea is atrocious—and it is served with milk instead of lemon.

Potatoes Used Often; Green Vegetables Sparingly

The aforementioned nutrition studies showed that potatoes appeared regularly at least once every day on every menu. Furthermore, potatoes were the only vegetable used by 2 per cent of the 710 families (13,119 meals), and vegetables other than potatoes were used 6.2 times per week. This means that very few used two vegetables on any one day. Of these vegetables, green vegetables (which included lettuce) were served two times a week. However, 26 per cent of the families never listed green vegetables during the week. Fruit was used 6.3 times per week; fruit is not ordinarily served for breakfast but after the noon meal. Four per cent of the families showed no fruit on the week's menu. It must be noted that these were average families who had children in the public schools.

No exact comparison is available, but from the work of Sherman and Gillett in 1917, "The Adequacy and Economy of Some City Dietaries," in American cities in which 92 dietaries believed to be "fairly representative of social groups" were studied, we obtain the following figures which serve for comparison. Grouped according to the cost per person per day into four groups, the consumption of meat was 6.74 ounces for the lowest-priced group of 23 families to 11.64 ounces for the highest-priced group of the same number of families. This would give an average far less than that of New Zealand. The consumption of milk was from 7.8 to 14.7 ounces per person per day, which is higher than New Zealand's one-half pint. Vegetables were 11.78 ounces (of which 7.8 ounces were potatoes) for the lowest-priced group gradually increasing to the highest priced which was 18.07 (of which 10.58 ounces were potatoes). This means that in the lowest-priced dietary there was an average of 4 ounces of vegetables other than potatoes used a day, or 28 ounces a week. It would not seem that as high a percentage of these families as in New Zealand (i. e. 26 per cent) could never use green vegetables. Furthermore, the study of Sherman and Gillett was made in 1917 and we would expect the educational work conducted in this country along nutritional lines to have improved the averages shown in their study. While no claim is made that the data of New Zealand could not be exactly duplicated in certain sections and among certain people in this country, such a study of averages substantiates what is quickly felt to be a considerable difference in food habits between New Zealand and the United States in the more restricted use of vegetables and practical absence of salads.

Food Habits Affected by Training

This survey of nutrition habits has been given in such detail, not in a spirit of showing our superiority over any other country, for we have far to go before we can feel superior, but to show the effect which seems evident in our nutrition habits probably in very large measure attributable to home-economics education and food and nutrition education of the general public. If our food habits are any better than those of any other countries, our general and widespread home-economics training should have the credit.

One reason for the greater intelligence of our women on home-economics subjects is the presence in our society of a large number of women as home makers who have had this training in our colleges and universities, or at least that given in our high schools. In New Zealand there are few women in homes and society who have

Arthur River enters the ocean through the cliffs of Milford Sound

had university training of any kind. Most of them have been to finishing school, but the grade of work in the finishing schools, even the best, is far from university standard, and most of it is not up to good high-school grade. It is not fashionable in New Zealand to go to the university, and few girls go except those who expect to take medical training or those who expect to teach—providing they do not in the meantime get a husband. I realize the danger of generalizations and feel obliged to call attention to the fact that there are many very interesting and intelligent women there. It can be pointed out that in many sections of the United States one can find few university or college graduates, but in the country as a whole we do have a substantial sprinkling of university-educated women. Women in New Zealand are practically restricted to the two occupations of home making or teaching; very few are in business except as stenographers and clerks.

Not Given to Experiment in Education

The schools are based on the English system. There is much less experimenting in education than we have had and are having. More modern methods of teaching are taught in the teacher-training colleges than are used in the schools, for the older teachers who are in the positions of responsibility are of the old régime and many have not changed. Teachers are graded by inspectors and their positions and salaries are largely fixed by that grading. The consequences are that a lecture system and very rigid discipline are still in use in some of the grade schools and only gradually is the recitation method being substituted. I felt in my university classes that my students were so addicted to the lecture system with no questions expected and no study until just before an examination that I had to resort to some spectacular methods to get any response. So universally is the examination the all-determining factor in the passing of students, due largely, of course, to the external examination system, that the only practical way to get daily study would have been to assign an examination every period. In teaching chemistry, especially organic chemistry, where students soon become lost, I almost resorted to that plan. Continual failure in recitation or in laboratory work carried no stigma.

Another result of the lecture and examination system is that my students there could memorize and hand back to me in examination word for word most of my lectures and I could hardly continually manufacture thought-provoking questions which they could not manage to answer sufficiently well for a passing grade with their excellent memories. Teaching organic chemistry in college here is quite a different matter, for our students are not trained to memorize to the same extent.

Graduation from high school is determined by passing the matriculation examination, under the control of the University of New Zealand, and not by completion of the high-school examinations. Hence, practically only the subjects covered in that examination are taught in the high schools. The system has now worked out so that the majority of high-school students come up for that examination after three years.

Another practical result of the external examination system is that the teacher is substantially a tutor. His reputation largely rests on the ability of his students to pass an external examination; furthermore, he can not, apparently, be trusted to determine whether or not his students are entitled to have completed the required work. It implies the possibility of dishonesty unless a higher authority keeps a constant check. New Zealanders do not appreciate this, for they are familiar only with their own system. A teacher is practically limited to just the material in the syllabus, for if that work is covered there is no time for digressions. It makes the work uniform throughout the Dominion, which, of course, is the aim, but it stifles initiative on the part of the teacher.

Same Subjects Taught Every Year

As well as I could determine, another interesting result of the matriculation examination is that the same subjects are taught each year in the high school but each year to a "higher standard." The reason is that subjects taught in the first year might be forgotten by the time the student "sits matric" unless constantly reviewed and kept in mind. It seemed to me a perfect way to annihilate interest on the part of the student, although it perhaps was not quite so effective in that respect as would be expected.

Compulsory superannuation is in force. Teachers may retire at 65 years of age with a small though regular income, and some of them start right out to travel on it. My superannuation money was withheld when my salary was paid and it was never missed; but when it was refunded upon leaving the country it was as though sent by Heaven.

Teachers are more and more being encouraged to travel and accept exchange positions. These exchanges are mainly with teachers in England. New Zealand is so far removed from other countries, even Australia is four full days by boat, that contacts by travel are almost necessary, for people from other countries interested in education do not visit there as commonly as they go to more accessible places.

Motto of Denver Opportunity School

(*Continued from page 149.*)

types of students the Union Pacific Railroad provides room and equipment. The board of education is responsible for the quality of instruction given. An engineer of long service with preparation for teaching has charge of the work. Funds provided by the Smith-Hughes Act are used for some of this work.

Conclusion

Many cities have up for consideration the question, Should there be a separate school to do the type of work that is done by the Denver Opportunity School, or can this work be done by the cosmopolitan high school? This question merits considerable thought and investigation. Students of the subject might differ in their opinions, but all who visit the Denver school will agree that many cities have similar opportunities for service which they are now overlooking.

Other questions that the thoughtful school administrator will ask himself after visiting the Denver school are: How much of the success of this school is due to the special genius of Miss Griffith? Can principals be found in the ranks of most school systems who can do a similar work? The writer's answer to this question is that Miss Griffith thinks that any city can find those in its ranks who, if given the opportunity, can develop a similar school. It is suggested that a principal appointed to such a position in any city would do well to visit the Denver Opportunity School and, if possible, catch its spirit as well as learn its technique.

After visiting the Opportunity School of Denver and getting a glimpse of the service that it is rendering to thousands of students who go through it to attack life's problems cheerfully and confidently, the writer came to the conclusion:

(1) That men and women, as well as boys and girls, need a chance; yes, a second, a third, or a fourth chance to prepare themselves for life's tasks.

(2) That this school makes for a more prosperous Denver because of the increased productiveness of its students and the general good will and mutual understanding which it creates between employed and employer.

A commission has been appointed by the department of public instruction of Cuba to organize a plan of instruction for backward children who are at present attending regular public schools. Steps will be taken at the same time for the provision of special training for teachers of such children.

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Men Should Continue to Grow In Intellectual Power

IT IS SELF-EVIDENT that education is a continuing business. We are apt to speak of education as something analagous to the measles. A child is exposed, takes it, gets over with it, and we feel that he is thenceforth immune to it. When a child is through school, he is educated. Then his education dies; nothing more is done to it; only his body goes marching on. Now it seems to me that it is self-evident that any education that is valuable and important is a growing and a becoming. If we achieve anything worthy in education, we may expect that men and women will continue to grow with the passing years in intellectual power and in wisdom. The death of a man really takes place when his education stops. Educational death should coincide with bodily death.

A. L. DEAN
University of Hawaii

POSTURE

It is not alone the voice the message bears
That you to all mankind unwitting give.
The body speaks even when the lips are mute
And loud proclaims the truth you hourly live.
The gracious carriage of the well-poised head
Upheld as if a regal crown it wears,
The broadened shoulders and uplifted chest
Proclaim the fearless heart that strives and dares.
Not with despondent steps to tread the dust
Was man conceived. Creature of air is he
Whose feet touch light the ground. Upright he stands,
Lord of his mental realm, unsullied, free.

—*JOSEPHINE M. FABRICANT*
De Witt Clinton High School
New York City

SCHOOL LIFE

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A BRANCH LIBRARY IN A COUNTRY STORE IN JEFFERSON COUNTY, ALABAMA

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CONTENTS

SECONDARY EDUCATION is unquestionably the foremost topic in the minds and in the discussions of American school men. It has always occupied a prominent place in SCHOOL LIFE. This journal is the official organ of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which J. B. Edmonson is chairman and Carl A. Jessen is secretary. During the past year many noteworthy articles in SCHOOL LIFE have been sponsored by this committee, and others are in hand or in prospect for publication in early numbers. Among them are the following: (1) Program of Studies in the Rural High School. Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University. (2) Cooperative Study of English and American Secondary Schools. Arthur J. Jones, University of Pennsylvania. (3) Some Impressions of Secondary Education in California. Leonard V. Koos, University of Minnesota. (4) Certification of High-School Principals. D. H. Eikenberry, Ohio State University. (5) Supervision of Organized Student Activities in the High School. Paul W. Terry, University of Alabama. (6) Certain Aspects of the Small High School in Ohio. E. J. Ashbaugh, Ohio State University. (7) The Small Six-Year Junior-Senior High School. William H. Bristow, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction. (8) A Viewpoint of the Core-Curriculum in Secondary Education. Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University. (9) Function of History in the Secondary School. Francis M. Froelicher, Avon Old Farms, Avon, Conn. (10) The National Honor Society. Edward Rynearson, Principal Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa. (11) College Admission Requirements. William M. Proctor and Edwin J. Brown, Leland Stanford Junior University. (12) Curricular Determinants in the Junior College. A. A. Douglass, Pomona College. Contributions are expected also from R. N. Dempster, Johns Hopkins University; Francis M. Crowley, National Catholic Welfare Conference; M. E. Ligon, University of Kentucky; and Jesse B. Davis, Boston University.

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Secretary of the Interior, HUBERT WORK - - - - - *Commissioner of Education,* JOHN JAMES TIGERT

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Probationary Teachers in Buffalo Assigned to "Teacher Centers" for a Year

Principal of Each Center Has Demonstrated Ability as Teacher Builder. One Advisory Teacher for Every 8 or 10 Probationers. University of Buffalo and Canisius College Give Two College Credits for Each Semester in Teacher Center. If Probationer Proves Efficient in Three Years' Service, Her Next Contract Carries Permanent Tenure. Incompetents Discovered Before Permanent Damage is Done

Supplied by DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Buffalo, N. Y.

THE PRINCIPAL features of the Buffalo plan of caring for newly appointed teachers are as follows: By agreement with the University of Buffalo and Canisius College, all graduates of the State Teachers College at Buffalo are given credit for two full years of collegiate work. Upon passing the city competitive examination they receive the usual probationary contract, terminable at any time within three years, and upon the successful completion of which their tenure becomes permanent. They are assigned to one of nine schools designated as "teacher centers," given a regular class, and receive the full pay provided by the salary schedule for the beginning teacher. The considerations governing the selection of these teacher centers were twofold: First, a principal who had demonstrated unusual ability as a teacher builder; and, second, a school which had established high ideals of achievement for the various grades.

Advisory Teacher An Important Factor

For every 8 to 10 probationary teachers, each center has one advisory teacher, who, by reason of her high ideals, strong personality, capacity for growth, and unusual instructional skill, has shown special aptitude for this work. She helps the probationary teacher plan her lessons; sympathetically evaluates her performance; takes her classes for demonstration purposes; aids her in her disciplinary troubles; keep her in touch with the most helpful literature of her subjects; encourages, stimulates, and assists her in all her difficulties; in short, acts as a "big sister" or official adviser.

For the work at the teacher centers, if successful, the probationer is given two college credits for each semester on the ground that this constitutes her laboratory work. This teaching credit may be continued for three years, making it possible for her to secure 12 credits for successful teaching. College credit for successful teaching is somewhat of a novelty and was not gained without considerable effort. The necessary credit was, however, finally granted, and as a result, for the first time, so far as I know, in the history of education, successful teaching under the most careful supervision is placed on a footing of collegiate equality with such sacred operations as changing chemical compounds and carving crayfish.

Degree Earned in Spare Time

At the end of a successful year in the center the teacher is assigned to one of the regular schools of the city, making way for other new appointees. If she wishes to work for a degree, she must now decide on her future line of work as a teacher of upper or lower elementary grades, or of some special subject in senior high school. For each of these fields a course of required subjects, together with sufficient electives to complete the remaining credits required for graduation, is laid down by the university. This work has been so arranged that it can all be taken after school hours and on Saturday forenoons, evenings, or during the summer. The teacher may progress rapidly or slowly according to her abilities and inclinations; and upon the completion of this work, together with the submission of a satisfactory thesis, she is granted her degree at the University of Buffalo. Similar arrangements have been made with Canisius College.

Valuable Opportunity for Student Teacher

The advantages of the Buffalo plan of teacher training are large. To the teacher herself the opportunities offered by the scheme are especially great. Many a student has been forced to abandon a desire for a college education because of inability, real or fancied, to meet the financial strain. The Buffalo plan enables the ambitious student to get a college education under the most favorable conditions. The work at the State Teachers College involves no expense for tuition. The work at the university is done while the student is under full pay as a regular teacher in the Buffalo system.

Her introduction into teaching life at the teacher center is made under the most favorable auspices. Before this plan was inaugurated the new teacher came to us fresh from the State Teachers College, where her practice teaching had been performed under more or less artificial conditions, under the watchful eye of a critic teacher, with small classes in a classroom for which she felt little or no responsibility. From this highly academic atmosphere she was suddenly transplanted into a classroom where she was made entirely responsible for 40 or 50 children, every one of them watchfully

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waiting for the opportunity to try her out. Here she was left to "sink or swim," subject only to such help as might be given her by a principal of a large school, possibly selected without reference to his teacher-building ability and so heavily charged with administrative responsibility and routine that very little time was left for assistance to the new teacher.

Supervisory Teacher is a Friend Indeed

Compare the experience of a teacher under these conditions with that of the probationer at a teacher center. Here she is associated with a group which is on an equal footing with herself. She feels perfectly free to discuss her difficulties because she knows that all the other teachers are going through exactly the same experiences, and she has in the supervisory teacher a woman of strong personality, high ideals, big sympathies, and unusual skill in teaching. Her ambitions are fostered, her ideas sympathetically considered, her difficulties removed. She has a friend, an adviser, to whom she can go with all her troubles, who is there, in fact, for precisely that purpose. Under these conditions she can not help but grow. As one girl expressed it, who came to us after several years of experience, "Why, I didn't know there was so much to learn about teaching as I have already acquired in these few weeks at this center."

The theoretical training in principles and methods given at the State Teachers College, together with the intensive practical training of the teacher centers, supplemented by the breadth of culture of the university, brings to the city system teachers with an unusually rich preparation. The ideals of accomplishment acquired in schools especially selected for their possibilities in this matter; the wealth of educational literature with which the probationer is brought into contact in all three sources of training; and above all the habits of study coupled with the constant checking up of theoretical instruction with practical conditions—all these, coming at that time in her life when psychology teaches us that professional habits are crystallizing, will inevitably carry over into her whole future career, making the attitude of the student an integral part of her character. This influx of highly trained teachers into all departments of the system constitutes a most powerful influence in leavening the entire corps.

Easy to Weed Out Incompetents

On the other hand, the Buffalo plan of teacher training enables the department to discover incompetents before permanent damage is done. Under principals inadequately trained for supervision and frequently in an abnormally difficult environment, with supervisors responsible for impossible numbers of teachers, it is practically easy for the incompetent to drift through probation into life tenure. Under the Buffalo plan we endeavor to make the most of every newly appointed teacher. In spite of everything, we have some failures. Most of these recognize that they have been failures and drop out of the service. When a permanent contract is given to a grade teacher, it is given on the strength of full and complete knowledge of the teacher's ability and reasonable promise of efficient service.

Normal Schools Increasing Requirements for Admission

Higher standards demanded of teachers in public schools of the United States are reflected in the advanced requirements in a number of States for admission to teacher-training institutions, as shown by a study of the professional training of teachers made by William McKinley Robinson, results of which have been published by the Interior Department, Bureau of Education, as Bulletin No. 36, 1927. This tendency is illustrated by the recent requirement of Pennsylvania State normal schools that students shall be graduates of four-year high schools approved by the State department of public instruction. Beginning the fall of 1928, Michigan State normal schools will accept only graduates of high schools accredited by the University of Michigan.

Effective Safety Work in Honolulu Schools

About 350 junior police officers in Honolulu protect their schoolmates by guarding street intersections in the vicinity of school buildings. It is stated that, during the past six years, as a result of this safety work, not a single child has been fatally injured near a public school. In addition, practical safety lessons are given daily in primary grades. An innovation is the publication by a local newspaper of a safety lesson each week which may be used in school instruction. The board of education cooperates with other departments, and in public school assemblies attended by the sheriff and other officials some 1,000 pupils hear accident prevention talks.

By recent order of the Czechoslovak ministry of education, maternity leave of absence for three months may be granted to married women teachers. Further leave may be allowed, but without pay, and the time of such leave will not be credited toward promotion to a higher grade nor toward service requirement for pension.—*Emanuel V. Lippert.*

Health Service Increasing in Virginia

Counties in Virginia conducting rural health service under the direction of a whole-time health officer increased from 6 in 1920 to 15 counties in 1928. In 10 counties a sanitation officer is employed, according to recent study of rural health problems in Virginia, made by a graduate student at the University of Virginia. In 14 counties rural health service is in charge of a sanitation officer and a nurse; in 11 counties a public health nurse heads the work. In all, 50 of the 100 counties in Virginia maintain some form of public health service. The Virginia State Board of Health provides 50 per cent of the funds required to establish in counties whole-time medical health units, up to a budget of $10,000. A donation from the Rockefeller Foundation, equal to one-half of the State grant, further supplements the amount available to counties for work of this character. For less complete forms of health service State aid is given according to the extent of the work undertaken.

Junior High School Principals Under Investigation

To determine the training, experience, and interests of principals of junior high schools in the United States, as well as the duties and activities for which they are responsible, a study will be made under the joint auspices of the United States Bureau of Education and of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. The survey is under the direction of Frank K. Foster of the University of Washington, Seattle. He will seek information from all junior high schools in which grades 7–9 are administered as a separate unit. Studies have previously been made of the status of the high-school principal, but this is believed to be the first extensive survey of the preparation and activities of principals of junior high schools.

Summer School for Women in Industry

A school for women workers in industry was conducted at Sweet Briar College, Virginia, during the past summer. The enrollment of 26 included students from Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee. Arrangements for the school were made by a committee composed of five trade-unionists. The requirement for entrance was that each student must work with the tools of her trade.

County Libraries Contribute to Intelligence of Rural Communities

Larger Unit of Library Organization Economical Financially and Efficient Educationally. County Libraries Supply Quantity of Good Reading Matter Which Local Funds Would Not be Sufficient to Purchase. Many National Organizations Approve Plan. Laws of Two-thirds the States Permit Establishment of County Libraries, and Such Libraries are Maintained in Some States Without Specific Law

By EDITH A. LATHROP

Assistant Specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education

COUNTY libraries are contributing to the intelligence and happiness of rural communities by placing efficient library facilities at the disposal of rural schools, bringing a fresh supply of good books every few months to people in rural communities, strengthening small libraries, and establishing new ones. This is shown very conclusively by reports received by the Bureau of Education from States in which such libraries have been successfully demonstrated.

County superintendents of schools in California consider county libraries of great value to rural schools from a financial as well as from an educational standpoint. The chief financial benefit comes from placing at the disposal of small rural schools, a wealth of reading material that it would be impossible for such schools to purchase with their limited library funds. The principal educational benefits are: (1) The availability of a plentiful supply of reading material which can be used to supplement the regular textbooks makes it possible for teachers to put into practice scientific methods of teaching; (2) access to good books suitable for recreational reading stimulates children to establish right reading habits.

A former secretary of the Indiana public library commission says that the effectiveness and value of the county as a unit for library service has the indorsement not only of county superintendents

School children are active patrons of the county library station at Leeds, Ala.

of schools, home demonstration agents, and Red Cross nurses, but also a multitude of men, women, and children living in the rural districts who have hitherto been deprived of books.

In New Jersey, a State in which the county library project is only eight years old, the State librarian points out that because of the stimulus of financial aid and supervision furnished by county libraries, small struggling libraries have taken on a new lease of life, and communities previously without libraries have started them. The real work of this new development consists, she says, in promoting a happier and more efficient rural life by awakening in people a desire for books, creating a belief in the printed word as a vital factor in life, and bringing books to communities which have never had them before.

Library service is given to this mountain school in Monterey County, Calif.

From Hamilton County, Tenn., comes the report that since the establishment of the county library, children of families that have been stamped with illiteracy for generations are reading books with a zest unknown in homes where books have always been plentiful.

Many Organizations Promote County Libraries

County library activities on the part of various national and State organizations and State library and educational agencies seem to indicate that the county library idea is attracting more attention than any other one phase of library development. County libraries have the indorsement of such national organizations as the American Farm Bureau Federation, the National Grange, and the American Library Association. Statewide county library campaigns are being promoted in a number of States by State library extension agencies, library associations, the Federation of Women's Clubs, and other organizations. The State Library Commission of New Jersey is actively engaged in extending county library service and the Ohio State Library was spreading the intelligence of the practical economy of county libraries by means of exhibits, talks, and printed matter until its service was curtailed last year by vetoed appropriations. The State Library Commission of Iowa in cooperation with the State Library Association recently operated a book truck as a means of arousing interest in county libraries. Indorsement of county libraries by the New York State Grange and the New York State Library Association have strengthened the movement in that State. State Federations of Women's Clubs in Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, South Carolina, Texas, Oregon, Washington, and some other States, are actively promoting the establishment of county libraries.

A county library provides for the extension to rural areas of the library service which large cities enjoy by making the county outside of cities and large towns the unit of support. Such a library comes home to the people through a central library, usually located at the county seat, and through its branches and "stations" scattered throughout the county. Branches are auxiliary libraries—usually located in small towns and villages—which are administered as integral parts of county library systems. "Stations," as defined by the American Library Association, include deposit and delivery stations. A deposit station is a place of some permanence where small collections of books, which are frequently changed, are placed in charge of a librarian. A delivery station is a place where orders for books from the central or branch libraries are filled but no books are kept on deposit.

Libraries Housed in Jails and Palaces

The librarian of the New Jersey Public Library Commission says that quarters used by the county libraries in that State range from the corner of a roadside market to a Gothic building of such perfect architecture that it is listed as one of the places of interest to foreign visitors. Stations are found in schools, grange halls, country churches, garages, roadside markets, country community houses, farm homes, restaurants, coast-guard stations, houseboats, and many other places. In one instance a Dutch oven serves as a station, and in another cells of an old jail have been converted into a really delightful station.

A fresh supply of books for a desert school in Kern County, Calif.

The latest available data from California show that county libraries are extending service to rural communities through 4,068 branches and 2,411 schools. A former county library organizer of the California State Library points out that the plan of distribution of books provides machinery for unlimited service, beginning at the most remote station and not ending until the sought-for book or other material is lent either by the county library, the State library, other cooperating libraries, or even the Library of Congress.

Methods of Transportation Differ Widely

Books are generally transported from the central library to branches, stations, farm homes, and isolated rural schools by means of automobiles fitted up with shelves capable of carrying several hundred books. Other means of transportation are parcel post, trolleys, pack mules, and conveyances of county school supervisors and public-spirited citizens.

County librarians or members of the office staff usually accompany the book automobiles on their trips about the counties. The success of county libraries depends to a great extent upon the personality of the librarians who meet the people in the field. Such librarians should have, in addition to a knowledge of books, the ability to make friends with people, to learn their needs and interests, and to cater to them. The following interesting experiences of county librarians illustrate the point:

A librarian in California tells of calling, on the occasion of a visit to a small town in her county, upon an Italian woman who had sent an inquiry to the county library regarding the possibility of borrowing books from the State library. The Italian woman explained that she wanted "romances" written in the language she liked best, which she was proud to say, was French. On another occasion, after consuming parts of two days in reaching an isolated mountain section, late on a Sunday afternoon, it was found necessary to abandon the plan of holding a library meeting on the following Monday. In order that the county librarian might not be disappointed, the rector of the mission gave over his Sunday evening service to a meeting for the discussion of the library needs of the community. The story is told in the Sierra Educational News, of June, 1921.

A visitor who traveled all day with a county librarian in the Iron Range of Minnesota tells (in Public Libraries, of February, 1920) the story of the foreman of a road construction gang who interviewed the librarian on her route for the purpose of making arrangements for placing the construction camp on the library route; he thought that the men needed the recreation reading would provide. In philosophizing over the day's experiences, this visitor said: "I fell to wonder-

Ooltewah branch of the library of Hamilton County, Tenn., serves school and community

ing why these rural patrons appeared to such advantage in the book bus and so devoid of personality when they approached the library desk. It must be that the books come to them on their own grounds and terms and not those of the library. One gives out more of himself when he is host than when he is guest."

The "library wagon" visits a rural school in Cape May County, N. J.

New England Organization is by Towns

According to the American Library Association, the number of county libraries organized each year is increasing. Twenty new ones are reported for 1927. Approximately 300 county libraries are now in operation in 33 States. The States without county libraries are Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Nebraska, Nevada, South Dakota, and the New England States. Town libraries are common in New England. The town is the unit for school as well as for civil administration there, and the town rather than the county as a unit for library service best suits the needs of rural New England. The largest number of county libraries in any one State is in California, where county library service is extended to 46 of its 58 counties. In New Jersey, since 1920 under the leadership of the Public Library Commission, the legislature has passed a county library law, and county libraries have been organized in 9 of the 21 counties.

More than two-thirds of the States have laws permitting the establishment of

county libraries. Some States with laws permitting the establishment of county libraries have as yet no such libraries, but other States with no legislation on the subject have established county libraries. While the earliest legislation appeared in Indiana in 1816 at the time of the adoption of the constitution, the great bulk of the county library legislation has been passed within the past 15 years, or, as one writer puts it, "since the California county library service has attracted the attention of the library world."

California's County Library System is Famous

The essential provisions of the California free county library law are as follows: (*a*) County boards of supervisors may establish county libraries; (*b*) municipalities, within the counties, maintaining their own libraries are not included at the time of establishment, but such municipalities may join the county libraries later if they so desire; (*c*) headquarters of county libraries must be at county seats; (*d*) county librarians must be certificated by the State board of library examiners; (*e*) school district boards of the counties may pool the districts' library funds with county free library funds; (*f*) county libraries are supported by a tax of not to exceed 1 mill on each dollar of assessed valuation of all property in the county; (*g*) county libraries may be disestablished in the same manner in which they were established.

From the information available it appears that although the first legislation for county libraries appeared in 1816, it was not until 1898 that the first county libraries were put into operation in Van Wert and Hamilton Counties, Ohio; and Washington County, Md. The first instance in which a horse-drawn wagon was used as a means of transporting books to people living in rural communities is reported from Washington County, Md. This horse-drawn book wagon was replaced a few years ago by an automobile.

Number Small Notwithstanding Recent Progress

Though the number of county libraries is increasing from year to year, the present number (approximately 300) is small when compared to the total number of counties in the United States, which is 3,073. The smallness of the number of such libraries becomes more significant when viewed in the light of the need for rural library service, as set forth in a recent study (in 1926) of the American Library Association. This study shows that 1,135 counties of the United States, or 37 per cent of the entire number, have no public libraries within their borders and that 83 per cent of the rural population of the United States are without public library service.

Data are not available showing the extent to which all of the approximately 300 county libraries in the United States are meeting the library needs of people in their respective counties. It appears that comparatively few of the total number have funds enough to render service equal to that offered by the best city libraries. In others the funds are entirely insufficient to meet the needs. For example, one county library reports a yearly budget of $1,200 to place library service at the disposal of a population of 32,824; another reports $150 for a population of 21,690.

A few years ago the council of the American Library Association adopted a resolution to the effect that $1 per capita of the population of the community served is a reasonable minimum annual revenue for the library of a community desiring to maintain a modern public library system with well-trained librarians. A comparison of total yearly budgets with populations served in 223 county libraries published by the American Library Association in 1925 shows that only 38 had yearly revenues amounting to $1 or more per capita of the population served, and that all but 10 of the 38 libraries were in California. The Los Angeles County library, which is reported to be the largest county library in the world, reported a yearly budget of $290,001 for a population of 170,652.

Cooperative Students Graduate in Five Years

Average weekly wage of men students in Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio, where students by alternating productive work and study may be practically self-supporting, is $22 in the freshman year, and $35 in the senior year. For women students the figures are $15 and $25. Cooperative work of students is with 180 employers in 13 States. Half of last year's graduates affiliated with employers who cooperate with the college. The average age at entrance to the college is 18 years, and most students complete the course in five years. About half of them attend college full time during one school year.

A large number of duplicate books to be rented have been purchased by the library of the University of Chicago. They are rented in sets or individually, and for different periods to suit the needs of students. Books in the rental library at present number more than 30,000, and the business is increasing rapidly. Rentals average about $1,200 per month. Arrangements have recently been made for extension of the service to home study students.

Alaska College to Train Teachers of Natives

Two-year teacher-training courses will be inaugurated in the Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines, located at Fairbanks. Decision to add the normal work to the curricula of the Territorial college was reached after a conference in Washington between Dr. John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, and President Charles E. Bunnell, of the college.

Graduates of the new courses may be considered for appointment as teachers in the schools for Alaskan natives conducted by the Bureau of Education. Their familiarity with the climate and general conditions of the Territory is expected to be advantageous. Teachers appointed in the States and going to Alaska for the first time sometimes have difficulty in adjusting themselves to the severe winters of Alaska and to the work for the natives, which includes the promotion of native industries, domestic arts, personal hygiene, village sanitation, and morality, as well as the elementary subjects usually taught in the schools. Residents of Alaska presumably understand these things and are already fully acclimated.

Doctor Tigert also requested President Bunnell to cooperate further with the Bureau of Education by developing plans for special instruction for Eskimo boys engaged in the reindeer industry.

Instruction for intending teachers and for the native boys is in accord with President Bunnell's policy of making the college an active instrumentality in the development of the Territory. He expects to issue a bulletin in a short time outlining the new courses.

Camp Life a Part of Normal-School Course

A nature study and health-education camp is maintained in connection with Slippery Rock State Normal School, Pennsylvania. Beginning as an experiment in 1925, it has become an established department of the school, and offers health-education courses in camp craft, scouting, and water sports, and nature-study courses in stars, trees, flowers, insects, birds, and animals. Health-education students in the normal school must take six weeks' work in camp before they graduate; work in camp for other students is elective. The camp is well equipped, and offers facilities for canoeing and swimming, as well as for scouting and athletics. The nature study and health-education departments of the school have charge of the camp.

The Junior High School a Factor in the Rural School Problem

Causes Which Have Retarded Extension of Junior High School Movement. Essential Characteristics of Junior High Schools for Rural Communities. Exploratory Courses on Limited Scale Possible and Desirable. Health Instruction and Physical Education Obviously Needed. Rural Students Usually Lack Social Activities. Junior High Schools Hold Pupils Longer in School. Part Time Teachers for Certain Subjects

By WILLIAM H. BRISTOW

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THE junior high school movement has already exerted a marked influence upon secondary education. Far-reaching reorganization in accordance with junior high school ideals has been effected only in the large centers. As a result of his study of small junior high schools in Massachusetts, Spaulding (in "The Small Junior High School," Harvard University Press, p. 210) concludes, "The need for a new type of organization is, however, clearly evident. It is only to some plan, apparently undeveloped, that we may look for possibilities of achievement in the small junior high school beyond those of mere compromise."

An attempt is being made in many sections to adapt the junior high school to small rural organizations. Evidence is already available to indicate that when organized under reasonably favorable conditions, the junior high school can make a valuable contribution to rural school organization.

Slow Extension in Rural Schools

The failure of the junior high school movement to extend more rapidly to the rural sections may be laid to the following causes:

1. *Need of leadership.*—The successful junior high school depends upon the training and enthusiasm shown by principal and teachers. Procedures and organization are more easily modified in a city school system. Small communities hesitate to abandon the seven or eight year elementary school and four year high school, especially if the advantages of the junior high schools have not been presented to them. It is difficult to secure leaders trained in administering and organizing rural junior high schools. It is only within the past few years that this problem has been seriously considered by teacher-training institutions furnishing principals and teachers for rural communities.

2. *Lack of building facilities.*—The junior high school needs assembly rooms, gymnasium rooms, library, shops, and home-economics rooms, or rooms which can be adapted for these purposes, if its program is to be effective. These facilities are not available in the average rural community.

3. *Teachers not trained in junior high-school work.*—There is a need of trained teachers to carry on the work of the junior high schools, especially the special phases of the work such as art, music, health, guidance, shop and agriculture, and home economics. It is still more difficult to secure teachers who can carry the combination of subjects required in these small schools.

4. *Difficulty in entering the four-year high school.*—Where urban high schools to which rural schools contribute pupils are organized on the 7–4 or 8–4 basis, the rural schools have hesitated to reorganize on the junior high-school basis, because of difficulty in entering the conventional four-year high school.

5. *Failure to recognize possibilities.*—Many leaders in the rural school field fail to recognize the possibilities of the rural junior high school in small communities. Others feel that the junior high school is "a city school movement," It is true that the organization adapts itself, and can be more economically operated with larger groups, but in isolated communities, even with an enrollment of 100 or fewer pupils, where part-time teachers are available for the special subjects, a successful junior high school can be established.

Reorganization of Small Schools is Practicable

If reorganization and articulation is necessary to meet the changing needs of society, then this reorganized program should be made available to rural boys and girls. Under competent teachers, there is no reason why this reorganization can not be carried to the smallest school. The English, mathematics, social studies, language, science and geography programs can be properly organized and articulated in the smallest school.

Exploration in junior business training and language may be made a part of the program in the smallest school. The equipment for these subjects need not be elaborate.

Junior high schools differ widely in the way in which they are organized and administered. There are, however, certain basic underlying principles which characterize a reorganized school. In some measure at least, the rural junior high school can realize these objectives. Adaptations, however, must be permitted if reorganization is to be made possible in remote communities. Some essential characteristics of the junior high school with modifications to adjust to the small school situation are:

1. *A reorganized program of studies.*—Articulating elementary and secondary education.

Shop and Agricultural Experience Available

2. (*a*) *A program of practical arts or prevocational work for boys.*—In the rural junior high school it will not be possible to organize elaborate "exploratory units." The school can, however, with minimum equipment provide for basic shop and agricultural experience, developed largely on the project basis, closely correlated with home and farm practice. In schools where it is possible to do so, definite shop and agricultural rooms should be provided. In smaller schools, combination shop and science rooms may well be developed.

(*b*) *Homemaking for girls.*—In the rural junior high school, combination class and homemaking rooms can be organized. The work in homemaking should be closely correlated with the work of the home and units organized in sewing, cooking, home care of the sick, etc.

3. *A fine-arts program.*—Music and music appreciation appear in the program of every well-organized school. Rural boys and girls are often denied the cultural opportunity presented in these subjects. The same is true for art.

4. *A health program.*—The young adolescent needs to be informed concerning personal and community hygiene; he also needs development physically and socially through group physical activities. Where it is impossible to provide gymnasium

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facilities, a well organized program of out-door activities should be provided.

5. *A guidance program.*—A guidance program which reenforces the "exploratory period" and concerns itself with a complete plan of guidance—moral, social, physical, and curricular—to the end that the adolescent boys and girls may more fully "find themselves," is a recognized part of the work of the modern junior high school. Vocational and educational guidance courses, together with "personal service," are needed just as much for the rural boy and girl as for the city boy and girl. Personnel service for rural boys and girls has been much neglected. Although "exploratory opportunity" is limited in the rural community, educational and vocational opportunities may be presented through the study of occupations.

Social Activity Develops Confidence

6. *Social activity program.*—The modern junior high school has developed a social activity program which gives practical training in citizenship. The social activity program in the rural junior high school will serve as an agency for developing initiative and confidence. Contacts are often limited for these boys and girls, and situations should be developed in student council meetings, auditorium exercises, club programs, and home-room activities for the exercise of desirable traits of citizenship.

7. *Directed learning technique.*—Modern procedure requires the organization of the recitation on a socialized basis with "directed learning" predominating; with subject matter and the level of teaching adapted to the interests, needs, and capacities of the group. The junior high school stimulates attention to individual needs, and through proper departmentalization, provides more adequate machinery for the evaluation and direction of study habits.

8. *Subject promotion.*—Subject promotion with provision for "restoration" or make-up groups as corrective measures for nonpromotion is a recognized procedure in the junior high school. This service can be more readily brought to early adolescents in small communities through reorganization on the junior high school basis.

Stimulates Reorganization of Studies

The acceptance of the junior high school plan for our rural schools will be a distinct gain educationally. In the first place it will stimulate reorganization of the program of studies and courses of study. Most of the work of curriculum reconstruction is now confined to the cities. City school boards are willing to provide the necessary funds to carry on curriculum reconstruction studies. The director of research and curriculum reconstruction can be employed here; the employment of such an official to do this work is seldom possible for rural schools.

While the results of studies made in the cities will be of value for all schools, we need to set up definite objectives for rural schools and from these objectives plan a program which can be carried on in the schools. With the acceptance of the junior high school plan as the ideal for rural organization, greater interest will result in the study of a curriculum adapted to rural schools. The adoption of the junior high school plan of reorganization as a State program has already taken place in Alabama.

Projects Adapted to Rural Life

In the second place, although an extensive program of try-out courses in home economics, general shop, etc., will not be possible in the small junior high school, considerable gain will result from the introduction of these courses, even on a limited basis. Nothing could be more nearly adapted to the life interests of rural boys and girls than live projects in home making, shop, or agriculture. In this field rural support should be most hearty for the junior high school organization.

No argument should be necessary for an extended program of health involving health instruction and physical education. Rural boys and girls are as much in need of this type of instruction as urban boys and girls. Although health has been placed as the first objective in secondary education, a well-organized program has not been made available to all boys and girls. What is most needed in rural communities is a corps of teachers trained to carry on the health program with building facilities and equipment to make this work possible. In focusing attention upon the necessity of these facilities, the junior high school will aid materially in securing a more adequate health program.

Music and Art Should be Provided

Due to the limited opportunities for cultural contacts, music and art should form an integral part of the small school program. In addition to drawing, color study, design, etc., chorus singing, and a study of music, the curriculum should provide liberally for art and music appreciation.

Vocational and educational contacts are few in the rural sections. It is, therefore, essential that contacts with educational and vocational possibilities be made vicariously. Pupils should be brought in contact with educational and vocational possibilities through a program which will—

1. Administer a program of educational and vocational guidance designed to help pupils: (*a*) Explore individual aptitudes; (*b*) comprehend educational possibilities; (*c*) choose intelligently the educational vocational careers best adapted to individual needs; (*d*) foresee the vocational opportunities to which these careers lead; (*e*) pursue with determination both educational and vocational training.

2. Give such vocational training as the equipment of the school will permit and the needs of the pupils and community warrant.

Junior Citizenship Provides Rich Experience

A well-defined program of junior citizenship providing rich experience in home-room activities, auditorium, clubs, and pupil participation in government is essential for the complete functioning of a modern school. Educators and laymen are coming to realize the importance of the social activity program. The development of such a program, however, must necessarily be gradual. The inauguration of a complete program before the pupils, the parents, or the teachers are ready for it is almost sure to have some unfavorable results.

It is in the social activity program that our rural secondary schools are most lacking. The one-room school can do little in this respect for pupils in the grammar grades. There is little time for it. The very small high school is under the same handicap; first, there are not enough pupils, and, second, the pressure of attempting a broad program with two, three, or four teachers has crowded out the social activity program. The organization of a junior high school with training in citizenship as one of its avowed purposes will stimulate interest in the social activity program. Rural boys and girls should not be denied this important part of their natural heritage.

Better Trained Teachers a National Outcome

Another gain which will be made by the introduction of the junior high school is in bringing better trained teachers into the small community. Not only shall we have better teachers, but the organization under which they work will make possible much more effective teaching. Mute evidence of this is seen in the high mortality in the grades represented by the junior high school years in rural schools.

The almost universal experience where the junior high school organization has been adopted is that pupils remain in school longer. Take boys and girls from the "mark time and endless drill to pass the entrance examination for high school" atmosphere of the rural schools, place them in a good junior high school where they have richer associations, a broader curriculum, opportunity for physical education, practical arts, and the other features which go with a junior high school,

and you are sure to hold them longer. More of them are sure to go on to senior high school, and those who quit at the end of the junior high school period will be much better prepared to meet the problems of life than if they had remained in a school poorly adapted to their needs and interests.

Turning to the administrative and organization side, here again the junior high schools offer hope to rural communities. The junior high school will become the local secondary school. Small communities will not attempt to do senior high school work. The local junior high school will offer three or four years of work. Pupils will then go to centralized senior high schools.

Cooperative Arrangement for Senior High School

The local district will thereby be relieved of the responsibility of providing differentiated curriculums (i. e., academic, commercial, vocational). The centralized senior high school, by this cooperative arrangement, will secure a student body large enough to justify offering several curriculums. Arrangements may even be made whereby the special teachers in the centralized school will do some of the work in the local junior high schools.

The three or four year junior high school will offer a better organization unit than we now find in our two-year high schools. The two upper grades of the present seven or eight year elementary school will benefit by the reorganization because of an enriched and vitalized program. The present high school will benefit because the enlarged group will make it possible to secure teachers who are better prepared, as each teacher will be required to teach fewer branches. Wherever possible, part-time teachers should be provided for such subjects as art, music, health, and practical arts. If this is impossible, the regular teachers must be selected with reference to their ability to teach subjects in these special fields.

New Adjustment Requires Two Years

In many States three-year high schools have not entirely disappeared. These schools have been criticized for the reason that pupils completing the course are required, on entering a four-year high school, to make rather difficult adjustments with only one year to do so. A pupil should be given at least two years to adjust himself in a new school.

The boy or girl from these high schools, while able to compete successfully in the academic work in the high school to which he goes, is placed at a disadvantage socially. Then, too, many pupils are prevented from going on for the fourth year because they wish to take the commercial or other curriculum which they are required to enter in the ninth or tenth year. For the most part, the present two and three year high schools are offering only the academic curriculum with rather restricted electives.

In communities where full consolidation is at present impossible, the local one-room or semigrade schools profit from the junior high school, as they are relieved of from 15 to 20 per cent of the school population when the two upper grades are removed to a junior high school. The time in these schools can then be devoted strictly to elementary education.

A junior high school may also serve as the nucleus for a consolidation project. Where consolidation is proposed and parents are prejudiced against sending pupils from the lower grades to a centralized school, although not opposed to sending them to the upper grades, sentiment can be built up for complete consolidation by starting with the junior high school organization.

Plan for a Small Junior High School

For a junior high school it is desirable to bring together as large a group as possible. In remote communities, however, even with a very small enrollment a junior high school can be operated. A restricted junior high school program can be offered by two or three teachers if the practical arts work can be done by a part-time teacher. It is possible to alternate certain subjects and combine classes. The successful operation of a small 4-year junior high school requires at least four teachers.

If part-time teachers for practical arts, health, art, and music can be employed the problem of the rural junior high school will be considerably simplified. This, of course, depends upon the cooperation of several districts or, in States having the county unit, in having these teachers of special subjects attached to the central office. In agriculture and home economics the employment of county agricultural or home economics supervisors will also help to solve the problem. The same is true for music, art, and health.

Six-Year Schools Often Desirable

In communities where it is necessary to establish complete high schools, the small six-year high school has been found to be the most desirable type of reorganization. Failure with six-year schools heretofore has been the failure to recognize the distinct functions of the junior and senior units. Even though it is not possible to carry out all of the functions of a junior high school, the small six-year secondary school is still an important step in realizing the junior high school ideal. It is the type of organization which should be followed where four-year high schools are now in operation.

A minimum of six teachers is necessary for the successful operation of a small six-year high school, where alternation and combination of classes is possible. Here again, wherever possible, part-time teachers for the special subjects should be utilized. Care must be taken, however, that the purposes of the junior high school are not submerged and that the organization does not revert to the 6–2–4 plan.

The junior high school has meant much to the boys and girls where it has been organized along progressive lines. It will mean even more to the boys and girls in the rural communities. Rural America should therefore not be denied the opportunity of growth offered by the junior high school.

Alabama Makes Further Provision for Rural Schools

More than a million dollars have been spent annually in Alabama during the past 10 years for the repair and construction of rural-school buildings. State aid was increased by the last legislature from $3,000 to $5,000 per county, and county high schools were made eligible for aid in the purchase of standard equipment and making repairs to buildings, on the same basis as rural schools. State assistance is graded according to the material used in the construction of buildings and the number of rooms per school. A division of architecture has been established, charged with the responsibility of drafting plans and supervising construction of buildings. Where State aid is granted for the erection of buildings, it is required that deeds shall be made to the State in fee simple; and that contracts ,which must be written and accompanied by bond, shall be let by the county board of education. Equipment must be purchased by or through the board.

Commercial Training for Elementary-School Graduates

A one-year commercial school for girls of New York City who need training in typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping in order to get a position is maintained in Public School No. 4, Manhattan. It is the only course of the kind offered in the city, and the 900 girls enrolled are drawn from every borough. This year 100 applicants had to be denied admission. To be eligible, a girl must present diploma from an 8B school. Several pupils hold junior high-school licenses, and some girls who have taken work in academic high schools enter for the intensive training offered. There is no age limit, but most of the pupils are 16 years old.

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· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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MAY, 1928

Concerning the Preparation of Educational Statistics

STATISTICS of education is the one characteristic production of the United States Bureau of Education. No other agency attempts to prepare such material upon a comprehensive scale. It was largely for this that the bureau was created. In the enumeration of purposes in the act of establishment "collecting statistics" is named first.

The first Commissioner of Education, Henry Barnard, made a beginning in the effort to collect statistics from the State departments of education; but it was John Eaton, his successor, who planned the present method of collection and established the early machinery for it.

The idea of filling a statistical questionnaire at the request of a Government officer in Washington was novel to schoolmen 60 years ago, and they required time to become accustomed to it. Furthermore, the keeping of statistical records worthy of the name was then by no means general; and the records that were kept were so diverse as to make any comparison unsafe and untrustworthy. Even in the large cities no uniform method had been adopted for recording the fundamental items of enrollment, attendance, income, and expenditure.

These difficulties were reflected in the statistical tables published in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1870. Only 57 pages were filled with statistics, although several classes of institutions were included which would not now be considered as directly educational.

Notwithstanding the discouragements that were met, the bureau's work has continued. The constant use of standard blanks has in itself tended to produce uniformity of terminology and of statistical method. In addition, by repeated committees and commissions on uniform statistics, by never-ending personal effort at conferences and conventions, by correspondence, and by the wide distribution of printed pamphlets, the officers of the bureau have labored without cessation to bring about workable uniformity of statistical records.

Blank forms of inquiry are still sent to the head of every school system and every educational institution, and each is requested to supply the data indicated in the blank. The Commissioner of Education has no legal right to require that the information be furnished; no pressure can be applied except that a second and a third request may be sent; and no money compensation can be offered for the work to be done.

Nevertheless, reporting officers have become habituated to cooperation with the bureau. They appreciate the necessity for national statistics of education; they know that the data of every educational agency is essential to completeness; they use and value the compiled information. These considerations have made possible the statistics of the Bureau of Education.

The country is growing apace and the processes of education and of educational administration are becoming more and more complex. Pari passu, the number of units to be described in statistics steadily increases, and the items which must be recorded of each unit likewise increases. Tremendous growth in the volume of statistics to be handled in the central offices has resulted.

For many years the statistical reports of the Bureau of Education were published annually. As time went on it became increasingly difficult to do so. Delays were especially serious in the State reports.

It became apparent in time that publication within a year was no longer possible, and the statistics of 1915 were published in the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1916. In the following year the decision was reached to collect and publish statistics biennially instead of annually. The volume of the material had become so great that it was out of the question to collect it all within a few months; and the cost of publication every year was consuming an undue proportion of the printing funds of the bureau.

The first statistical report upon the biennial plan, that of 1916–1918, was the result of an effort to keep up with the increased volume of material and to give due attention to its complexity. The statistics of that period filled two volumes of 901 and 797 pages, respectively. But the final chapter of the series was issued about two years and nine months after the end of the year covered by the statistics, and the chapter on State school systems was issued June 20, 1920—a little less than two years after the close of the period it described.

Clearly this was giving too much time to preparation. The statistics of 1916–1918 were broad in their scope and excellent in the manner of treatment, but that breadth and that excellence could scarcely justify such delay in publication.

It was determined to expedite the work thereafter in every possible way, and the hope was entertained that all the chapters might be published within a year and a half at most from the end of the period covered. The computations and analyses made upon the statistics were to be materially reduced, and each chapter was to be printed as early as it was possible to tabulate and summarize the figures.

Determinations, hopes, and plans are often vain; and though the bulk of the statistical reports for 1920 and for 1922 were reduced to 597 and 753 pages in the aggregate, respectively, no important reduction in time was accomplished. The first chapter of the 1922 series was issued on August 9, 1924; the State school statistics on March 10, 1925; and the final chapter, city school statistics, on April 23, 1925, nearly three years from the date of the statistics.

Chagrined by this showing, the Commissioner of Education issued stringent instructions for expediting the work. At his request four field agents to aid in the collection of statistics had been authorized by Congress and their work began in 1923. These men not only procure data early by personal effort but they frequently aid local officers in compiling items desired by the bureau. It is probable that some at least of the State offices will be moved to employ field agents for similar work within their respective States.

The extraordinary efforts in the office, the effective work of the field men in procuring information promptly, and simplification of methods whenever simplification was possible, led to marked improvement in the time required for the statistics of 1924. One year and five months after the end of that school year the first chapter of statistics was published. The State statistics came out April 13, 1926, and the final chapter appeared August 25, 1926—two years and nearly two months after the end of the period covered. The statistics for 1924 embraced 545 printed pages.

The statistics for the year ending June 30, 1926, as a whole will show the gain of still more time, although it will be more bulky than its immediate predecessor. The first chapter to be printed was issued a year and a half from the close of the period and the State statistics appeared only a few days later. This gain of a year and three months over the time required for the corresponding chapter of 1922 is the most gratifying outcome of the efforts of the past few years. City school statistics also show a satisfactory gain; the chapter for 1926 appeared in

February, 1928—about a year and seven months, instead of nearly three years, from the end of the period covered.

The fact must be emphasized that the statistics of the several classes of institutions are printed separately and as early as practicable. The principal distribution of its statistical matter by the Bureau of Education is in the pamphlet form. After the chapters have been issued all are brought together in a bound volume which is published in a small edition and distributed to libraries only. The binding is merely for convenience in preservation. The material has previously been placed in the hands of those who wish to use it. The bound volume has been printed, therefore, when money was available for it, and no special concern has been felt if its publication was delayed. It is hoped, however, that the bound volume, too, will be published more promptly hereafter.

One who is inclined to become impatient at the time required to issue national statistics of education should know that 48,543 persons were called upon to supply the facts essential to a single year, 1926. The whole number of school systems and institutions represented in the statistics of that year was 28,385. Some of the questionnaires which correspondents are asked to fill have assumed formidable proportions—not because anyone in the Bureau of Education desired it so but at the specific request of organizations representing those who actually supply the information and make the most use of the statistics. This is especially true of the questionnaires for city school systems and secondary schools.

A large proportion of those who furnish data to us must first have reports from others, and they in turn must have reports from still others. The individuals who are directly concerned in the compilation of the statistics published by the Bureau of Education must be numbered in the hundred thousands. The final compilation which this army of workers must make can not begin until the scholastic year is past. Only 33 of the States were reported to the bureau within a year after June 30, 1926; four returns were received in September, 1927. Yet the tabulation was completed in the Bureau of Education in November, and the printed pamphlet of Statistics of State School Systems was delivered by the Government Printing Office on January 12, 1928. This may be fairly rated a distinct achievement.

Seventy-one per cent of the pupils in the New Haven public schools are children of foreign-born parents who are natives of 48 different countries. Of the whole number of pupils 52.8 per cent are Italians, 18.4 per cent Russian, and 5.3 per cent Polish.

International School Journeys Made By English Children

Great Development of School Journeys to Historic Areas in France. Not in any Sense Holidays, but They Are a Delightful Change of Work. Usually the Goal of a Year's Study. An Excellent Way to Prepare for Better Understanding Between Nations

THE MEETING of the school Journey Association at the conference last week in Gower Street had a special significance, since the French Ambassador presided, and blessed the idea of international school journeys, and especially of school journeys undertaken by English children in France.

In the present year there is to be a great development of the school journey in the way of visits to historic areas in France, and the interest that the French Ambassador and the French Government take in this movement will give a new sanction to the idea of school journeys oversea.

The basic idea of the school journey is not, in any sense, a holiday trip, though in fact it does provide delightful change of work. The idea is to give a sense of realism to acquired knowledge, and this is largely achieved by the visiting of places closely associated with the making of national and international history. To see in detail the battlefield of Senlac and to be made to understand the phases of the battle on the spot give a new reality to early English history. But the true school journey does not deal with isolated incidents, however important.

The journey, if it is to be a somewhat prolonged trip, is the goal of the year's work. The area visited can be made to reveal realities in geography as well as in history, in physical geography and nature study as well as the geography of the map, in science, art, literature. The year's work may be crowned by a journey that reveals all the various aspects of that work, and so make it a lifelong possession. No doubt shorter school journeys are undertaken for the purpose of showing the children some specific place, a cathedral or a fortress, a museum or a picture gallery, a Parliament house or a guildhall. These urban visits are of great value, since they may be made the medium of a new approach to history, literature, and art, and they may be undertaken as part of the preparation for the longer journey.

For the most part the school journey is chiefly associated with national or even local history. This new development of foreign travel has an even larger educational purpose. The French Ambassador said that he quite believed that the meeting of children of different countries was the best way of preparing for a better understanding of the nations in the future.

That is doubtless true. But the school journey goes further than that. The headmaster of Dulwich School, in his thoughtful address to the association, dwelt on the significance of nationalism, and declared that each nation had its own peculiar gifts, and by contact we could realize the existence of these gifts in other nations without any danger of losing our own. By some knowledge of a foreign language and some knowledge of its literature such appreciation could be approached, but he declared that personal contact was the most direct way of promoting international understanding.

Professor De Montmorency likened the humanism of all the nations combined to one jewel of which each nation forms one facet with its special beam of light. In whatever way the underlying unity of nations is looked at, the method of the school journey is the one that seems best able to make it capable of appreciation. The children will still prefer their own and set new values on their own, but they will realize permanently that there are other children who cling as ardently as they cling to their own home-born ideals in the way of national life.

That is the first stage of the true internationalism which is a direct product of the sternest nationalism. If the English school journey movement can secure something of this it deserves more support from local authorities than it now receives.—*London Times Educational Supplement.*

School Supplies Straws; Pupils Drink Milk

Provision of a half-pint bottle for each pupil, with a fresh cap and a straw daily has promoted milk drinking among rural pupils in Savona Union School, New York. About 95 per cent of the pupils, from the grades through high school, regularly bring milk to school from their homes. Consumption of milk out-of-school hours by underweight pupils has been doubled by giving them straws for use at home. The cost to the school for the service is about two-thirds of a cent per week for each pupil.

Interschool Correspondence Promotes International Understanding

School Children of 51 Countries Engaged in Interchange of Descriptive Portfolios. American Children Maintain Relations with Children of 36 Other Countries. Communications Pass Through Established Clearing Houses in Which Translations are Made if Necessary. Teaching of Geography, History, Composition, and Art Effectively Motivated, and Friendly International Feelings are Cultivated

By ELLEN MCBRYDE BROWN

American Junior Red Cross News

I thought that foreign children
Lived far across the sea,
Until I got a letter
From a boy in Italy.
"Dear little foreign friend," it said
As plainly as could be.
Now I wonder which is "foreign,"
That other boy or me?
—*Ethel Blair Jordan.*

EVERY ONE of the eight pupils in the school beside Clover Creek in the Idaho mountains was in a state of breathless excitement. The work of weeks was finished and ready to start on its long trip overseas. Two weeks or so from now the boys in a school in France would be examining the fruit of their labors. What would they think of it all?

Idaho Pupils Select French Correspondents

When the pupils had voted on this undertaking, they had decided on France, because more than a hundred years ago French fur traders had followed Lewis and Clark into this part of Idaho and had left their traces in place names surviving to-day—Payette, Coeur d'Alene, Lake Pend Oreille and the River Malade, so named because long ago Indians in winter encampment there grew sick from an exclusive diet of beaver meat. The town in France to which the carefully made portfolio was going was St. Jean d'Angély. The pupils had read about that, too, and knew that it was an old, old town, fortified and fought over during the Hundred Years' War between France and England, and later a stronghold of the Huguenots. Their investigations had led them pleasantly along new paths of history and geography. The school they were addressing at St. Jean d'Angély, was a boys' school and they had incidentally learned a little about schools in France and how these differed from schools in the United States. One of the things that had impressed them was the fact that French school children were very, very careful in their hand-writing and would probably be critical of American children's penmanship, which they had been told was vastly inferior to that of the children of most European countries. French boys and girls, they had been told, too, were really gifted in composition. This was a serious undertaking, but their pretty young teacher had encouraged them at every step to do their very best, and here it was.

The whole school had taken part. After more than one trial George Watson had given that neatly written description of the place where they lived and a brief sketch of its history, bringing out the thread connecting it with France. Andrew Page had described the methods used in fur trapping, the principal business of the community. Infinite pains had gone into those water color sketches

An Idaho sheet shows a lynx with its fur and footprints

Pupils of Clover Creek School, Bliss, Idaho, correspond with French children

of the fur-bearing animals of the region which had taken hours of Tom Johnson's time. Furthermore, around each sketch were reproduetions of the footprints of the animal pictured. That was Billy Simmons's bright idea, and he had been most critical until he was satisfied that the prints were accurate. Bert Myers had suggested that a bit of the animal's fur be attached to each of the pictures and had brought in the samples. Johnny Barton and Lucy Smith had written the descriptions of the animals and told about their habits. Betty Martin, the littlest one of all, had thought of the eover dcsign and had been commissioned to assemble the material, paste things in and write the titles under the pictures. There had been amazing improvement in her penmanship since this honor had fallen to her and the matter of clean hands had gained a new importanee.

Now that, with certain changes of names, is just about the story of any one of the portfolios recently sent out in the course of the international school correspondence now passing back and forth through the channels of the Junior Red Cross between the schools of 51 countries. As a social movement of the world's youth the Junior Red Cross is less than 10 years old. During the war, spontaneously and almost simultaneously, children in Canada and in New South Wales banded together and asked to be admitted to junior membership in their national Red Cross organizations and to share in the work done for the soldiers in camps and trenches. The same thing happened with the children of the United States, and they were at length advised in a presidential proclamation of September 15, 1917, of the creation of the American Junior Red Cross, "in which every pupil in the United States can find a chanee to serve our country." Fourteen million boys and girls were enlisted and contributions poured in. Mountains of articles and supplies made in sehoolrooms of the United States went to our men abroad.

After the armistice, the problem of the refugee and orphaned children in the war-devastated countries clamored for attention. It was money from the American

Portfolios from Hawaii are brilliant with colored pictures and weaving

children which financed work among such children in France, Italy, the Near East, Belgium, Albania, Rumania, Montenegro, Serbia, Poland, and Greece. The relief work, which was started in the spring of 1919, took the form of serving hot school lunches, operating summer and winter camps and colonies for war orphans, establishing scholarships and apprenticeships, providing health camps and playground activities, furnishing tools and seeds and launching school gardens, providing subventions to farm centers and air cures for tubercular children, and operating welfare clinics. In Albania a vocational school for boys was founded which is now one of the most important forces in that little country and is still partly financed by the American Junior Red Cross. Thousands of benches, chairs, and tables made in American schools found their way into little homes in Austria, Poland, and France, reconstructed after the war's tornado had passed.

These boys in Prague discuss the portfolio they will send to California

International Correspondence Began in Russia

Out of such service sprang the international school correspondence which has covered the world with its network of exchanges. It started away up in Archangel. While distributing cocoa and biscuits to the underfed children there, the officers of the American Red Cross commission mentioned the active Junior membership of the Red Cross in America. A stream of toys, accompanied by letters, soon began to flow in from school children in the United States to these small charges of the American Red Cross in Russia. At a Christmas celebration at one of the orphanages of Archangel the American guests were given 50 beautifully worked handkerchiefs to be given to American children. These handkerchiefs were forwarded through the Junior Red Cross to 50 schools widely scattered throughout the United States. Letters of appreciation went back to Russia, and Russian answers came so fast that the translators at American Red Cross headquarters and at Archangel were quite overwhelmed. Several shipments of typical Russian toys followed the handkerchiefs, and in the spring there came a bundle of greeting cards with pictures drawn by the Archangel children.

Children in other countries aided by the American Juniors began sending spontaneous messages of appreciation and friendship. Often these messages were accompanied by photographs and articles descriptive of conditions, and sometimes by simple gifts made with painstaking care by the foreign children. Educators soon realized the potential values of such interchanges and, with the assistance of Dr. James F. Hosic, now of Teachers College, New York, and Miss Laura Frazee, now assistant superintendent of schools in Baltimore, a system of international school correspondence was organized in 1921. It has grown with the growth of the Junior Red Cross, which now has memberships in 40 countries, and proceeds through Red Cross channels. For example, the portfolio from the Idaho school, with which this article begins, was sent to the Pacific branch office of the American Red Cross at San Francisco. Thence it was forwarded promptly to Washington. The national office sent it on at once to the League of Red Cross Societies at Paris, which is a clearing ground for portfolios to and from many of the 51 countries whose schools are engaged in this interchange. The league routed it to the French Junior Red Cross, where translations were made from English into French, and in a much shorter time than you might believe possible with all these necessary steps, it was in the hands of the boys of the St. Jean d'Angély school, whose reply is doubtless now under way. In some instances portfolios go direct from the office of the American Junior Red Cross at Washington to the national office of the Junior Red Cross of the country of destination, and vice versa. The correspondence between Japanese and American schools is, for example, very active, and goes back and forth direct between Washington and Tokyo. At Washington two young Japanese men are employed making translations, but Tokyo has ad-

This view of Prague is the frontispiece of their portfolio

vised the American Junior Red Cross that translations from English into Japanese are not necessary in Japan, for English is a compulsory study in the schools there.

Japan is one of the most active of all the countries corresponding. Its schools are exchanging letters and other materials with schools of 29 other countries. Austria has 33 countries on her list, the United States, including Alaska and the island possessions, has 36. Some of the town and city schools of the United States, which have been carrying on this correspondence for years and send out and receive several portfolios annually, have now most interesting exhibits.

Portfolios Convey Materials of Amazing Variety

The portfolio is the most popular form for this international school correspondence. It is the product of a group working together in school and consists of letters, photographs, descriptive articles written by the pupils, apropos clippings and illustrations from magazines, maps, samples of school work and of industrial products, specimens of native wild flowers, folklore, biographical and historical sketches, national songs, postage stamps, and many other things, neatly arranged and bound between covers of cardboard or cloth. The material is of amazing variety and interest. A small rural school in Australia sends its correspondent school in Lincoln, Nebr., seeds from the wattle tree in the school grounds, explaining that the wattle blossom is Australia's national flower, and so they hope these seeds will flourish on United States soil. The American school makes quite a ceremony of planting the seeds on Nebraska's Arbor Day and writes back to Australia to tell about the planting and about Arbor Day and other matters of interest that have developed between these two schools thousands of miles apart.

Estonian Letters Breathe Good Will

A home for orphaned children in Estonia writes an excellent historical sketch, giving facts hard to secure in any other way about little-known Estonia. This is followed by the story of Karlevipoeg, the legendary hero of the country, whose exploits make up one of the world's great epics. In the same portfolio there is an account of the pagan myths of the early Estonians. There are cleverly executed drawings of their dwelling, their utensils, and their weapons. The portfolio contains, too, samples of handwork done by the girls and snapshots of the children in the orphanage. The letter of greeting breathes the good will these children feel for their comrades in America.

From a girls' school on the Isle of Man comes a collection of breezy articles about the history of the island, about the unique ceremony of the Tynwald, about the delightful Man folklore, and about the life and sports of the school.

A school in Portland, Oreg., was interested in knowing something of the life of an African boy in his native country. Arrangements were made, and from a high school in Kenya Colony came a remarkable portfolio. The principal's letter explained that civilization reached the colony only some 25 years ago, and that you would find there "high-school students whose fathers go about in skins and carry spears; and engine and automobile drivers whose fathers are savages." He said, too, that his pupils were anxious to learn about America, "especially as one of them went to Hampton Institute in Virginia this year to finish his education." There were more than a score of letters in the portfolio, each giving an account of some tribal custom or some phase of life among the members of the Kikuyu tribe, East Africa—on cultivating a garden, on building a hut, on making beer of sugar cane, which is drunk by "male and female adults," but forbidden to the young men and women, on how the young men get their wives, how a herd-boy lives, what the Kikuyu eat, and how they make their quivers, bows, and arrows.

African Children Write Excellent English

The letters were in excellent English, not one word of which any of the writers knew six years ago. Moreover, there were fascinating sketches of Kikuyu weapons and ornaments. It seems safe to say that a whole stack of books about the Kikuyu could not begin to give the Oregon children such a vivid impression of them as these letters and sketches coming from right under the Equator and from the pens of Joseph Mwangi Simeon, Hosea Wauiaina, Hagal Duolo, Elind Wambu, and the rest.

As an American high-school girl put it in a letter to a school in France:

> We were especially interested in the letter about the government of your country. Of course, we have studied about it in the history books, but it is so much more interesting to read about it from a real live letter. Somehow we gain a new perspective of it that could never be found in a book written several years ago.

The correspondence often provokes lively questions. The following letter, with the 15 appended questions, was sent in a portfolio from Paris in exchange for one received from Hawaii:

> Your letters, maps, and samples were given to us and we were very interested in them. Your country is not like ours. Your crops and certain plants of yours are unknown to us. In France we have no active volcanoes. We should be very glad to continue exchanging letters, pictures, and samples with you.
>
> We shall describe our large city and you can admire some of its monuments on the pictures we inclose in this portfolio. We shall not tell you about the history of our country, because it is very complicated and takes several big books to tell it. We shall tell you about our school life teacher, grade, school, program of lessons, games, etc. We send you, with this first letter, samples of drawing and manual training. Ask us questions on the things you are interested in and we shall answer you with pleasure. We hope you will answer the questions we have written on the inclosed sheet.
>
> Your country is not unknown to us. In our school we have seen beautiful views of it on stereopticon slides. Your quiet and shaded streets in your capital seem to us very agreeable, and certainly it is delightful to live there, but we think your volcanoes are frightful, and we wonder what becomes of the poor people who fall down into the Kilauea crater. In France there are many ancient volcanoes, but they have been extinct for a long time and they are far from Paris.

Volcanoes Interest French Children

> Dear little comrades across the ocean, we send you our brotherly greetings.
>
> 1. What is the temperature of the melted lava of Kilauea?
> 2. Do you have pictures showing the curious fishes in your country?
> 3. Why was Cook killed?
> 4. Do you have the French metric system, in which all measures go from 10 to 10?
> 5. How many school hours do you have each day? At what hours do you arrive and leave?
> 6. What are your holidays in the week?
> 7. Do you have summer holidays?
> 8. What are the principal wild and domestic animals in your country?
> 9. What is the principal food of the natives? Give the menu of a meal.
> 10. Principal facts of your history.
> 11. Description of a native home, outside and inside.
> 12. Special customs and habits and feasts of the natives.
> 13. How many steamers touch at Honolulu a month? Do you see there French vessels?
> 14. Do you have French people in your city?
> 15. How is your costume and your native costumes?

Surely, here is developing an instrument for widening horizons, for making the life and the youth of other lands more real and interesting, even, one dares to hope, for building a better international understanding, a more friendly international feeling. The spirit of good will which inspires the correspondence is frequently expressed in such letters as the following from Italy:

> If with our correspondence we learn to appreciate reciprocally our beautiful languages, we will strengthen still more the bond of affection and collaboration that unites the land of Dante with that of Washington. My far-away and unknown friend, I shake your hand.

Austrians Seek Brotherly Love

The same thought is voiced in this letter from Austria:

> It is proven that youth is meant to reconcile the different nations. For that purpose a Junior Red Cross was organized. We heard that for the same reason a Junior Red Cross was organized in other countries, to create friends all over the world. No conference will be able to bring about international reconciliation as long as national hatred lives in the hearts of the people. Therefore, let's be brothers; away with the barriers, and give us your hand through the Junior Red Cross! How glad we shall be to have the same songs, though they be sung in a different tongue, and to enjoy the same games.

When we read such things as these it does not seem too visionary, too "foolfanciful," to dream of a day when we shall have "a generation the world over, grown to maturity in intelligent friendliness."

Progress of the Parent-Teacher Movement in Illinois

By MRS. WALTER H. BUHLIG

President Illinois Council of Parent-Teacher Associations

THE Illinois Council of Parent-Teacher Associations closes its twenty-ninth year in April with 1,089 associations and 96,592 members. These associations are connected with public rural, grade, junior high, and senior high schools, with parochial schools, and with church Sunday schools. The largest membership in an association of parents from one grade school is the Bryn Mawr, of Chicago, with 1,185 members, and the Myra Bradwell, of Chicago, with 1,184 members. The largest junior high school assoeiation is the Roger Sullivan, of Chicago, with 1,574, and the largest senior high school association membership is 500, the Springfield High, Springfield, Ill.

Associations Meet Many Specific Needs

Throughout the State, parent-teacher associations engage in many activities to provide those conditions that will enable children to acquire the best possible development. Associations meet many specific needs arising within and without the school buildings by purchasing various types of equipment, playground apparatus, musical instruments for classroom work and for orchestras and bands, moving-picture machines; stage equipment, books, and magazines.

One state-wide activity which provides for the improvement of the school and grounds and which contributes to the character development of the pupils is known as the "School Beautiful Committee." Pictures and other art objects are given to the school, loan collections are obtained to hang in the school, and artists frequently take pupils or parents about for a tour of these collections. Communities are urged to plant their school grounds with native trees, shrubs, and plants, thereby preserving the flora peculiar to Illinois, bringing to the children an appreciation of beauty to be found all about them, and developing the desirable attributes which result when children acquire the sense of responsibility as a result of ownership and participation in the development of their surroundings.

Adequate Recreational Opportunities Provided

Much has been donc in Illinois to provide adequate recreational opportunities to safeguard the youth against vieious commercial recreation. The State organization has active committees on juvenile protection, better films, and recreation. Speeial attention has been paid to the pernicious practice of presenting amateurs—sometimes tiny tots of 3—upon stages of neighborhood motion-picture and vaudeville houses. Much good has been done in this particular activity.

An espeeially unique effort to meet the recreational problems of a eommunity where play space for children is almost nil was undertaken and successfully carried through during the summer of 1927. This is referred to in Illinois as "the wandering play leaders" and took on a few of the aspects of the old-time wandering minstrels. Parent-teacher associations, churches, and a business men's assoeiation gathered together about $1,000 to employ two experieneed play leaders for the summer. A man was obtained to lead the boys' play, and a young woman led the girls' play.

Work of "Wandering Play Leaders"

The November (1927) Bulletin of the Illinois Council of Parent-Teacher Associations states: "Seven play spots were selected, the idea being to take the playgrounds to the children rather than the children to the playgrounds. These places included two roped-off streets, three vacant lots, and two inclosed athletie fields. In the beginning the two supervisors went from place to place on schedule, spending an hour and a half in each place, each supervisor visiting each plaee on alternate days. The blocked-off streets and one of the athletic fields were abandoned after 10-days trial because of laek of attendance, and one of the fields was opened full time, bccause the demand there was greatest. These playgrounds were unequipped as playgrounds go. The leaders carried around in their cars bats and baseballs, volley balls, indoor balls and soccer balls, horseshoes, bean bags, and box games.

A few of the bats and balls were left with responsible boys. The girls brought their own 'jacks' for their tournaments. When they did not have jacks they used pebbles. There were tournaments of various sorts on the different fields, volley ball, horseshoes, individual baseball, O'Leary, jacks, and baseball games between teams from the different fields and with other teams. Four junior teams for boys under 15 were formed and two midget teams for boys under 12. Mr. English was sponsor for a 'Knothole Club,' which attended major league ball games from time to time, the number sometimes reaching 60. Chaperoning these boys to the games furnished a thrilling experience to some of the business men and mothers of the neighborhood. While the girls did not come out in as large numbers as the boys, one or two ball teams were organized, and jack and O'Leary contests were held. Leadership was developed among the children. At least a dozen of them learned to take responsibility, to arbitrate disputes, to take care of equipment. They learned sportsmanship. They learned to abide by the rules of the game.

Boys' Club Punishes Profanity by Pinching

"The total registration for all the fields was 6,113, of which 4,701 was at one of the inclosed athletic fields. Differing problems presented themselves for solution at the different fields. At one, children from four schools with differing religions and races met. Both fighting and profanity were discouraged. At one field the boys of their own initiative formed a 'Pinch Club.' Any boy indulging in profanity had to submit to being pinehed once for every offense by everyone on the ground."

High-school associations serve in a dual capacity. They extend definite aid to pupils and to the sehool; they also afford a medium by which parents may better understand the diffieulties of the 'teen age and the opportunities offered to the pupils by the high-school eurrieulum and extra-curricular activities. Many grade and high school associations in Illinois provide so-called scholarships to enable high-school pupils of ability and serious purpose to remain in school. The sum needed varies from small monthly amounts for carfare to an occasional $25 a month. Assoeiations aid pupils in getting employment out of school time; they chaperon parties and encourage scholarship by presenting club pins to pupils attaining certain scholarship standards. High-school associations have seen the need for boys' and girls' deans and have helped to secure them.

Health Conditions Improved in Many Ways

Mueh has been done to promote better health conditions. Associations, rural and urban, have nutrition classes for mothers; weighing and measuring and nutrition instruetion for pupils; diphtheria eradication campaigns have been aided; the National Summer Round-Up Campaign has been promoted.

In addition to many activities to provide school and community eonditions which will aid in the best possible development of the children the need of adult education and parential education has not been forgotten.

In Moline the American citizenship committee of the parent-teaeher council

has been sponsoring an experiment in a sewing class among the Mexican women. Two women instructors help the members of the class cut from patterns dresses for themselves or their children. As they work the English words for materials, processes, etc., are taught to the Mexicans. The committee members furnish coffee, sandwiches, and cake each afternoon and have cared for the babies while the Mexican mothers sewed. The Moline council members feel that much has been gained by this effort. A point of contact was gained, and it is hoped that shyness will be overcome and that these mothers may attend the regular winter night schools and eventually become American citizens.

Weekly Radio Program Promotes Understanding

Throughout the winter a better understanding of the parent-teacher movement was made possible by means of a weekly radio program. Parent-teacher activities were explained; instruction was given in parliamentary procedure; and a course in child study was broadcast.

Another interesting effort to promote parental education was an institute for child study class leaders, which was held under the direction of Dr. Jessie A. Charters, of the University of Chicago, a State board member. A "difficulty analysis" was an illuminating part of this institute and laid the foundation at least of better child study class work by ascertaining some of the hindering and discouraging features of the work.

A few of the obstacles are—

1. Necessary frequent care of young children.
2. Lack of system in day's care of household and children.
3. Lack of realization that character development is coincident with physical development and should be understood while children are very young.
4. Provision for toddlers who must accompany mothers.
5. Reluctance of people to study, due to limited education, to self-consciousness, etc.
6. Self-consciousness which prevents participation in discussion; sometimes it may be overcome by mothers darning, mending, or sewing during the class period.
7. A lack of understanding that small study groups are valuable, even though so few as three or four members constitute the group.

"Legislative Forums" Throughout the State

Distinct efforts are made, in cooperation with other groups, to promote educational advancement by means of State legislation. The Illinois Council of Parent-Teacher Associations is a member of a State-wide joint legislative council which holds legislative forums in various parts of the State. At these forums are discussed proposed measures approved by at least five organizations which are members of the state-wide council. When five organizations approve any particular piece of legislation a subcommittee is formed to promote that particular measure. The Illinois Council of Parent-Teacher Associations works in close cooperation with the Illinois State Teachers Association on many of these subcommittees. Information concerning the measures and the need for them is given parent-teacher members through the State Bulletin, at district conferences and at the legislative forums. Members are urged to discuss these measures with their representatives at home and the method seems more effective than any number of letters and telegrams sent to the representatives in session.

Clubhouse for Foreign-born Mothers

A cottage furnished in an attractive and homelike way serves as a school and social center for foreign-born mothers of school children in Denver, Colo., particularly of those attending Bryant School. The cottage adjoins the school grounds and belongs to the school district. It was fitted for the purpose through the cooperation of Colorado Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution, and others interested in the work. An experienced teacher is in charge, and a portion of her salary is paid by the chapter. Regular classes in English and citizenship are held daily for the mothers. The project has the approval of the parent-teacher association of the school, and by special invitation 150 mothers recently visited the cottage on one afternoon. During the reading and social period on Sunday afternoons entire families are welcome.

Physical Specialists Must Teach Academic Subjects

That approximately 33 per cent of the specialists in physical education employed in schools and colleges of the United States are teaching some academic courses in addition to their own special work was brought out at a conference on professional training in physical education arranged by the United States Bureau of Education, and recently held in Washington, D. C. Of all the applications received at the University of Illinois for specialists in physical education, more than half called for men able to teach some academic subject in addition to physical education.

Recent Publications of the Bureau of Education

The following publications have been issued recently by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior. Orders for them should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., accompanied by the price indicated.

ACHIEVEMENTS IN HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION. Emeline S. Whitcomb. (Bulletin, 1927, no. 35.) 5 cents.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS. William McKinley Robinson. (Bulletin, 1927, no. 36.) 10 cents.

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTORY, 1928. (Bulletin, 1928, no. 1.) 20 cents.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION. Report of a conference held in Washington, D. C., March 30, 1927. (Physical education series, no. 9.) 5 cents.

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS, 1928. (Higher education circular, no. 34.) 5 cents.

STATISTICS OF UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS, 1925–26. (Bulletin, 1927, no. 40.) 25 cents.—*Mary S. Phillips.*

Saturday Classes for Country Boys

A folk school for farm boys over 14 years of age who are not in attendance upon any other school is held every Saturday in Barron, Wis., located in the midst of a farming and dairy section. Sessions are held in the high-school building from 10 a. m. to 3.30 p. m., and all instructors are members of the high-school faculty. Class periods are of one hour each. The course in soils is required but students are allowed to elect other courses. As a matter of fact, most of the boys are taking all the courses offered. Present enrollment is 26 students, some of whom come regularly from a distance of 13 miles. During the noon intermission games are played in the school gymnasium. The boys are eager to take advantage of all opportunities offered them; they are doing good work, and there is not a dull moment during the day. Expense of the school is met by the board of education of Barron, with some assistance from the State. Courses will be offered country girls in domestic science and other subjects.

Needed medical attention was given 95 children in Racine, Wis., last year from a fund of $700 contributed for such work by children in public schools of the city at Thanksgiving.

An Experiment in Piano Instruction in a Rural School

People of Community Had Employed Private Teachers in Summer Months, but Results Were Not Satisfactory. Public-School Officers Purchased Pianos and Engaged Teacher, Charging $25 a Year for Daily Lessons

By C. A. SMITH
Superintendent of Schools, Afton, Wyo.

FOR the purpose of this study it was assumed that piano music is as universally desirable, practical, and usable as any of the subjects usually required and that it, therefore, deserves a similar place in the curriculum. Whether piano music is of more value to the individual or society than any other one subject of the curriculum is largely a matter of opinion. Able defenders might be found for either side of this argument. It was decided that in this instance, however, an experiment was worth while.

That it is possible to place piano instruction on the same basis as any other laboratory subject will be shown in this article. But it is one thing to assume that the public is willing to change from private piano education to public responsibility for these services and quite another thing to make the change.

Pioneer Living Conditions Prevail

The nearest railroad point to which Star Valley has access is 50 miles distant. The valley is the home of 4,500 people. Living conditions are decidedly pioneer. Social contact comes chiefly through the leading church and the school, both of which are characteristically rural.

Under these conditions an emotional desire for music was manifested in the community. It was shown by the constant demand for public-school music and by the annual summer efforts to obtain from the outside a capable piano teacher who would stay for the whole summer and work with those few students who remained constant.

Elementary teachers in the schools were graduates from the high school, in which no music was taught. Hence, elementary school music consisted of singing patriotic songs. This and periodic and feeble attempts at a high-school opera was the extent of the public-school instruction in music. It seemed that piano instruction was the most available form of music teaching. Accordingly, a survey was made of the status of piano instruction as it had been carried on in the preceding three years.

Private piano instruction in 1919–1921

Total number of students who took lessons	76
Average number taking lessons for a given summer	25.3
Average number of lessons taken by a student in a summer	9
Number of students continuing two summers	27
Number of students continuing three summers	14
Average cost per pupil per summer	$9.00
Percentage of students who appeared publicly	14.4

Since no piano teacher wanted to teach more than one summer in Star Valley, the students had to meet a new teacher each summer. In this way much of the energy expended was wasted.

To make the teaching of piano music at public expense practicable, class teaching was necessary. Conditions which seemed peculiar to Star Valley made group instruction of the table-keyboard type seem unsuitable. Home piano ownership is necessary for this type. Since there were so few pianos in Star Valley it seemed best to teach with the use of the piano.

Upon investigation it was found that suitable pianos could be obtained at $325 each. For practical reasons it was decided to propose the purchase of eight pianos to be used for class-ensemble piano instruction.

Private Contributions for Part of Cost

It was assumed that each of the students who took private lessons throughout the three summers had studied long enough to acquire elemental skill. This warranted the assumption that money expended was well spent. On the basis of three summers, it appeared that the total average cost for piano instruction for each of three summers of one lesson per week was $900. The total cost of piano instruction for one semester of daily lessons would be $800. The cost of pianos is not included in this cost, neither is the cost of the room. It was thought that these might be furnished privately in the one case and publicly in the other and that the cost would be met by private contribution.

Convincing the board of trustees was not difficult. They admitted the need and were willing to trust the school administration in the experiment, provided the school budget was not made to suffer greatly. This objection was met by changing the original plan and charging a fee of $25 per year for each student. This fee was based upon established precedent, for in certain laboratory subjects a small fee was charged to cover breakage. Incidentally it saved the project by eliminating many students who would have been difficult to handle at the outset.

Twenty-seven Parents Pay $25 Each

A canvass was then made and the proposition was described to those interested; 27 parents were found who were willing to pay the fee and to leave the administration to the school officials. Accordingly, the pianos were purchased and the teacher employed.

We were very much aware of the fact that the success of the experiment depended almost entirely upon the selection of the proper teacher. Our choice proved to be most fortunate. The teacher of the previous summer had given good service and was trained in the table keyboard method. She was quite willing to cooperate in the whole scheme.

Regular classes were scheduled for 50 minutes. The period was divided, and two classes received piano instruction during one 50-minute period. In our opinion, the short period was compensated for in regular daily class work. Pianos were

Eight pianos are arranged for class instruction

available to any student outside of class periods for practice. The school building was open until 10 p. m. During this time rooms were always available. Pianos were moved into different rooms for the out-of-school practice work, but of necessity they were kept in the music room between periods.

The actual arrangement of the class is shown by the illustration. The following description of standard of work and its organization is by Mrs. C. L. Brown, the instructor.

Standards of music used

First grade (in music): Standard Graded Pieces, Vol. I, by Mathews.
Second grade: Fountain, by Bohm; Edelweiss Glide, by Vanderbeck.
Third grade: Gabaletta, by Lack; Kuhlau Sonatinas, Vol. II, complete.
Fourth grade: No. 2, Whole World Series: Kuhlau Sonatinas, Vol. II, complete.
Fifth grade: Heller. Thirty Progressive Studies; Papillons, by Schumann.
Sixth grade: Hanan; Czerny; Haydn Symphonies for piano quartette; Rondo Capriccioso.

Beginners Are Taught in Groups

The work is organized by semesters. It is comparatively easy to take care of beginners because they form the majority of the enrollment and soon can be given more leeway on account of the larger number of beginning sections. As the work becomes more advanced year by year registration is becoming increasingly difficult for class work. But group work is supplemented by individual instruction for the few advanced students.

The more advanced classes are given studies on Tuesdays and Thursdays, pieces on Mondays and Wednesdays, and sight-reading practice on duets (for full class) on Fridays. The most advanced class of eight students works once a week on six Haydn symphonies as a double quartette. This music is kept in the school all the time so that it is virtually sight reading without individual practice. They are given C. L. Hanon and Czerny three times a week. In 1925 the advanced class of eight students memorized and played ensemble in public complete Papillons by Schumann.

The C. W. Reid Piano Method for Beginners is used. It has been found necessary to evolve a very detailed counting system. The theory part of music is especially adapted to the needs of beginners and is in the nature of a short cut that carries the beginner over the first periods of discouragement into the first stages of achievement. When achievement is apparent enough to protect him from the danger of quitting in the middle of a plateau he goes back and makes up what has been skipped. For example, the beginner learns the notes entirely in terms of the keyboard. Syllable and letter names do not delay him during his first days on the instrument. The whole aim is to cut the early stages to the bare essentials. He is kept in the work after this by the frequent contact with the teacher and the competition with his classmates, made keen by the daily comparison in class.

Evidence of the success of the project is plain. The class has grown steadily from the beginning. During the first year 12.5 per cent of the pupils discontinued; the average of students discontinuing in the last three years has been only 1.33 per cent.

Enrollment and size of classes

	1922–23	1924–25	1925–26	1926–27
Students	40	63	78	86
Largest class	8	8	8	8
Smallest class	4	4	4	6
Median class	6	6	6	7

Piano recitals to which the public is invited are given Tuesday night of each week during the school year. Every student appears publicly several times during the year. The type of program depends upon the students participating. In the recitals at which advanced students are presented the ensemble work constitutes a major part of the program. At a recent recital one of the students, Miss Clara Bennion, played from memory Variations in F Minor, Haydn; Country Dance, MacFadden; Florence Waltzes, Liebling; In My Neighbor's Garden, Nevin; Ecossaisen, Beethoven; Sonate Pathetique (first movement), Beethoven. She also played first piano in a duet, La Baladine.

Individuals Shifted from Group to Group

Objections to the system are very similar to those advanced against class instruction in any subject. As I have indicated, the individual needs are met by shifting individuals from group to group. Since the objection is the same as for regular school subjects, the idea can not be condemned on those grounds without also condemning other school subjects.

Conclusions must necessarily be tentative because they are based upon such a small experiment. However, we are firmly convinced that piano instruction by class at public expense is practical. It is cheaper than the same instruction given at private expense. In so far as we may judge by results in our school, the results are far superior. The classes for beginning students may be larger. The work should be carried on well down in the grades—as low as the third grade. After some experiment in finding students of musical ability and eliminating others there is no reason why those students should not have the same opportunity in piano instruction as other students receive in other laboratory subjects.

Many Boston Students are Self-Supporting

Of day students attending Boston University during the school year 1926-27, as many as 25 per cent were under the financial necessity of supporting themselves entirely by their own work, 10 per cent earned three-fourths of their expenses, 12 per cent earned one-half, and 14 per cent earned one-quarter of their expenses. Only 39 per cent earned nothing. Practically all students taking evening courses are at work. The following figures refer only to the regular day divisions. Of students in the school of theology 66 per cent support themselves entirely; in the graduate school 50 per cent, and in the school of religious education and social service 27 per cent were self-supporting. The department having the smallest proportion of self-supporting students, 4 per cent, was the college of practical arts and letters; of total enrollments in day classes in this college 72 per cent earned nothing. In the school of religious education and social service 38 per cent, in the graduate school 33 per cent, and in the school of theology only 11 per cent of the students contributed nothing by labor to their own support.

Regular School Work for Tubercular Children

A school for tubercular children has been organized in the Tuberculosis Sanitarium in Oswego County, N. Y. The work had its inception in a class organized several years ago by a teacher, herself a patient in the institution, who devoted two hours a day to instruction of the children in the effort to hasten their recovery by keeping their minds active. The county has since built a children's pavilion, which includes a well-equipped schoolroom in charge of a licensed teacher who is also play director during recreation periods and vacations. Instruction given the children last year enabled most of them to pass the same grade and regents' preliminary examinations as those given other children in the supervisory district.

A "speech department" has been inaugurated in the Pontiac (Mich.) High School. It offers six courses, for which credit is allowed by the State colleges and universities. The department publishes a semiannual, maintains a little theater of its own, and has a costume library of more than 300 costumes. Funds for support of the department are obtained from the presentation of plays and receipts from the costume library.

Land-Grant Colleges Are Participating in Work of Survey

Cooperative Procedure Adopted for Collecting Information and for Preparing Final Report. Local Committee Will Supply Material Representing Each Institution. Experts in Special Fields Prepare or Review Questionnaires

By ARTHUR JAY KLEIN

Specialist in Higher Education, Bureau of Education, Director of the Survey

WITH approximately 500 officers, members of administrative staffs, and faculties of the 69 land-grant colleges of the United States actively participating, the survey of these institutions now being conducted by the United States Bureau of Education through its division of higher education is probably unique.

Unlike the ordinary survey, which is made by sending specialists to the institutions to examine their functions and activities, the land-grant college survey will be based upon facts secured through a complicated method of cooperative procedure. In general the plan is centered about a local committee in each of the institutions. Each of these committees is responsible for securing and recording the facts and opinions concerning the institution it represents which are desired by the survey staff of the Bureau of Education. The facts and opinions to be obtained in each field of study to be covered by the survey, such as extension, agriculture, home economics, finance, and other subjects, have been tentatively selected by specialists employed by the bureau, largely from the land-grant colleges themselves. The nature of the study to be made by the local land-grant survey committees in each phase of the survey is determined finally by submitting the proposals of the survey specialists to appropriate national committees of specialists. Constant contact between the technical specialists and the local survey committees is maintained by the director of the survey at every stage of the work.

Nation-Wide Organization Created

The organization which has been created for the conduct of the survey is nation-wide. Land-grant colleges in all of the States are represented in the organization. The office work of the survey, which comprises the preparation of schedules for collecting data on the different functions of the colleges, is being performed by members of the administrative and teaching staffs of the colleges, called to Washington for that purpose. Similarly field work is to be conducted from regional headquarters established at the several institutions under the charge of specialists.

Heading the organization is a group composed of the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture, leading educators and presidents of land-grant colleges representing the various types of education. This group has the responsibility of reviewing the general plans and policies of the survey, giving expert advice on procedure so as to facilitate the study, and reviewing the report when it is finally prepared. It includes 10 members, with representatives of the association of land-grant colleges and universities, of the combined State universities land-grant colleges, and of the negro land-grant college presidents, a State superintendent of public instruction, four presidents of land-grant colleges, and nationally recognized experts on home economics and agriculture from two of the land-grant colleges.

Five Hundred Persons Employed in Survey

In the actual conduct of the survey the work is being performed by more than 500 members of the faculties and administrative staffs of the land-grant colleges organized for the purpose of studying each of the functions and activities of the institutions. These include agencies of State and superior control, finance and business, home economics, engineering, arts and science, library facilities, agricultural research and experiment station work, agricultural extension, vocational education, commerce and business, veterinary medicine, general extension, professional education of teachers, and student relations and welfare. Schedules for the collection of information on these subjects have been prepared by 19 specialists from the land-grant colleges on duty in Washington for brief periods.

Another part of the organization includes groups of experts in special fields, who review the schedules and make suggestions as to their improvement. These are known as special advisory committees. They are composed in large part of members of the administrative and teaching staffs of the land-grant colleges and have been selected from widely-scattered institutions so as to avoid regional influence.

The special advisory committee on finance and business comprises business managers and comptrollers of land-grant institutions of California, Louisiana, Wyoming, Nevada, and North Carolina; and the committee on home economics includes experts on this subject in the land-grant colleges of Oregon, Kansas, Michigan, Illinois, Georgia, and Tennessee. Similarly, the remaining committees, ranging in size from 4 to 10 members, are made up of specialists in each of the subject-matter fields. Every land-grant college in the United States has at least one representative on these committees.

Information on the functions and activities of the institutions called for in the schedules will be supplied by a local committee of the faculty within each of the land-grant colleges. These committees were selected by the presidents of the institutions. In some instances the presidents of the colleges are serving as chairmen. In the collection of all data for the survey, these institutional committees are playing the most important rôle.

More than 30 Overlapping Districts

The field work of the survey is likewise to be conducted largely by members of the staffs of the colleges. To do this work, the country has been divided into districts for five of the major lines of interest and an expert in each of the subject-matter fields is made responsible for the collection of information in his specialty from the colleges in that district. Each subject-matter field has its own districting system. Thus there are in fact more than 30 overlapping districts. The headquarters of each supervising specialist will be at his own college. His duties will consist of traveling to the near-by colleges and of assisting the local committees in furnishing the required data.

With the completion of the collection of information on all the functions and activities of the 69 land-grant colleges of the United States, the final step in the survey will be the writing of the report. Each specific subject-matter field is to be treated separately in the report, and it is planned to call experts again to Washington from the land-grant colleges to write the different sections of the report based on the data gathered.

The land-grant college survey, therefore, practically from its beginning to its end, is a cooperative undertaking of the institutions themselves, planned and directed by the Bureau of Education.

A course in safety education is announced by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, for the summer session, 1928. It is designed for superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers, and will be given by the elementary supervisor in schools of Springfield, Mass., who is consultant for the education division of the National Safety Council.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1928

Meetings of Educational and Scientific Associations during the Spring and Summer of 1928

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE, 3622-3624 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pa.:
President, LEO S. ROWE, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.
Secretary, J. P. LICHTENBERGER, University of Pennsylvania, Phila., Pa.
Meeting, Philadelphia, Pa., May 11–12, 1928.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION, 41 East Forty-second Street, New York, N. Y.:
President, JAMES E. RUSSELL, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, MORSE A. CARTWRIGHT, 41 East Forty-second St., New York, N.Y.
Meeting, May 14–16, 1928.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED:
President, E. R. JOHNSTONE, Vineland, N. J.
Secretary, H. W. POTTER, Thiells, N. Y.
Meeting, Atlantic City, N. J., May 31–June 2, 1928.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE EDITORS:
President, J. B. HASSELMAN, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich.
Secretary, F. J. KERLHOLZ, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Meeting, Baton Rouge, La., August, 1928.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF, 1601 Thirty-fifth Street, Washingtou, D. C.:
President, HARRIS TAYLOR, 904 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, H. M. MCMANAWAY, Staunton, Va.
Meeting, Staunton, Va., June 25–30, 1928.

AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE:
President, R. V. D. MAGOFFIN, New York University, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, ROLLIN H. TANNER, New York University, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 1–7, 1928.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION:
President, KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich.
Secretary, NAT T. FRAME, 1849 Grand Central Terminal Building, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Urbana, Ill., June 18–21, 1928.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF ARTS:
President, ROBERT W. DE FOREST, 30 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, LEILA MECHLIN, Barr Building, Farragut Square, Washington, D. C.
Meeting, Washington, D. C., May 16–18, 1928.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE HARD OF HEARING:
President, HORACE NEWHART, 910 Donaldson Building, Minneapolis, Minn.
Secretary, BETTY C. WRIGHT, 1601 Thirty-fifth Street, Washington, D. C.
Meeting, St. Louis, Mo., June 18–22, 1928.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS:
President, MARY C. BARKER, 685 Myrtle Street NE., Atlanta, Ga.
Secretary, FLORENCE CURTIS HANSON, 327 South La Salle Street, Chicago, Ill.
Meeting, Chicago, Ill., June 25, 1928.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION, 617 Mills Building, Washington, D. C.:
President, LETA BANE, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Secretary, JEAN KRUEGER, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Mich.
Meeting, Des Moines, Iowa, June 25–29, 1928.

AMERICAN HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, 18 East Division Street, Chicago, Ill.:
President, JOSEPH C. DOANE, Philadelphia General Hospital, Phila., Pa.
Secretary, WILLIAM H. WALSH, 18 East Division Street, Chicago, Ill.
Meeting, San Francisco, Calif., August 6–10, 1928.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.:
President, CARL B. RONEN, Public Library, Chicago, Ill.
Secretary, CARL H. MILAM, 86 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Ill.
Meeting, West Baden, Ind., May 28–June 2, 1928.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION, 535 North Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.:
President, JABEZ N. JACKSON, Kansas City, Mo.
Secretary, OLIN WEST, 535 North Dearborn, Street, Chicago, Ill.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., June 11–15, 1928.

AMERICAN NURSES' ASSOCIATION, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N.Y.:
President, S. LILLIAN CLAYTON, Philadelphia General Hospital, Phila., Pa.
Secretary, SUSAN C. FRANCIS, Children's Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa.
Meeting, Louisville, Ky., June 4–9, 1928.

AMERICAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, G Highland Station, Springfield, Mass.:
President, C. W. SAVAGE, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
Secretary, JAMES H. MCCURNY, International Y. M. C. A. College, Springfield, Mass
Meeting, Baltimore, Md., May 23–26, 1928.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERS:
President, ALEX DOW, Detroit, Mich.
Secretary, CALVIN W. RICE, 29 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Pittsburgh, Pa., May 14–17, 1928.

ASSOCIATED HARVARD CLUBS:
President, EVAN HOLLISTER, 810 Fidelity Building, Buffalo, N. Y.
Secretary, NATHAN PERELES, JR., 429 Broadway, Milwaukee, Wis.
Meeting, Philadelphia, Pa., May 17–19, 1928.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS:
President, JOSEPHINE RATHBONE, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Secretary, ISABELLA K. RHONES, School of Library Service, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, West Baden, Ind., May 28–June 2, 1928.

FEDERATION OF CATHOLIC COLLEGE CLUBS:
President, THOMAS R. SWAIN, Woodside, N. Y.
Secretary, THOMAS H. REANYOFF, 8747 Ninety-eighth Street, Woodhaven, N. Y.
Meeting, Toronto, Canada, June, 1928.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF PROFESSORS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION:
Meeting, Bucharest, Rumania, July 19–24, 1928.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL BUSINESS OFFICIALS:
President, H. L. MILLS, Houston, Tex.
Secretary, JOHN S. MOUNT, Statehouse, Trenton, N. J.
Meeting, Denver, Colo., June 5–8, 1928.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLORED SCHOOLS:
President, W. J. HALE, Tennessee State Agricultural and Industrial College, Nashville, Tenn.
Secretary, CLINTON J. CALLOWAY, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.
Meeting, Charleston, W. Va., July 24–27, 1928.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF MARKETING AND ADVERTISING:
President, NEIL H. BORDEN, Harvard Business School, Boston, Mass.
Secretary, NATHANIEL W. BARNES, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Meeting, Detroit, Mich., July 8–12, 1928.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF VISITING TEACHERS:
President, RHEA KAY BOARDMAN, 418 West Twenty-eighth Street, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, LOIS MEREDITH, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 1–7, 1928.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1651 East Main Street, Columbus, Ohio:
President, Rt. Rev. THOMAS J. SHAHAN, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
Secretary, Rt. Rev. FRANCIS W. HOWARN, 1140 Madison Ave., Covington, Ky
Meeting, Chicago, Ill., June 25–28, 1928.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON ART EDUCATION:
President, BESS ELEANOR FOSTER, Art Director, Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.
Secretary, INNIANOLA WILLCUTS, Art Director, Public Schools, Duluth, Minn.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 2, 1928.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT:
President, N. ROBERT RINGNAHL, Principal, Corcoran School, Minneapolis, Minn.
Secretary, Mrs. CLAIRE SWEETMAN EPLER, Faculty Adviser, Girls' Self Government, Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles, Calif.
Meeting, Tuesday, July 3; Thursday, July 5.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN EDUCATION:
President, CAROLINE S. WOONRUFF, Principal, State Normal Training School, Castleton, Vt.
Secretary, ENNA E. HOON, Supervisor of Household and Fine Arts, Public Schools, Kenosha, Wis.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 2–3, 1928

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington, D. C.:
President, CORNELIA ANAIR, 2121 Park Avenue, Richmond, Va.
Secretary, JAMES W. CRABTREE, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW., Washington, D. C.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 1–6, 1928.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF NURSING EDUCATION, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.:
President, CARRIE M. HALL, Peter Bent Brigham Hospital, Boston, Mass.
Secretary, BLANCHE PFEFFERKORN, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Louisville, Ky., June 4–9, 1928.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF TEACHERS ASSOCIATIONS:
President, ETHEL M. GARDNER, 150 Hotel Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis.
Secretary, ANNIE KATE TAYLOR, 914 Martinique, Dallas, Tex.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 1–6, 1928.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.:
President, Mrs. ANNIE L. HANSEN, 181 Franklin Street, Buffalo, N. Y.
Secretary, JANE C. ALLEN, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Louisville, Ky., June 4–9, 1928.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y.:
President, H. LONGSTREET TAYLOR, 710 Lowrey Building, St. Paul, Minn.
Secretary, CHARLES J. HATFIELD, Henry Phipps Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.
Meeting, Portland, Oreg., June 18–20, 1928.

PAN AMERICAN CONFEDERATION FOR HIGHWAY EDUCATION, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.:
Chairman, L. S. ROWE, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.
Director, PYKE JOHNSON, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.
Meeting, Rio de Janeiro, July, 1928.

PRESBYTERIAN EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE SOUTH:
President, HENRY H. SWEETS, 410 Urban Building, Louisville, Ky.
Secretary, D. S. GAGE, 410 Urban Building, Louisville, Ky.
Meetiug, Montreat, N. C., July 3–8, 1928.

SCHOOL GARDEN ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA:
President, DAVID A. WARN, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Del.
Secretary, EMILIE YUNKER, Supervisor of Nature Study and School Gardens, Louisville, Ky.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July 3–5, 1928.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION:
President, R. L. SACKETT, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
Secretary, F. L. BISHOP, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Meeting, Chapel Hill, N. C., June 26–28, 1928.

SOCIETY OF PROGRESSIVE ORAL ADVOCATES:
President, MAX A. GOLNSTEIN, 3858 Westminster Place, St. Louis, Mo.
Secretary, IRENE B. YOUNG, 3202 North Forty-eighth Street, Omaha, Nebr.
Meeting, June, 1928.

VISUAL INSTRUCTION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA:
President, ERNEST L. CRANDALL, 500 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Secretary, ROWLANN ROGERS, 71 West Twenty-third Street, New York, N. Y.
Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., July, 1928, with the National Education Association.

WORLD COMMITTEE ON PEACE THROUGH EDUCATION:
President, AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, Augusta, Me.
Secretary, C. H. WILLIAMS, Columbia, Mo.
Meeting, Geneva, Switzerland, August, 1928.

—EDITH A. WRIGHT

Schools Are Not Constituted to Make All Men Equal

ONE OF THE most pernicious theories that lurks in American education is the assumption that, where the great Creator failed to make all human beings equal, it is the business of the school to make them equal. To justify this procedure, the school men have found cover in the notion that this task works toward a democratic ideal; that it represents the rights of individuals; that it is necessary for the successful operation of educational machinery; that it is good for the lowly individual; that the procedure is justified by results. Each of these alibis represents a fundamental error and misconception of fact in educational procedure. ❦ ❦ ❦ Mass production in education and recognition of the individual are two of the foremost problems in education to-day. They loom up large in contrast, because they seem to involve mutually contradictory principles. It is generally believed that mass methods stamp out the individual, or, conversely, that recognition of the individual prevents the use of mass methods. But mass education is forced upon us, and the recognition of the individual with his personal traits, limitations, and capacities is going to be a persistent demand.

CARL E. SEASHORE

SCHOOL LIFE

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THE BUILDINGS OF WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY WERE THE NUCLEUS OF CLEVELAND'S NEW MEDICAL CENTER

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CONTENTS

SECONDARY EDUCATION has always occupied a prominent place in SCHOOL LIFE. This journal is the official organ of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which J. B. Edmonson is chairman and Carl A. Jessen is secretary. During the past year many noteworthy articles in SCHOOL LIFE have been sponsored by this committee, and others are in hand or in prospect for publication in early numbers. Among them are the following: (1) Program of Studies in the Rural High School. Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University. (2) Some Impressions of Secondary Education in California. Leonard V. Koos, University of Minnesota. (3) Certification of High-School Principals. D. H. Eikenberry, Ohio State University. (4) Supervision of Organized Student Activities in the High School. Paul W. Terry, University of Alabama. (5) Certain Aspects of the Small High School in Ohio. E. J. Ashbaugh, Ohio State University. (6) The Small Six-Year Junior-Senior High School. William H. Bristow, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction. (7) A Viewpoint of the Core-Curriculum in Secondary Education. Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University. (8) Function of History in the Secondary School. Francis M. Froelicher, Avon Old Farms, Avon, Conn. (9) The National Honor Society. Edward Rynearson, Principal Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pa. (10) College Admission Requirements. William M. Proctor and Edwin J. Brown, Leland Stanford Junior University. (11) Curricular Determinants in the Junior College. A. A. Douglass, Pomona College. Contributions are expected also from R. N. Dempster, Johns Hopkins University; Francis M. Crowley, National Catholic Welfare Conference; M. E. Ligon, University of Kentucky; and Jesse B. Davis, Boston University.

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Cooperative Study of English and American Secondary Schools

Joint Committee of School Men of the Two Countries Will Undertake Investigation Which Is Expected to Produce Reliable Information on the Characteristics and Relative Merits of the Respective National Systems. Topics to Be Studied Will Probably Include Students, Teachers, Equipment, Methods, and Results. Plan Includes Interchange of Teachers Between Schools Interested in the Study

By ARTHUR J. JONES
Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania

ENGLISH SPEAKING PEOPLE throughout the world are coming into closer and closer relationship each year. Especially is this true of England and the United States. We are coming to see that there is and can be no essential difference between our ideals and our standards of conduct and of life in general. Citizens of each country are eager to learn more about the institutions of the other and to get inspiration and help from a study of the methods used to accomplish the results desired. This is particularly true of those interested in education in the two countries. We are coming to feel that, divergent as are the two systems of education in some respects, yet our aims are largely the same, and that the divergence that exists may hold something very suggestive that may be helpful in solving the problems confronting each nation. There have been many reports on American schools made by English visitors and volumes written by Americans on English schools. These have, in many cases, given valuable comparative data of a general nature and shown clearly certain outstanding differences between the two systems of schools. These differences, however, have dealt more with certain administrative features than with the conduct of the schools themselves.

Should Know More of Intimate Details

We are very much in need of some more intimate and detailed study of the real work of the schools—something that will enable us to picture clearly just what the teachers in each system of schools are doing in the classroom, what their aims are, how they conduct a "recitation," and what results they actually secure.

The need for such a study is made more apparent by the misinformation given publicity in daily newspapers regarding schools and educational aims. Well-intentioned but ill-informed Americans often give utterance to their personal opinion regarding what is done in the schools of the United States and what we are trying to accomplish. These are frequently wide of the truth, but are very naturally accepted as correct by Englishmen. English visitors are usually more reserved regarding their schools, but sometimes give entirely erroneous impressions of English schools to their American audiences.

Too Much Prejudice in Discussions

During the past few years there has been much discussion of the relative merits of the English and the American systems of secondary education. Some of this has been illuminating and some very confusing. Some has been impartial; much has been clearly prejudiced and often actuated by narrow patriotic zeal. We have been told that the American secondary school is superficial, its standards are low and becoming lower, the discipline is poor, there is a lack of scholarly purpose among our students—or any other purpose except to have a good time; that our teaching is inefficient; finally even, that the mounting crime wave in this country is definitely the result of our laxity in discipline and our absence of purpose.

To one who really wants to know what the facts are the natural question presents itself, "Are these things true?" Then, "What is the evidence?" When the question is approached from this point of view, we find a strange and disconcerting paucity of reliable data. Two conflicting attitudes are clearly seen. One of these is illustrated by the man who is acutely conscious of the failures and the defects in our system of secondary schools and naturally wants to have these remedied. He looks at the English schools but they are so far away that he does not see their defects, but thinks only of the good part. Consequently, he takes the best of the English schools and compares them with the worst of the American schools.

Knowledge of Facts is Essential

The other attitude is that of the irrepressible optimist who does not see or take account of any defects, as far as anything American is concerned. He sees the best that we have and only the worst that the other party has. Anything American is better than anything English.

It is very apparent that neither method can be relied upon to produce a solution to the problem. Nor will the two combined do any better, for the points of view are too diametrically opposed to be harmonized; neither is scientific. We can affirm with every assurance of certainty that there is a common ground beneath the claims of some on each side who are loudest in their claims and that common ground is ignorance of the facts.

It has been asserted that students in the English secondary schools are doing a

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better grade of work; the standards are higher than in our secondary schools. What evidence do we have of the truth of this? Have any tests been exchanged, have any comparisons been made of achievement scores based on the same tests? How do the college entrance examinations given in England compare with those in our country? We do know that in some sections of England the percentage of young people between the ages of 10 and 18 who go to secondary schools is far less than with us. Philadelphia now has 60,432 boys and girls in her junior and senior high schools. In February, 1928, 11,699 new students entered the seventh grade. If the same proportion of these applicants for admission to the seventh grade actually went in to the seventh grade as obtains in the West Riding of Yorkshire, we should have only 2,340.

Rate of Elimination Greater in England

At a fair rate of elimination per year based upon the English rate of elimination in secondary schools we should have a total enrollment in the junior and senior high schools of Philadelphia of from 10,000 to 12,000. It would not take many high schools like the Gratz and the Overbrook to accommodate them. They would be, scholastically, the very best 10,000 out of the 60,000. Is this selection characteristic of England as a whole?

Is the discipline essentially different in the English and American schools? What evidence do we have? What is the difference between the methods used in the classrooms in the two types of school? How do the curricula compare? Into what occupations do graduates of the two types of school go? How do the social and economic backgrounds of the students compare?

These are but a few of the questions which need to be investigated and until they are investigated and the facts collected we very obviously will still be talking largely at random.

Mutual Benefit from Interchange

It is now proposed to begin a cooperative study of English and American secondary schools that should give needed information that can be relied upon as accurate. The purpose of the study is to promote a better understanding and a closer, more sympathetic relationship between English and American educators, to provide a medium by which the best methods and practices of one system of secondary education may be made known to the other. Certainly, the aims and methods of English schools will be very suggestive and helpful to us in the United States. It is hoped that a knowledge of the best methods and practices of our schools may be equally helpful to English men and women.

This study is planned to cover several years, and involves the cooperation of groups of English and of American educators. It is inaugurated by Prof. E. D. Grizzell and myself, who are connected with the School of Education of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. It will be in charge of a joint committee of English and American school men and women.

Particular Study of Selected Schools

The study will involve a general comparison of the main facts and tendencies in the recent development of secondary education in the two countries and a detailed study of certain selected schools in the two countries. It is hoped that 25 or more schools in each country may be sufficiently interested in the plan to cooperate. These schools will be selected, as far as possible, in such a way that results will be comparable. The topics studied will be selected by the joint committee, but will probably include an intimate comparative study of students, teachers, buildings, grounds and equipment, methods, discipline, systems of examinations, and results.

All available statistical data will be secured and carefully compared. If possible, tests will be constructed to secure comparative data. Regular examination questions used in a school in one country may be sent to schools in the other country and results tabulated.

One of the most hopeful parts of the plan is that of promoting the exchange of teachers between the schools interested in the study. A plan has been partially formulated by which the interests of the schools are safeguarded and the teachers' pension status will not be endangered. It is hoped that money may be found to finance traveling and other incidental expenses of the exchange teachers. Professor Grizzell will be in residence in England during the year 1928–29, and will personally assist in the study.

Finally, it is hoped that the results of the entire study will be published and made available for all interested in a comparative description and evaluation of the two systems of secondary education.

Any principal of a public high school, any head master or head mistress of a private school who is interested in the study, and especially any who would like to cooperate in the detailed plan for comparison of certain schools is requested to write to me at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Details of the Proposed Scheme

A more detailed plan of the inquiry is here given:

I. *Purpose.*—(*a*) To promote a better understanding and a more sympathetic relationship between English and American educators; (*b*) to provide a medium for the study of common problems in order that a knowledge of the best theory and practice in either system of secondary education may be made available to the teachers and administrators in the other.

II. *Scope of the Study.*—A. General. 1. Comparison of the main facts and tendencies in the recent development of secondary education in England and in America. 2. Topics for comparative study; (*a*) Meaning and scope (including aims) of secondary education; (*b*) the secondary school population; (*c*) the secondary school curriculum (this includes a consideration of all the educational influences of the school); (*d*) personnel of the secondary school staff; (*e*) material of secondary schools (buildings, grounds, equipment, supplies, etc.); (*f*) administration of secondary education; (*g*) general tendencies revealed in the development over the period 1900–1926.

Thirty Representative Schools in Each Country

B. Detailed comparative study of a limited number of schools in each country. 1. Secondary schools to be selected (about 30 schools in England and 30 schools in America): (*a*) Twenty public high schools in the United States; (*b*) 20 municipal and county secondary schools in England; (*c*) 5 private (independent) schools for boys in America; (*d*) 5 private (independent) schools for boys in England; (*e*) 5 private (independent) schools for girls in America; (*f*) 5 private (independent) schools for girls in England. 2. General topics suggested for study. Topics actually chosen for investigation will be determined after appointment of joint committees (see III–B): (*a*) Survey of students in the schools; (*b*) the curriculum (including studies and activities) and daily program; (*c*) methods of classroom procedure and discipline; (*d*) textbooks, laboratory equipment, supplies, etc.; (*e*) results in comparable subjects; (*f*) teachers, selection, training, salary, etc.; (*g*) supervision of other methods of improving instruction; (*h*) systems of tests and examinations, methods of marking; (*i*) general administrative features; (*j*) school costs and sources of revenue.

III. *Method of organization.*—A. In general charge, Division of Secondary Education of the University of Pennsylvania. Organization of the study, collection of material, editing results, general correspondence, and publicity.

B. Committees. Two committees to be appointed, one in England and one in America, to act in an advisory capacity in planning and conducting the study, and to have immediate charge of certain phases of the work in each country.

C. Prof. E. D. Grizzell, of the Division of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania, will be in residence in

England during the year 1928–29 and will actively participate in the study of the English schools.

D. Prof. Arthur J. Jones will have general direction of the study in American schools.

IV. *General procedures.*—A. Collection and organization of available printed material bearing on the study. 1. Selected, annotated bibliography of the best books and pamphlets, magazine articles, etc. 2. Critical statement of comparative aspects of English and American secondary education since 1900.

Will Apply Standardized Tests

B. Detailed study of selected schools. 1. Collection of available statistical and descriptive material, reports, etc., bearing on or related to the study. 2. Organization of tests for comparative results. (*a*) Tests to be used: Standardized tests as far as possible; regular class or school examinations exchanged; matriculation (college entrance) examinations; mental (intelligence) tests, when possible. (*b*) Method of giving and scoring tests: Secure standard conditions as far as possible; regular class examinations to be exchanged; English students take American examinations and American students take English examinations; papers graded both by English and American teachers independently, results compared, and comments exchanged; comparison of questions, results, and of papers of joint matriculation board examinations in England with those of the college board in America.

V. *Methods of securing first-hand information* regarding classroom procedures, standards of work, and conduct of schools. Secure opinions and observations of persons qualified to report on specific points. (*a*) Visitors to the United States; (*b*) visitors to England; (*c*) opinions of leaders in education in both countries.

VI. *Promotion of plans for the exchange of teachers.*—A. Utilization of existing agencies. Secure the cooperation of these exchange teachers by inducing them to report to the committees on certain points: (*a*) Walter Hines Page Traveling Scholarships, (*b*) English-Speaking Union.

Exchanges to be Between Comparable Schools

B. Developing other exchanges. 1. Arrange exchanges between private (independent) schools in each country and between publicly supported schools in each country; as far as possible, arrange exchanges between comparable schools. 2. General method suggested: (*a*) Publicly supported schools; secure consent of school boards or local education authorities in each country; arrange for preservation of pension rights; have each teacher granted a year's leave on full pay, i. e., salary of each teacher to be paid, as usual, by his own local authority and kept on the roll of teachers; (*b*) private (independent) schools; work through head master and principal of each school; same plan of financing as above.

C. Provide, if possible, for extra expenses of teachers: (*a*) By local education authority; (*b*) by subvention from some foundation.

D. Devise definite plans and blanks for reports to be made on certain specified points: (*a*) To their own local education authority; (*b*) to the committees in charge.

Abundant Promises of Cooperation

Prominent educators in both countries are interested in the plan and have promised their cooperation. A number of schools in this country and in England have already expressed themselves as willing to cooperate in the study. From the interest manifested there is no doubt that the plan can be carried out.

When we get well started it will doubtless be necessary to secure funds to pay the expenses incident to the exchange of teachers and to certain other features of the work. These, we think, can be secured when the time comes.

Definite and Desirable Results Expected

This cooperative study, conducted jointly by English and American educators should have certain definite and desirable results. Among these are:

1. Better understanding of the purposes of secondary education in the two countries and a clearer conception of the differences and similarities of the problems before us.

2. A knowledge of points of strength and weakness that will assist each in improving and making more efficient the work of the schools.

3. The definite collection of facts that will enable us all to form a more accurate opinion regarding the two systems of schools and to understand more clearly our own problems.

School Children of Northern Europe Entertained in Germany

Fifteen Hundred Pupils from Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Finland to Spend Month in Germany. German Association Provides Free Railroad Transportation. Children Are Lodged with Congenial Families

Translation of an Article in HUFVUDSTADSBLADET, a Swedish Journal, Forwarded to the Secretary of State by ALFRED J. PEARSON, United States Minister at Helsingfors, Finland

FINLAND participated last summer for the first time in the exchange of pupils between the Northern Countries and Germany. The interest in this movement is growing. The initiative was taken by the German association, Deutscher Philologenverband. The association provides for free railroad transportation in Germany. Two hundred pupils from Sweden participated in 1925; this number increased to 700 in 1926 and to 800 in 1927. Next summer, when Norway and Denmark will follow the example of Finland and Germany, it is expected that the number will increase to 1,500. The school administration took the lead in this movement in Finland in the spring of 1927, by appointing a committee under the chairmanship of Mr. U. Nystrom, a member of the school board.

On account of limited time for arrangements it was necessary to restrict the exchange of pupils to those from Helsingfors and immediate vicinity. In 1927, 31 girls and 27 boys from 14 to 17 years of age participated from Finland. The pupils were located in homes equal in social and educational standing to the homes of the visitors; the girls were placed with families with daughters of the same age, and the boys with families with sons of equal age. The visit was of one month's duration after which the German pupils accompanied the Finnish pupils to Finland as the latter's guests.

The purpose of this exchange is to give the young people a chance for recreation and at the same time to widen their vision by acquainting them with the ways and customs of a foreign country by teaching them its language and fostering friendly relations with that country. An agreement for the exchange of pupils during next summer has already been concluded with the German committee. Only 100 Finnish pupils can be received in Germany. It is hoped that the expense can be kept at 1,000 Finnish marks, the same as last year.

In connection with this exchange of pupils it is planned to arrange for a trip for a number of students from the more advanced classes for the purpose of more intensive study. This trip will take 8 or 10 days. The maximum number of participants will be 15. The main purpose of the trip is to visit Weimar to study the intellectual atmosphere there. The fee for this trip is 1,000 Finnish marks.

Medical Center of Western Reserve University Has Developed Rapidly

Schools, Hospitals, Library, and Museum, All Concerned with the Science of Healing, Grouped in Convenient Proximity Under Cooperating Management. Thirty Million Dollars Raised and Expended for Construction Since 1920. Nearly All the Money Contributed by Residents of Cleveland. Facilities For Instruction and Research Rarely Equaled. One of the Great Ventures in Education

By JAMES F. ABEL

Associate Specialist, Bureau of Education

THE great Medical Center that is now in process of organization and construction at Western Reserve University was the main theme of a luncheon address given by President Robert E. Vinson to the members of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars at their annual meeting in Cleveland last April. When the present plans are brought to full fruition the university will have a combination of instructional and research facilities in medical and health education that will be equaled by few other institutions.

This is a decade of educational centennials, hundredth anniversaries of the opening of the University of Virginia, of George Washington University, of Franklin Institute, of our first normal schools, and other important beginnings of education in the United States. Entering upon the second century has been everywhere marked by entering also with renewed faith upon large programs for the broad extension and betterment of educational service. In that faith Western Reserve University, founded in the Western Reserve of Connecticut in 1826 to be the "Yale of the West," was adding another worthy chapter to the story of progress when in 1927 at the inauguration of its president, it dedicated a new medical building as part of a comprehensive plan for improving its already strong school of medicine.

"The building was given," President Vinson told the registrars, "by a member of the board of trustees. It is an interesting story, perhaps the first of its kind, that Western Reserve University had practically carte blanche in building its school of medicine, and every head of depart-

The material in this article was based upon the address of President Robert E. Vinson, of Western Reserve University, before the Cleveland meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, supplemented by information supplied by Miss Maria Kirkwood, of President Vinson's office staff.

Babies and Children's Hospital and Maternity Hospital embody every approved modern idea

ment was told simply to sit down and write out his bill of requirements for his department with the assurance that the things he thought he needed could and would be provided.

"It is even a more interesting story that when the building was completed the university turned back to this generous donor—probably it is the first time in all educational history that such a thing has been done—about half a million dollars of the money he had set aside to complete the building."

Coordination into One Outstanding Enterprise

This is but one building of a group that will bring together on the university campus a series of closely related agencies all now being coordinated in one outstanding enterprise to work toward the general purpose of offering the finest kind of medical and health education. The major elements combining to form the medical center are the university with its graduate school and its laboratory facilities for teaching the fundamental sciences, the school of medicine, the school of dentistry, the school of nursing, and the school of pharmacy.

For hospital service and training, the maternity hospital, and the children's and babies' hospital, each with 150 beds, were erected near to and shortly after the medical building at a cost of approximately $3,500,000. Accommodation is being provided this year to bring to the university Lakeside General Hospital, with about 160 beds for general medicine and surgery, and 140 for specialties under each of these general departments. Moreover, the university has control of the convalescent hospital in a suburb of Cleveland, the City Hospital, and the Charity Hospital, so that for the development of medical education alone 2,250 beds will be available and under the immediate control of the faculty of the school of medicine.

Nurse-Training Schools Consolidated

A nurse training school was formerly maintained by each of the hospitals connected with the university. These are now united in one school of nursing in which all the scientific training of the young women is taken over and given by the university, and the hospitals furnish the facilities for practical experience. Included in the building plan are dormitories for the student nurses and a separate building for the school itself. The program for nursing education, while primarily arranged to give a three-year course leading to a diploma in nursing, includes a five-year course in which three years of professional training are superposed on two years of academic study in the college for women. The five-year course leads to a bachelor of science degree and is intended to furnish training for hospital supervisors, heads of nurse training schools, and those who wish to prepare themselves for the more responsible positions in the field of nursing. Moreover, graduate courses are offered to nurses in service who wish to keep abreast of the times or advance themselves in their work.

Library and Museum Added to Group

The new medical library with a capacity of 200,000 volumes was brought to the medical center through agreement between the university and the Cleveland Medical Library Association. When the association was beginning its campaign in 1924 for funds for a building, the university invited it to join the medical group, offered to give the land upon which to locate the building; and the wife of a university trustee donated $400,000 on the condition that the library be placed on the campus. In addition, the Cleveland Museum of Natural History with its important collection of natural history materials, particularly those gathered in the Southern Hemisphere by the Blossom expedition of two years ago, has been brought into the same grouping.

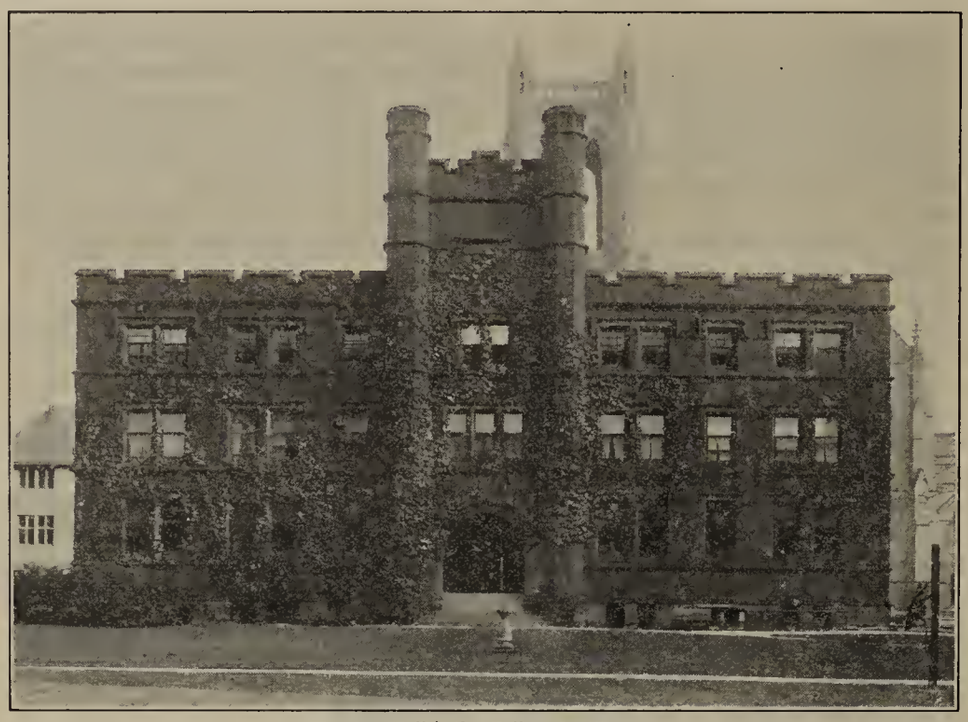
An institute of pathology, the gift of the general education board, will be placed in the midst of the medical center. It will provide room for the laboratory facilities necessary to the teaching of pathology and the investigative work of that department. It will also be the research laboratory for the hospital group and the men connected with it. This arrangement will free considerable space in the medical building to the department of surgery.

Four Hospitals under One Management

Naturally the consummation of so comprehensive a plan as that conceived for the medical center involved, first, securing the cooperation of the many independent agencies for medical education in Cleveland and bringing them into one centralized organization, and, second, the provision and expenditure of large amounts of money. Due mainly to the generosity

Adelbert College becomes more beautiful with the passing years

of the people of Cleveland and their appreciation of the opportunity for a remarkable achievement both have been attended with unusual success. Operation of four of the hospitals is now in the hands of a centralized corporation composed of representatives of the original boards of trustees and of the university so that any action relating to medical education from the hospital point of view is taken by those interested in the group as a whole. The five schools within the university that are involved in the medical center are so coordinated that duplication of effort is reduced to a minimum and each benefits by the grouping.



Hayden Hall is the College for Women

Survey Commission Recommended Unification

This unified administration, and concentration of effort, together with the general program of establishing a medical center, follows closely the recommendations of a survey commission appointed by the Cleveland Foundation Committee and directed by the specialist in higher education of the United States Bureau of Education.

Since the inception of the plan more than $30,000,000 has been raised and spent in its development. Several of the gifts have already been mentioned. A campaign was carried on in Cleveland last year to raise $6,000,000 to complete the hospital and school of nursing buildings. Eight million two hundred fifty thousand dollars, or $2,250,000 beyond the amount set, was contributed and all of it came from the city of Cleveland with the exception of $1,000,000 from a citiven of New York.

With a long record already to its credit of successful achievement in teaching and research and of splendid service in the care of the sick of Cleveland, and with the necessary financing and coordination being generously given to make the most of a splendid opportunity, the medical center of Western Reserve University is now one of the great ventures in education that have been entered upon in these postwar years.

State Officers Will Lecture on Labor

A series of lectures on labor will be given this summer, beginning July 2, at Columbia University, New York University, the College of the City of New York, the University of Rochester, and Syracuse University, by Dr. James A. Hamilton, industrial commissioner, and officials of the Department of Labor of the State of New York. The course includes the history, organization, and aims of the department; statistics; industrial medicine, surgery, and hygiene; functions of the State industrial board; workmen's compensation; accidents; the relation of women to industry; factors in production; and other subjects. The purpose of the course is to acquaint prospective employers and employees, as well as professional men and women having to do with business, teachers, and the public, with some of the important legal and social questions involved in the industrial situation, and to promote more general use of the facilities offered by the department for the solution of industrial and business problems. Credits for the course will be granted by the College of the City of New York, Syracuse University, the Board of Education of the City of New York, and the Board of Regents of the State of New York.

A member of the board of trustees gave the new building for the School of Medicine

Ten Steps in the Promotion of Health in Rural Schools

By JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS, M. D.

Chief, Division of Physical Education and School Hygiene, Bureau of Education

STEP ONE

DESIRE precedes attainment, and the first requisite for a successful program in health work is the wish to make health a real, as well as a theoretical, objective in education. Improvement in child health is doubly to be desired, since with it should go improvement in school progress.

School health work may be divided into:

(*a*) The arrangement of the general educational program as to length of school day, suitableness of subjects, variety of activities, observance of recess, teacher observation of and sympathy with the individual child, and the general pedagogic atmosphere.

(*b*) Conditions in the school plant affecting the health of the child.

(*c*) Efforts put forth to place the child in his best physical condition and to keep him so.

The items under (*a*) are under the direct control of the educational authorities and are presumably always looked after. They are not considered here.

STEP TWO

The stimulus and direction of health work should come from the county or district superintendent or supervisor; or, in a consolidated school, the principal may be the most suitable person to institute such work.

It goes without saying that the board of education should be made fully appreciative of what is attempted and that they should be made to understand that it is a matter of economy to place children in their best condition for doing school work.

Any improvements in the material outfit of the school will need the support of the community, while efforts intended to influence directly the hygiene of the child must be carried out chiefly in the home so that close sympathy and understanding between the home and school become essential. Where there is not already a close understanding between the home and school, a parent-teacher association is a means of securing cooperation. Where such an association has been formed, a suitable committee will be of assistance in securing the promotion of health work, but the initiative and leadership should be assumed by the educator. The cooperation of local physicians or dentists can be secured by proper approach and they may well be included in such a committee.

STEP THREE

Whether a school works alone or with the support of such an organization, the understanding of the parents as to what the school is driving at can be furthered by the distribution of such literature as that prepared by the United States Bureau of Education for this purpose in its booklet, Is Your Child Ready for School? which applies not only to the child at entrance, but throughout his school career. This publication may be had in quantity at such a price as to make its free distribution easily worth the cost in the results attained. (Single copy, 10 cents; additional copies, 4 cents each.)

STEP FOUR

Making the most of existing agencies.—The official or committee organizing the school health activities should find out what assistance, if any, can be had from existing agencies. There is always (*a*) a State Department of Education; (*b*) a State Department of Health and, in some localities; (*c*) a county or district public health organization. There is no uniformity among the States in the assignment of the supervision of school health work to State educational or health authorities, nor as to the powers or personnel for such work in either department. In some States little assistance can be had from one or the other. In most States, however, the department of health can be expected to be helpful in determining certain essentials of sanitation, especially as to the safety of the water supply and the sewage disposal. A county health organization will no doubt be glad to conduct a sanitary investigation and may be able to offer the assistance of a nurse or a physician in connection with the physical examination of school children.

STEP FIVE

Having determined what help can be had from the sources mentioned, they should be called upon to suggest any needed changes in the school plant. Where no such assistance is available, the health committee or teachers can make their own survey of school needs and for this purpose appraisal forms for rural schools such as have been published by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and by the Iowa Department of Health are available. Among the important conditions which call for investigation are: (1) Size and condition of playground, (2) safety of water supply, (3) safe delivery of water to pupils, (4) model toilets, (5) facilities for washing, (6) heating and ventilation, (7) lighting and shading, (8) condition of blackboards, (9) seats and seating, (10) time and methods of cleaning the school, (11) fire protection, and (12) facilities for preparing or serving the school lunch.

Unhealthful conditions found in the survey should be removed as early as possible. The school plant should be a model of sanitation for the students.

STEP SIX

Health examinations (medical and dental inspection).—If the home has been brought into full understanding of the health work of the school, the efforts at putting the child in his best condition to profit from his school work and to enjoy life should go smoothly.

(*a*) *Communicable diseases (including skin diseases).*—If the symptoms of communicable disease are not detected by the parent and the child is not kept at home, the teacher becomes, of necessity, the examiner for these conditions. No nurse nor physician can take her place, for, when these are employed, they are rarely in daily attendance.

(*b*) *Defects.*—If there is a county health organization it may be possible to secure its help in making yearly examinations of pupils for physical defects, or the local physician may be employed to do this. (In rural New York they are paid from 50 cents to $1.50 per examination.) But, even if this assistance is to be had, the observations of the teacher are of the greatest value, for she is in the strategic position for knowing her pupils. In many schools she is the only examiner. Her proficiency as an examiner will, of course, depend on her preparation, but with the help of such explanations as are given in a publication of the United States Bureau of Education, "What Every Teacher Should Know About the Physical Condition of Her Pupils," she can do very well without personal instruction. Her interest in the child should make her keen to see that any hampering defects of real consequence are reported tactfully to the parent. Like those of any other school examiner her findings are given only as opinions of what "seem" needed repairs or regulation of the bodily machine, for the physician consulted by the family is the source of final decision. Where parents can not afford such a final consultation the Parent-Teacher Association becomes, again, a source of help.

(c) *Dental defects.*—Aside from aching teeth or infected gums which need no skill for their finding, and should receive immediate attention), the examination for dental defects should best be made by a dentist, for we are especially concerned with the beginnings of decay in permanent teeth. It is still better to anticipate decay by finding and removing faults of development. (See "Better Teeth" Health Education Series No. 20, United States Bureau of Education). However, if no dentist or dental hygienist is available, the teacher should look for beginning decay, especially in the permanent teeth, and she can find it as well as the average physician or nurse.

Whether examinations are made by teachers or by others, only such defects (aside from beginning dental decay) as seem to interfere with health or school progress should be reported to the parents. Every effort should be put forth to see that children found defective are referred by parents to their physicians, since otherwise the finding of defects is a waste of time. If the parents have been properly informed, however, as to what the school is driving at in its health work, much effort will hardly be needed. Where parents are unable to secure treatment of their children, and this is not afforded by existing public means (such as traveling State clinics or near-by hospitals), the Parent-Teacher Association should help to solve the problem.

STEP SEVEN

Health education.—The physical examination of the child becomes the objective beginning of his interest in his body and its working, and in the practice of habits conducive to health. Periodic weighing and measuring (at least once a term) should interest him in his growth and serve also as pegs on which to hang health lessons. Daily inspection for cleanliness and for signs of communicable disease help as reminders of the importance of health.

Health teaching in the lower grades consists chiefly in the effort to secure the habitual practice of a few things which are done by every one who has attained his highest degree of health. They are as old as the hills, for in getting a child to go to bed at such an hour that he will arise refreshed and in time for an early breakfast, we are only insisting, in prosy modern parlance, on the carrying out of the ancient adage "early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy and wealthy and wise." To-day, as of old, plenty of sleep and readiness for work at the appointed time are fundamental to attaining the chief ends of education—health, wisdom, and making a living. Through the explanation to older children of the reasons for practices affecting the health of self and of others (and particularly of the child before birth and in his first years) the foundations for better health can be laid for the generations to come.

Old adages may be preferable to some twentieth century rules for health practices in that they are not unduly specific. Children are not alike and can not be made so. No child can sleep a certain definite number of hours to order, nor is a specified number of glasses of water or glasses of milk (even if all glasses held the same amount) just right for every child under every condition. The teacher will need to exercise common sense in her health teaching and in her appraisal of the response of her pupils.

Helps for health teaching have been published in State courses of study and physical education syllabi, by the United States Bureau of Education, by the National Education Association, by the Tuberculosis Association, by the American Child Health Association, etc. A practical guide for interesting elementary children is Suggestions for a Program of Health Teaching in Elementary Schools, by J. Mace Andress and Mabel C. Bragg, Health Education Series No. 10, United States Bureau of Education, price 10 cents. Health Education in Rural Schools, by J. Mace Andress (Houghton, Mifflin Co., New York, N. Y.), is a more comprehensive book on the subject. There are many excellent textbooks on hygiene for use with children beyond the fourth grade.

Before beginning work along this line it will be well to find out, for later comparison of results, the present practice of health habits by the pupils and the information they possess. For the latter purpose the Gates-Strang health knowledge test for each grade is perhaps the most satisfactory. This may be secured from the bureau of publications, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

STEP EIGHT

The school lunch.—The nutrition of the child is of more importance than anything else, and while it depends on other factors besides feeding, this is, of course, preeminent. It is therefore important that the school lunch, both in content and service, should be all that it can be and that it serve as an object lesson in hygiene and sanitation.

In consolidated schools the preparation of various foods with cafeteria service will often be essential; but in the small school, while it is often well for the teacher to prepare one dish (as soup or cocoa) for all children, the remainder of the meal will be carried from home. The home must be brought into cooperation if the foods are the most desirable. Through the distribution of bulletins, such as The Lunch Hour at School, Health Education Series No. 7, United States Bureau of Education, the contents of the lunch box can be improved.

In cold weather warm food is desirable and a simple plan for warming dishes brought from home, worked out by Jeannette E. Pugh, R. N., has been widely adopted.

The food to be warmed is brought in a wide-mouthed half-pint fruit jar. The apparatus for heating consists of a two-burner oil stove and a wash boiler with a home-made wire or tin rack for holding the cans and to keep them off the bottom of the boiler. (For a small school a one-burner stove and dish pan will serve the purpose.)

About 1 inch of water is needed in the boiler. Before school opens the pupils place their jars in the rack in the boiler. At about 11 o'clock the stove is set going and the food steamed for 30 minutes.

In preparation for lunch, the following outfit has been found adequate: (1) A 10-cent oil can containing liquid soap; (2) a faucet drinking fountain with drain pail (a faucet attached to the wash boiler will be better, or a pitcher will answer the purpose, and warm water from the wash boiler can be used); (3) paper towels or individual towels; (4) a box of toothpicks; (5) paper napkins.

At noon the pupils are lined up and as they pass, each receives from the teacher or one of the pupils sufficient soap in his palms which he rubs over his hands; he then washes under the faucet or with water from the pitcher manipulated by a pupil. He dries his hands with a paper towel, cleans his nails with a toothpick, throws the towel and pick in a waste basket, takes a paper napkin and his half-pint of warm food from the tray and returns to his seat. He then spreads the napkin on his desk and arranges on it the contents of his lunch box. Thirty-five pupils can carry out the procedure of preparation in seven minutes. The cost is slight and the object lesson in sanitary handling of food is most valuable.

In consolidated schools the sanitary arrangements need not be so simple, but they should be made use of as systematically.

STEP NINE

With physical education, we return to the starting point of health work, namely, to the playground, which was mentioned earlier as an essential feature of the school outfit. It should be ample in size (an acre for a 1-room school is not too large) and it should have such supervision by the teacher as will permit its free use by all pupils. If the children are among those unfortunates who do not know games appropriate to their ages, the teacher should either teach them herself

or utilize older children for this purpose. Games and other activities are described in the physical education syllabi of many States or can be found in the bulletin of this bureau, Games and Equipment for Small Rural Schools, Physical Education Series No. 8, price 5 cents. Another publication is Graded Games for Rural Schools, by A. R. Ross. (A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, N. Y.)

STEP TEN

Special workers.—All school health work goes best under expert supervision and, where possible, county or district supervision should be secured. A school health director can develop, county-wide, such a program as has been outlined. He or she will obtain available assistance from State or local authorities, interest parents, physicians, and dentists, and secure their cooperation; look after sanitary conditions; instruct and direct teachers in their work of discovering defects and diseases; help in securing the correction of defects (traveling dental and other clinics have been developed in some counties) and instruct teachers in methods of stimulating health habits and of imparting health information.

Such health directors (either physicians, school nurses, physical educators, or "health directors" with especially broad training) are not yet easy to obtain, but they are employed in many counties. They are worth all they cost in placing health as the first objective of education.

Special classes.—The education of children seriously handicapped in limb, or with very defective vision, hearing, or speech can be specially arranged for in counties or other populous units. The proportion of such children varies greatly, but is, roughly, 1 to 500 of the general school enrollment for each of the defects named. As classes need to be small, a school population of 5,000 may find it desirable to combine in employing special teachers and establishing special classes with suitable transportation facilities. A sight-saving class has been formed for Ottawa County, Ohio, at Oak Harbor, and one for crippled children of Belmont County, Ohio, at Barnesville, and doubtless there are other such schools in rural sections. Where nothing more is done for the child with serious visual defects he should, besides being adequately looked after by an oculist, be supplied with special large-print books, and other sight-saving materials.

For the child handicapped by defective hearing or defective speech the establishment of regular classes is not essential, but such children may be helped by individual instruction according to their needs.

A recent publication of this bureau on The Hard of Hearing Child gives information in regard to the special handling of such children. The Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City, and the International Society for Crippled Children, Elyria, Ohio, are sources of information on their respective interests.

We fall far short of perfect results in the teaching of the three R's, and we need not therefore be discouraged if in our health work we do not attain all we hope for. As regards defects, in a city where highly organized work has been carried on by physician and nurse for years, a recent annual report shows that not half of the visual defects found are corrected, that only one out of five children having defective nasal breathing is relieved, only one out of three with diseased ears is treated, and only one out of five with defective speech is helped. A sympathetic and tactful teacher in a rural school ought to accomplish more than this. If the physical handicaps of one child are lessened, or the sum of his energy for work and for the enjoyment of life is increased, it is worth while, even if the ninety and nine may not be apparently the better for our efforts. Besides, the effects of health work, like those of mental training, are not usually tangible or measurable and the former, though not immediately apparent, may extend to future generations.

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Employment Certificates Issued in New York

Nearly 54,000 boys and girls under 16 years of age were released from full-time school attendance in New York State and were granted employment certificates during the year ending August, 1926, according to figures recently compiled by the New York Child-labor Committee in cooperation with the State education department. About 90 per cent of the total number of children were from city schools. Nearly four-fifths of the 53,644 children, 42,530, remained in school until their fifteenth birthday, and three-fifths of the pupils who left school to enter industry had completed at least the eighth grade. Under the law no child under 15 may receive an employment certificate unless he has graduated from an elementary school. Only 9.69 per cent of those applying were refused permits, due in most cases to lack of physical fitness.

To discourage the commercial exploitation of children, the Parent-Teacher Federation of Southern California refuses to indorse clubs organized by theatrical or motion-picture exhibitors or producers for Saturday performances in theaters.

Canadian Schools Offer Lessons in Music

Group piano lessons under a qualified teacher are given children in schools of Kitchener, Province of Ontario, Canada. The purpose of the plan, which has been in operation for four years, is to introduce music into every home. At present 140 children are under instruction. Groups are composed of about eight children, and the lesson period is half an hour. Only one piano is used for a class; each child in turn receives individual instruction on it, and dummy keyboards provide practice for the other children. Two lessons a week are given, and the cost to each pupil is 25 cents per lesson. The plan is promoted by the Canadian bureau for the advancement of music. It has been introduced into schools in Toronto, Montreal, London, and other places. The only financial responsibility assumed by local boards of education is for physical equipment. The teacher, however, must be acceptable to the board.

Alabama Makes Provision for Blind Persons

Special service for blind persons in Alabama for whose training and employment other provision has not been made has been inaugurated by the State Department of Education, in accordance with recent enactment of the legislature. The training will be given through the rehabilitation service of the division of vocational education. A field agent has been appointed, formerly a county superintendent of child welfare and attendance. The purpose is to train a large number of competent blind men and women for positions in the industries. Others will be employed in institutions already maintained for the purpose in Birmingham and Mobile.

Systematic Study of Money by Elementary Pupils

A course of instruction in money management will be given experimentally to elementary pupils in two grades of Driscoll and Devotion schools, Brookline, Mass. The course was planned by a member of the faculty of the high school who is chairman of the economics committee of the Massachusetts Teachers Federation. It is a systematic study of the implications of money as they confront the self-supporting adult: The necessity for work; capacity to earn; usefulness of work to others; payment in return for service; and use of money in saving, spending, and giving.

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

Issued Monthly, except July and August
By THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Editor - - - - - - James C. Boykin

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JUNE, 1928

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers met in thirty-second annual convention at Cleveland April 30 to May 4.

The "summer round-up" will be conducted again this year by that organization to stimulate interest in the health of children, and especially to send to the schools in the autumn a class of new pupils 100 per cent free from remediable defects.

Articles were expected for this issue of School Life upon both these subjects, but the preparation of the articles was prevented by untoward accidents which could not have been foreseen.

Educational Surveys as a Bureau Function

IT IS the function of good administration to examine its policies and practices from time to time in the light of practical results. Such an evaluation is essential not alone in a large organization in which the administrator, because of the pressure of larger and more important projects, may temporarily lose contact with individuals, and minor contributory ones; it is equally, perhaps even more, necessary in a small organization where conservation of time and effort of a staff which is at best inadequate to the demands made upon it is particularly essential. When there is an accumulation of projects, as in the Bureau of Education, careful selection must be made to insure the most economical use of the available staff. Each project must be weighed as to its relative value, measured by costs and results.

One of the most important activities in which the Bureau of Education engages is that of conducting surveys of educational systems. This is a service in which it has been a pioneer, going back to the days when Henry Barnard, the first Commissioner of Education, made a survey of the school system of the city of Washington.

Of recent years the calls upon the bureau for educational surveys have been made in greater numbers than the facilities provided enable it to meet. Demands on the time of members of the small staff, who of necessity must carry on regularly established work in addition to surveys, made acceptance of several of these important projects prohibitive.

The Commissioner of Education is forced by the circumstances of the case in the interest of efficient administration to weigh with particular care the whole policy of engaging in educational surveys, since it is one of the most arduous and time-consuming, as well as highly technical in several professional lines, of the varied services of the bureau. The matter is especially pertinent at this time in view of the increasing demands for new types of the regular or continuing service due to the growing recognition of education as a prolific field for scientific study, the professionalization of teaching, the increasing school population, the establishment of new types of educational research, and the need for varied and extensive experimentation of an educational nature.

The immediate administrative question is, What proportion of the time of the regular staff can economically be allotted to a type of educational work, however valuable, which necessarily involves the postponement or elimination of other types of established service expected by school officials of the United States or the general public? The answer involves analysis of the situation from two points of view: (1) Is the direction of educational surveys an essential service function of the Bureau of Education? (2) What definite results, if any, have come from such as have been made and may, therefore, be expected in the future, to justify continuation of this function?

The former involves a consideration of whether of not school systems desiring surveys can receive equivalent service at a cost and under conditions equally satisfactory elsewhere than from the bureau.

It is well known that there are certain services which the Federal bureau is the sole organization to render to the schools of the United States. In the survey field, however, numerous other organizations, such as the general education board, committees or groups subsidized by foundations or other types of funds, schools of education in both private and public higher institutions of learning, are engaged. These agencies render a high type of service and their work is of unquestioned merit.

Among the considerations which have placed the Bureau of Education in an advantageous position for conducting surveys, emphasized by school officials, two seem of special importance: (1) It is a Federal bureau with nation-wide interests and activities and has, by virtue of its position and opportunities for continuous study extending over a period of years, an unusually wide knowledge of school conditions in the several States as well as an unbiased and sympathetic attitude toward the relationship between local situations and school progress. It is thus enabled to analyze situations and to recommend constructive programs with the single consideration of the welfare of the system studied.

The relationship which the Bureau of Education bears to the several States—acting as a clearing house of information, rendering general advisory service, and cooperating in the promotion of the cause of education generally—is similar in many important respects to that of State departments of education to local systems within States and contributes to mutual confidence and cooperation.

(2) The expense of conducting extensive or intensive surveys is frequently a matter of moment to school systems needing such studies. Specialists in education acting for limited periods as consultants or as conductors of educational studies generally exact liberal fees for their services. The Bureau of Education places its staff at the disposal of State or other school officials without cost to them. It has an established organization which functions effectively in the collection and tabulation of statistical information collected in survey studies; a stenographic and clerical force trained in educational work; an editorial service experienced in the preparation and publication of manuscripts, and other similar advantages, all of which it can furnish without cost or at a very nominal one. A comparison of costs of bureau surveys with those conducted by other organizations offers ample evidence.

Judged from the point of view of opportunity for broad experience and understanding; of its equipment as a functioning organization for the purpose; of economy to the school system surveyed, the Bureau of Education appears to be especially well fitted for directing educational surveys. In a number of the systems surveyed in the past the cost of securing other organizations would probably have delayed or entirely prevented conduct of the survey had the services of the bureau been denied.

Judging results of surveys in terms of changed school policies and practices involves careful consideration. The policy of the Bureau of Education differs somewhat from that of other organizations in its attitude toward such "follow-up" service as systematically advocating recommendations made, converting school officials and the public to a favorable attitude to the policies recommended, etc., as is generally practiced by other organizations. The Bureau of Education undertakes educational surveys only when there is reasonable expectation that its recommendations will be adopted or carried out in so far as possible. It does

not, however, assume responsibility for converting either school officials or the public to the policies recommended, believing that to be the function of local and State officials. Such officials are free, therefore, to adopt or reject the policies recommended as they see fit. As a Federal organization it does not impose recommendations on State or local systems.

In general it is the policy in surveys made by the bureau to outline a long-term program which can not be and is not intended to be consummated immediately. Legislation, bond issues, etc., require usually a period of years for consummation. While it is expected that progress will be made in the right direction within a reasonable period, immediate results are not usually expected for the program as a whole.

Bearing in mind the foregoing as factors in analyzing results attained through educational surveys, and the further factor that many important educational results are intangible and difficult to evaluate in any objective way, the best available means of judging results appears to be reports furnished by the school officials in the systems surveyed. They are in touch with the situation and in a strategic position to judge. Because of time and expense involved if reports were collected through visiting the various school systems and interviewing officials distributed over the United States, involving State, county, city, and other types of local systems, it was decided to use for the purpose letters and reports directly from the officials in charge. Some of these were already at hand, others were received in response to requests sent out explaining the purpose and nature of the request and the use to which replies were to be put.

A study of these letters and reports seems to justify the following conclusions:

(1) Surveys made by the Bureau of Education have in all cases been accepted as worthy contributions to the educational welfare of the system studied by the school officials most interested.

(2) They have in practically every case furnished a systematic plan or program toward the accomplishment of which school officials have directed their efforts intelligently and systematically.

(3) In a large per cent of the systems surveyed the full program in its essentials has been or is being carried out as recommended. In others in which the achievement of the ultimate aim is still in the future, plans of school officials are being made with a view to fitting in progressive measures as achieved with the larger plan recommended in the survey.

(4) In practically all systems the survey study with its wealth of statistical information and comparisons among school systems has served as a basis which school officers have used to familiarize the people with the status of the local system and its place among other progressive systems in the United States. Such information is recognized as a valuable incentive to further progress.

(5) In a few systems, after a lapse of several years, sections or portions of the recommendations have been adopted which have been of special significance to school progress and which, while not directly traceable to any one cause, show, in the opinion of school officials, the influence of the survey study.

(6) Besides these results affecting the systems studied, Bureau of Education surveys have a wide circulation in the country at large. The demand for them usually exceeds the supply. They stimulate school officers elsewhere to study their own systems scientifically and statistically. As a result many receive, directly and indirectly, valuable suggestions for the revision of policies and practices.—*John J. Tigert.*

Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Workers at Grand Rapids

By ROBERTA HEMINGWAY

Junior Specialist in Kindergarten Education, Bureau of Education

THE thirty-fifth annual convention of the International Kindergarten Union in Grand Rapids, Mich., the week of April 16, brought together more than 2,000 educators—nearly 1,000 more than the number enrolled for any previous meeting of this organization.

Some who attended the convention had nursery schools as their special interest, others the kindergarten, and still others the primary grades. All were equally interested in presenting, discussing, or hearing about methods of teaching children from babyhood throughout the entire school life. The International Kindergarten Union has indeed outgrown its name and has become the international organization for childhood education. Continuity in educational experience was the central thought throughout the entire program.

In the regular meetings, the topics under consideration included supervision of teaching from the standpoint of the classroom teacher and the supervisor; nursery school and parental education; classroom activities of young children; significance of the beginnings of education; and opportunities for national and international cooperation in their relation to world fellowship through education.

The exhibit of commercial products and that of the work of children in the early elementary grades of the Grand Rapids schools gave helpful information to all who saw them. The children's exhibit featured units of activities. For example, one booth demonstrated work with farm life and showed how interrelated construction work, reading, number work, nature study, and other curriculum subjects are essential to the first-grade child's process of learning.

One morning was spent in visiting Grand Rapids schools. So well organized was this part of the program that each person might select the work he wished to see demonstrated, join a group interested in the same phase of teaching, and visit a designated school under the guidance of a group leader. Subjects for observation included social studies, oral language, health activities, and music and rhythms. The development of each of these subjects was followed by the group from the nursery school to the kindergarten and on into the first and second grades. The morning's observation was followed by valuable discussion directed by the group leader.

A regular feature of the International Kindergarten Union is the greeting brought by the "international" members from their several countries. This year three delegates from Cuba, Señoritas Rosa Trujillo, Catalina Fernandez de los Rios, and Dulce Maria de La Gandara, appointed by Dr. Alfredo M. Aguayo, Secretary of Education, brought greetings from the groups which they represented. Two of these ladies are members of the National Kindergarten Association of Cuba. Miss Annie Howe, for many years in charge of the Glory Kindergarten Training School of Japan, gave her greeting in the Japanese language and manner.

Memorial services, held for three distinguished kindergarten leaders, Annie Laws, Elizabeth Harrison, and Mary Boomer Page, were conducted inspiringly and with simple dignity in keeping with the character and life work of these women.

Delegates went home from the convention with wholesome satisfaction in the steps they have taken in line with the educational principles of nursery-kindergarten-primary education, as well as with eagerness to face new difficulties to be overcome.

A Design Project Based on the Study of Japanese Art

By L. BEATRICE CORKRAN
Teacher of Art, Wilmington (Del.) Public Schools

ALL ART is based on convention in the terms of which its meaning is expressed. If we would understand Japanese art we must accept its conventions—we must see with their eyes; its conventions shown in their color printing, metal work, carving, glazing, painting, lacquering, landscape gardening, and flower arrangement. And we must see their gay kimono-clad children at shuttlecock and battledore; or demurely kneeling beside a low bench in school writing with a brush; see them don their grotesque masks and flying drapery for an afternoon's entertainment; prostrating their "honorable" little bodies before a much prized kakemono; or visiting with their family at festival time the parks and gardens for which Japan is famous.

The Japanese alcove illustrated and described in SCHOOL LIFE of May, 1926, was the basis of a term's work culminating in a design problem, the fan. It consists of bowls and vases of Uno, Oribe, and Awaji ware, inlaid sword-guards, a cloisonné saucer, a gold incrusted tortoise-shell comb, a lacquered box, lengths of kimono cloth and figured towels, color prints, "Japanese Children"—a delightful story book, and a book of heraldic devices.

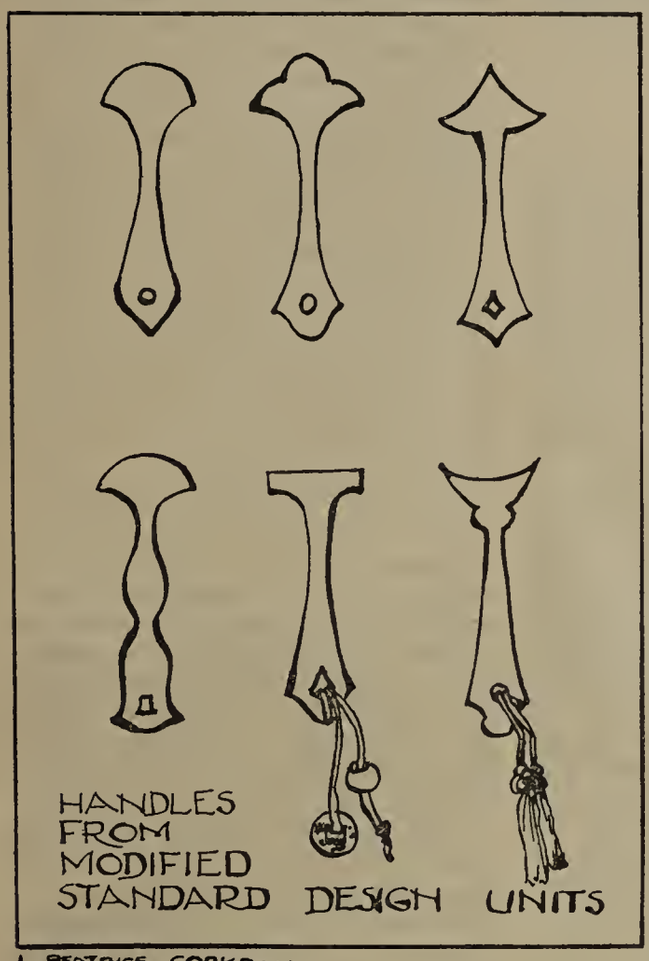
The two books and the sword guards were the only objects of immediate interest to the children (Grades I–VI). The other art was foreign indeed. Its points of excellence needed explaining, its history told before a desire for studying the objects was created.

Talks were given on each type of art as its specimen was considered; how the Japanese workmen seated on the floor hold tools with feet and hands; of their refined taste and love of natural forms in art; of their lack of haste in creating a lovely thing and their former lack of interest in quantity production. The sword guards' history, besides being a point of contact, was a delight to the boys. They more readily observed the hair-line chasing and relief designs in sword and tsuba when they knew of the unsurpassed skill in tempering of those steel blades. The pottery took on a new interest when they heard of the many martyrs to the secrets of glaze making; and how the "slip" is prepared and lies curing in damp rooms for a generation; how it was sifted through a silk sieve many times and run between magnets to draw out iron particles which when fired would melt and spoil the pottery.

Then questions began to come. "What is lacquer?" "What is cloisonne? It rings." "Why are there no glass and frames on Japanese pictures?" "Why are they painted on silk?"

Fans were selected for variety in shape and color

Books on Japanese fairy tales, games, and customs, flower festivals and holidays were put at the pupils' disposal. Stories of the tea plant's mystic origin and the quiet decorum of the tea ceremony were told to give an atmosphere in which they might work. Blue and white sake bowls and rice bowls with ivory chop sticks were arranged on a black and gold lacquered tray. We dramatized "The Tongue Cut Sparrow." Flower arrangement in the Japanese manner was discussed, using sprays of cherry blossoms in different bowls and vases.



We studied the rosette and diaper patterns on Satsuma and Willow Ware plates; the warm brown color and slightly crackled glaze, the prunus twigs and Satsuma emblem on the one; the natural arrangement of trees, temples, houses and people—though some parts were seen to be conventionalized—on the other. We noticed how skillful are the Japanese in creating rhythmic ornament without repetition of units.

When the period for object drawing came, every piece in the collection presented a challenge to some boy or girl in each grade.

Interesting, too, were pictures of the carved netsuke as worn by the men, and the lacquered inro, the medicine box, which it held within the sash; and things the Japanese children see: Rows of corner weighted votive lanterns, the Torii, the red lacquered bridge, the Nekko, the finely balanced, gold roofed temples stored with the art of centuries, and a terraced garden over which floats the soft reverberations of the deep-toned temple bell.

Silk lanterns, a silk kakemono and color prints exemplified the use of soft monochromatic color schemes; while six beautiful silk and feather fans illustrated brilliant color. And the service of the fan itself was discussed; the ceremonial fan, the fan carried by the Emperor; the holiday fan; the fan in the hand of the referee at a wrestling match, by the movement of which the sport was regulated and the winner decided.

Then every child of the 800 was to design a fan. Work was begun in lower grades with the study of standard forms, square, ellipse, circle, triangle and rectangle. These shapes were changed, and made more interesting, by truncating the corners and modifying the edges with convex or concave curves. Handles of all sorts were designed and added to the form most fitting. Their decorations must be authentic, must be adapted from the art objects before them, because "Reticence is the keynote of Japanese art, but what decoration there is is of exquisite quality." Much material was at hand, for the collection was augmented almost daily by librarians, women's clubs, and interested patrons. For comparison, a copy of a rare hexagonal Chinese vase of the Ming dynasty was loaned and its potter's mark in seal characters was a source of interest to all who saw it. Several children copied the blue and rose enamcled figures on their fans. Upper grade pupils drew the folding fan with ornamented sticks. We aimed at variety in color treatment as well as in design. So no two fans were alike. The fans photographed are a few showing the most intense color. The peacock motif in the upper fan was reduced in size from the drawing below, which was copied in water color from a rich silk embroidery scarf shown in the alcove on the cover page of SCHOOL LIFE of May, 1926.

If art appreciation is an emotional response to things beautiful, not only our project but our aim has been accomplished.

Meaning of Unfamiliar Words

Tsuba—sword guard with opening for three blades.

Kakemono—picture or painting on silk, lengthwise.

Slip—basic clay mixture for making pottery.

Netsuke—a carved or jeweled toggle worn as a weight on a card passed through the sash to prevent the inro and pipe and tobacco bag from slipping.

Inro—the medicine box or case.

Reference Material for Teaching the Project

Japanese Fairy Tales, Vols. I and II. Teresa P. Williston.

Japanese Twins. Lucy Fitch Perkins.

Little Journeys to Japan and China. George.

Japanese Paintings. Tokyo Printing Co.

Arts and Crafts of Old Japan. Stewart Dick.

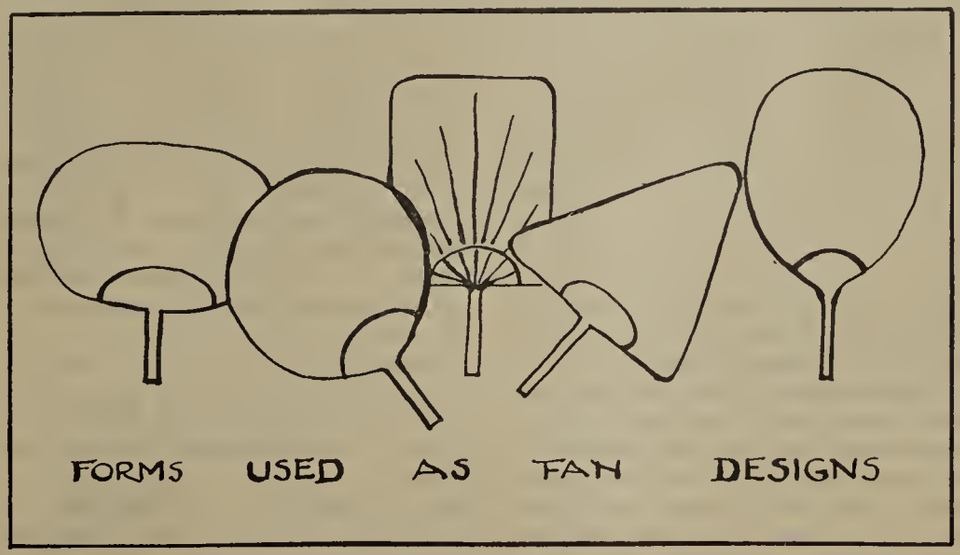
A B C of Japanese Art. J. F. Blacker.

Japan in Art and Industry. (Translation by E. M. Sheldon.) F. Regamey.

Arts of Japan. Edward Dillon.

Marks on Pottery and Porcelain. Chaffer.

History of Chinese Porcelain. Monkhouse.



Commission on International Implications of Education

Proceedings in Connection with World Conference on International Justice. Comprehensive Survey of Opportunities to Help the Peoples of the World to Know and Understand Each Other. Substance of Report to Plenary Session

By JAMES F. ABEL,
Secretary to the Commission

CONSIDERATION of a practical program of education for the promotion of international good will occupied the time and attention of the Commission on the International Implications of Education during its three sessions as a part of the World Conference on International Justice held at Cleveland, Ohio, May 7 to 11, to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the American Peace Society.

The Commission on Education, presided over by Dr. John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, was one of five groups selected by the American Peace Society to make intensive studies in the respective fields of commerce and industry, justice, education, religion, and the social agencies to ascertain how they may help toward better world relations. It held one session each for (*a*) the elementary, secondary, and normal schools, (*b*) institutions of university rank, and (*c*) education agencies allied to the schools.

Personnel Comprised Representative Men

The commission included in its personnel: Hon. John L. Clifton, Director of Education of Ohio; Miss Cornelia Adair, President of the National Education Association; Dr. William F. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Harry B. Wilson, Director of the Junior Red Cross; President George F. Zook, of Akron University, Ohio; Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs, President of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers; City Superintendent Robinson G. Jones, of Cleveland, Ohio; Donald M. Solandt, Associate General Manager of the United Church of Canada Publishing House; Prof. Herbert A. Miller of Ohio State University; Hon. Augustus O. Thomas, President of the World Federation of Education Association; Prof. Lawrence D. Egbert, University of Illinois; John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education; and James F. Abel, Associate Specialist in Foreign Education.

As the discussions took from the work of the commission turned into a rather comprehensive survey of the limitless opportunities offered in the educational world to help the peoples of the many nations to know and understand each other, and of the use that is now made of those opportunities. It developed actual activities of an amount and variety far beyond the belief of the uninitiated and surprising even to the experienced school men and women who made up the commission. Realizing that these efforts should be better known generally the commission expressed to the American Peace Society the hope that its proceedings would be printed and given wide distribution.

Instruction for promoting better international relations is now given largely through the media of other subjects in the curricula. It does not in itself generally constitute a separate and formal course. Formulating even broad outlines of a course, if one is desirable, is a task requiring much time and effort, a thorough knowledge of what is now done, and some scientific investigation of the actual results that are produced. Its details must depend on the conditions in the area where it is to be used. With these things in mind the commission did not attempt in the short time at its disposal to set up a formal course either in outline or in detail, but recommended to the Peace Society that a continuing survey of the educational activities looking toward better international relationships be carried on by the commission or some similar organization formed for that purpose.

Understanding Will Come Through Education

The commission reported to the final plenary session of the society, in part, as follows:

"The 25,000,000 children in the United States that are beng taught by 1,000,000 teachers will be in control of this Nation a few years hence, just as the children of other nations will then direct the affairs of their countries. The commission has faith that through education these future leaders of the world may bring the many people to a plane of understanding that will enable them to live harmoniously in the modern conception of society.

"Believing that the main cause of troubles among nations is ignorance of the varying conditions of life and thought in the different national entities, the session on elementary, secondary, and normal schools gave its chief attention to the opportunities offered through the teaching of geography, history, civics, literature, modern languages, music, and art, to develop in the students in each country an adequate understanding and appreciation of life in other countries. Many specific instances were presented of mutual interest in and good will toward children of other countries roused by well-directed and vitalized teaching of these subjects.

"Reports of research in the status of the social sciences in secondary and teacher-training schools to determine the natural social attitudes of children and the actual effect upon them of social-science instruction, were made to the session.

"The session suggests that in teacher-training institutions instruction be given to prospective teachers and teachers in service that they may have a clear concept of the need for common understanding among all peoples, and be prepared to bring their pupils to an appreciation of that need and of the ways and means to attain that understanding.

Universities Provide Wholesome Social Contacts

"At the session of institutions of university rank, the peculiar function of the university in the discovery and statement of fact and its advantages in the way of bringing together cosmopolitan groups of young people and providing wholesome social contacts for them, and in the exchange of lecturers, research workers, and students, were presented to and illustrated for the commission.

"The universities have done much toward the promotion of international good will through the work of their departments of history, economics, and sociology in searching out and setting forth the causes of international conflicts, and their effects on society.

"A suggested program for the future includes (1) giving to every student, in whatever course he may pursue, an opportunity to familiarize himself with the fields of history, economics, and sociology; (2) offering such courses not only to the college student but through extension work to the entire adult population that the people may have opportunities to keep constantly abreast of international affairs and to familiarize themselves with the trend of international events; (3) providing for vastly more interchange of lecturers and students, and affording teachers and professors of international relations ample opportunity to participate in the international conferences now frequently held; (4) permitting and encouraging extra curricular student activities, such as cosmopolitan clubs and international student organizations; and (5) making the most of the contributions to university life that may come from the different national groups among the students.

"At the session for agencies allied with the schools, the director of the Junior Red Cross recounted its activities in giving needed help to foreign children,

sending Christmas gifts, exchanging school work and magazines and the like.

"The president of the World Federation of Education Associations reported that the federation is a society for the advancement of learning and culture throughout the world and for bringing the educators of the world together for the consideration of educational movements in the different countries. It does not seek to promote movements that are already fostered by others, but to correlate them in a definite program for international good will, friendship and justice. The federation is a clearing house for making universally known the most beneficial results of any kind of education. It is now giving attention to special committees and commissions on the teaching of certain materials and their effects upon the life of the child. The results of the studies will be available as soon as the work is completed, probably about the time of the Geneva Convention, 1929.

Parent-Teacher Associations Promote Good Will

"The contribution of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers toward promoting good will among nations includes (1) interpreting the good will programs of the schools to the general public; (2) cooperating with the schools in carrying out their programs; (3) developing right social attitudes in the preschool child; (4) making the home a laboratory for working out good will projects instituted by the schools, the churches, and other agencies; (5) developing among the parents of all nations a united interest in the welfare of all children, and promoting a world-wide program of peace and good will through the international federation of home and school.

"The president of the National Education Association reports that at its annual convention in 1927, the association reaffirmed its oft-repeated pronouncement in favor of every legitimate means for promoting world peace and understanding. Through the local, State, and national groups affiliated or allied with it, every teacher in the Nation may be reached in a very short time with a constructive program for international good will."

More than a fourth of the entire student body of Harvard College during the session 1926–27 were aided financially in meeting their expenses. Of $200,200 disbursed for this purpose, $129,500 was expended in scholarships and "aids" to 386 students, $61,300 in loans to 442 students, and help from beneficiary funds amounting to $9,400 was given to 109 students. In the Graduate School of Liberal Arts and Sciences, scholarships and fellowships to the value of $71,225 were distributed to 145 students, and loans amounting to $8,159 were made to 85 students.

Alaskan Reindeer Meat Rich in Protein

To determine the value of Alaskan reindeer meat for food, samples have been officially tested recently for chemical composition and nutritive value. It was found to possess high protein, low fat, and comparatively low moisture. The test is valuable in connection with the commercial introduction into the United States of reindeer as an article of food, as well as for the information of Alaskan natives, for whom reindeer meat provides a staple article of food.

Two departments of the Government are cooperating in the study, and the analyses and experiments followed a meeting in Washington between representatives of several bureaus of the Department of Agriculture and a representative of the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, the governmental agency charged with the promotion of the reindeer industry in connection with the educational work among Alaskan natives. Further experiments will be conducted, and results of the completed study will be incorporated in a popular bulletin on the cooking of reindeer meat, similar to bulletins on the cooking of beef and lamb.

Honors for Healthy and Good Children

A "blue-ribbon book" is kept in the health department of Mansfield, Ohio, in which the names, photographs, and records of "blue-ribbon children" are registered. A child, to be eligible to wear a blue ribbon, must be mentally normal, free from physical defects, reasonably cooperative in the practice of health habits, and satisfactory in his behavior and attitude to school environment. This practice is the outgrowth of remedial work in connection with the institution of child-health examinations in schools, participation in which increased from 720 children in 1921–22 to 4,919 in 1924–25, and culminated in a parade on Child Health Day, 1926, of nearly 3,700 blue-ribbon children, who were reviewed by the governor and his staff, and the State director of health. An annual blue-ribbon health day has become a local institution, and the blue-ribbon children have become the county's chief pride.—*Glenn D. Rohleder, in Educational Research Bulletin.*

Cultural Courses by Extension Methods

Cultural courses in philosophy, social science, history, languages and literature, art, biological and physical science, psychology, and home economics will be offered this fall by the University of Wisconsin in afternoon and evening classes at the new university extension center in Milwaukee. The courses are considered an experiment in adult education, and if the demand warrants similar courses will be offered in other centers of the State. The purpose is to provide the foundation of a liberal education for those who desire it. Although the courses will be on a college or university plane and will be taught by competent instructors, they will carry no credit toward a degree; but for completion of 10 semester courses, consisting of 6 of the courses named and 4 from certain university credit or other specified courses, a certificate in liberal education will be awarded. Credit from other institutions possessed by students may be applied toward the requirements for a certificate. Persons working for a certificate will have special faculty advisers.

To Promote Acquaintance with Outdoor Activities

A summer "nature guide school" has been established in connection with the Senior Teachers College of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, and the Cleveland School of Education. It is located at Western Reserve Academy, Hudson, Ohio, at the northern end of the Alleghanies, and for six weeks students will have access to 31 acres of wooded campus and 500 acres of farmland and forest. The school is intended primarily for the professional training of teachers in public schools of Cleveland, but parents and other students, men and women, will be accepted. A faculty of 14 members and 7 visiting lecturers has been provided. For satisfactory completion of the work of the school credit will be allowed toward an Ohio State teacher's certificate, and toward the degree of bachelor in education. The purpose of the school is to promote acquaintance with nature, outdoor and farm activities, and handcraft. Training will fit students for positions as playground leaders, scout and campfire naturalists, nature counselors in summer camps, nature park guides, and related work.

At Masten Park High School, Buffalo, N. Y., a class of boys followed the State outline in home economics for the ninth year, and they claim the distinction of being the first boys' group to earn regents credits for such work. More than a hundred boys of Hutchinson Central High School devoted one term to the study of clothing, and another term to work in foods.

Determination of Objectives Involves More than Mere Job Analyses

Industrial Education Not Limited to Vocational Training. Majority of Pupils in Manual Industrial Courses Have No Specific Vocational Objectives. Instructional Content of Non-specialized Courses to be Determined by Analyses of Life Situations

By MARIS M. PROFFITT

Specialist in Industrial Education, Bureau of Education

THAT industrial education should have a place in the public-school program is generally accepted, and the value of such training is conceded on the basis of empirical evidence. The specific objectives that should be set up for certain types of industrial courses, however, are the subject of much discussion. There is a demand that these be more carefully determined by means of scientific studies involving accurate analyses of situations and by experimental work. The method of procedure for determining the objectives of industrial education should be the same that modern practice applies to curriculum construction in any field.

Must Create Abilities for Life Activities

The whole value of any subject in the school curriculum is in direct proportion to the contribution that it can make toward creating desirable abilities for life activities. The problem in industrial education is to determine what desirable abilities can be developed more successfully by means of industrial subjects than by any other subjects. When we seek the value of industrial education on the basis of this theory we are at once face to face with the real problem of determining just how such courses function in life situations. What things do we do, or should do, the preparation for which can be met best by a course in industrial education, constitutes the problem.

For some of the types of industrial courses this task will be simple and comparatively easy; for other types of courses the problem will be complex and comparatively difficult. For vocational industrial courses, either of a preparatory character for immediate employment in the specific trade on the completion of the course or a trade extension or related subject course for those already employed, the procedure is quite direct and the conclusion easily checked. The performance of a worker on an industrial job is the essential source of information. For example, a bricklayer has certain abilities in skill and knowledge which are sufficient to meet the demands of the job. From a job analysis of his work are selected those abilities which it is feasible to organize into a course of instruction. This constitutes an immediate vocational objective. Trade abilities are the criteria for the objective.

Some schools, especially technical high schools, organize courses not on the basis of definite preparation for immediate entrance upon specific trade employment but upon the basis of ultimate employment in industrial work or in some related line. Such courses emphasize technical information and offer some shop practice in various lines. The objectives for such courses usually include some of the following: General foundational training for industrial work; propædeutic training for technical and engineering courses; training for jobs on a semitechnical or semiengineering level; foundational training for minor executive positions; training to help the individual to make adjustments to skilled and technical jobs when he enters upon employment; training to aid the individual to secure higher levels of work after entering employment.

Evaluation of Objectives Is Difficult

The evaluation of such objectives is much more difficult than is the determination of the immediate vocational objective. Whatever value such courses may have for vocational education, they are not so immediate and specific. It is difficult to find definite criteria for them. Usually considerable time elapses before the individual is employed on a vocational level where the value of his training can be definitely checked. In the meantime many other factors have entered into his experiences which complicate matters and make it difficult to differentiate between the abilities he has as a result of his school training and some other causes. In any situation the objective is only a mediate vocational objective.

There is still another objective, one which includes the majority of the pupils in manual-industrial types of courses and which is without any definite or specific vocational objectives. The usual aims set up for the junior high-school courses coming under this objective include exploratory training, opportunities for creative self-expression in media of concrete materials, developmental experience, industrial intelligence, and prevocational training.

Other types of courses included under the nonvocational objective, some at least of which are in the senior high school, have for their aim the training of consumers in the intelligent use and care of industrial products and services. For example, the home-mechanics courses or general mechanics courses offer training in the repair and maintenance of many articles about the home which necessitates some skill in the use of tools and some mechanical knowledge and industrial intelligence. These courses are for training in nonspecialized types of activities of a mechanical nature which will be performed anyway by the great majority of people and which training will help them to perform better. A course in auto mechanics organized definitely for car owners and drivers is another example of a course coming under the nonvocational objective.

The objectives for these nonspecialized types of courses and the instructional content for such courses are to be determined from analyses of life situations which will reveal the abilities in skill and knowledge that should be developed. This is a much more difficult problem than it is to determine the immediate vocational objectives, as the activities are so varied and in addition include such varying degrees of skill that the selection of criteria which will be generally acceptable constitutes a curriculum problem of the first magnitude.

And Now Librarians Have a Study Tour

A bibliographical personally conducted tour and pilgrimage, including visits to important book and library centers in Europe, has been planned for this summer under the direction of the librarian of Northwestern University. A woman librarian will accompany the party as counselor of women. On the outward trip daily talks on books and libraries will be made, and in the different European cities addresses in English will be given by representative librarians and booksellers. Noted libraries in Rome will be visited, as well as libraries in other Italian cities, in Paris, in Geneva, and cities in Germany, Belgium, Holland, and England.

Two courses dealing with problems encountered in work with children suffering from permanently defective vision will be offered this summer at the University of Chicago. They have to do with administrative, pedagogical, and ocular problems, and are the first of an advanced series to be given by the school of education and the medical school, intended primarily for graduate students having previous training in this field.

How Home Economics Functions In the Homes of Tulsa, Okla.

A Unit of the Sixth-Grade Instruction is the Making of a Dressing Table. Materials are Inexpensive but the Result is an Attractive Piece of Furniture. Girls Show Extraordinary Interest in the Work, and Their Mothers are Enthusiastic

By ETHEL BROOKS

Teacher of Home Economics, Lowell Junior High School, Tulsa, Okla.

WHEN it was decided to introduce a course in housekeeping into the sixth grade of some of the Tulsa schools, we began to analyze the situation to find out what were the most crying needs. The two schools where such courses are offered are in parts of the city where the population is more or less transient, homes very small, finances low, and comforts few, with the usual attending unattractiveness in surroundings. Before much of an appeal could be made to the girl to interest her in housekeeping, the problem had to be brought down to her own individual needs.

We found that few girls had any attractive or convenient place to keep their own personal belongings, such as underwear, hose, handkerchiefs, ties, beads, comb and brush, etc. These things were usually kept in a box, a suitcase, or the top of a trunk—or perhaps no place in particular. In order to give meaning to our teaching of the rule, "A place for everything and everything in its place," and to interest the girls in increasing the attractiveness of their homes at small cost, we decided to teach them how to make a dressing table from an orange box or two, how to paint it, and how to make it attractive with dainty cretonne curtains. The curtains are the only real expense, for usually there are enough nails and paint around the home to be used for this.

The accompanying illustration shows the materials needed—two orange boxes, a board or two about three feet long for the top, and material for an extra shelf. The orange boxes are set on end. Pieces of board are sawed to make an extra shelf and nailed in place. The boards for the top are placed so that the ends are flush with the outside edges of the boxes, and nailed.

Add Braces if Needed for Strength

If the table does not seem substantial enough, a piece about 1 inch by 2 inches may be nailed between the boxes at the bottom to serve as a brace. We have done that on several of the tables, but it is not shown in the picture. If orange boxes are scarce, or if a girl does not care for so much room in her dressing table, one box may be used by sawing it in two lengthwise. The open sides are then closed with thin boards from other pack-

A dressing table complete and installed in the room of one of the makers

ing boxes and the extra shelf is adjusted. The effect is the same as if two boxes had been used.

The table shown in the picture where the girls are painting was made this way. After the table is made it is sandpapered to remove the rough places which might catch threads of clothing. Then the painting is done. A soft green makes a very attractive table, although almost any neutral color may be used, for practically the whole table is covered when finished. The function of the paint is not so much to add attractiveness as to make the wood smoother and easier to keep clean.

Harmonizing Colors for Attractiveness

Finally, the curtains are made. Three lengths of cretonne requiring two and two-third yards in all is enough. They are finished with a heading and casing at the top, and a two-inch hem at the bottom. Those shown in the picture are finished at the top with a ruffle of material matching the predominating color in the cretonne. A spring-rod obtained at the 10-cent store for 5 cents is inserted through the casing, stretched around the table and tacked in place. A tack is also placed at each corner and in the center to keep the curtain from slipping or sagging.

The curtain is adjusted so that the divisions between the three widths come in the center of the shelves if the table is made of two full sized orange boxes, or at the inner edge of the shelves if made of one box cut in two. After the spring rod has been stretched, the curtains do not slide well on it; therefore, they must be adjusted so as to make the shelves easily accessible. For a scarf, a piece of the cretonne bound around with matching bias tape is attractive, or a piece of unbleached muslin trimmed in bands of the cretonne may be used.

Girls Enjoy Beautiful Creations

The girls have reacted to this piece of work wonderfully, being thrilled with every step of it. It apparently satisfies their desire to use hammer, saw, and paint brush, and when they see something beautiful as well as useful emerging from their efforts they are quite happy. Two or three tables are usually made in the class, thus giving each girl an opportunity to work at various phases of the problem. The owners can scarcely wait to take them home to show to their mothers and to begin using them.

The cost depends on the quality of cretonne used. We have made some tables at a cost of but 65 cents. More attractive ones cost about $1.50, that being the cost of the one shown in the picture. When the problem is presented in the class, announcement is made that we shall make two or three of the tables and if any of the girls wish to bring materials, we will make the tables in class for them. There is always an enthusiastic response, and to settle the matter the teacher has to say that the first three girls to bring materials will be the lucky ones. There is no delay, and materials are on hand at once.

Interest in Project Does Not Wane

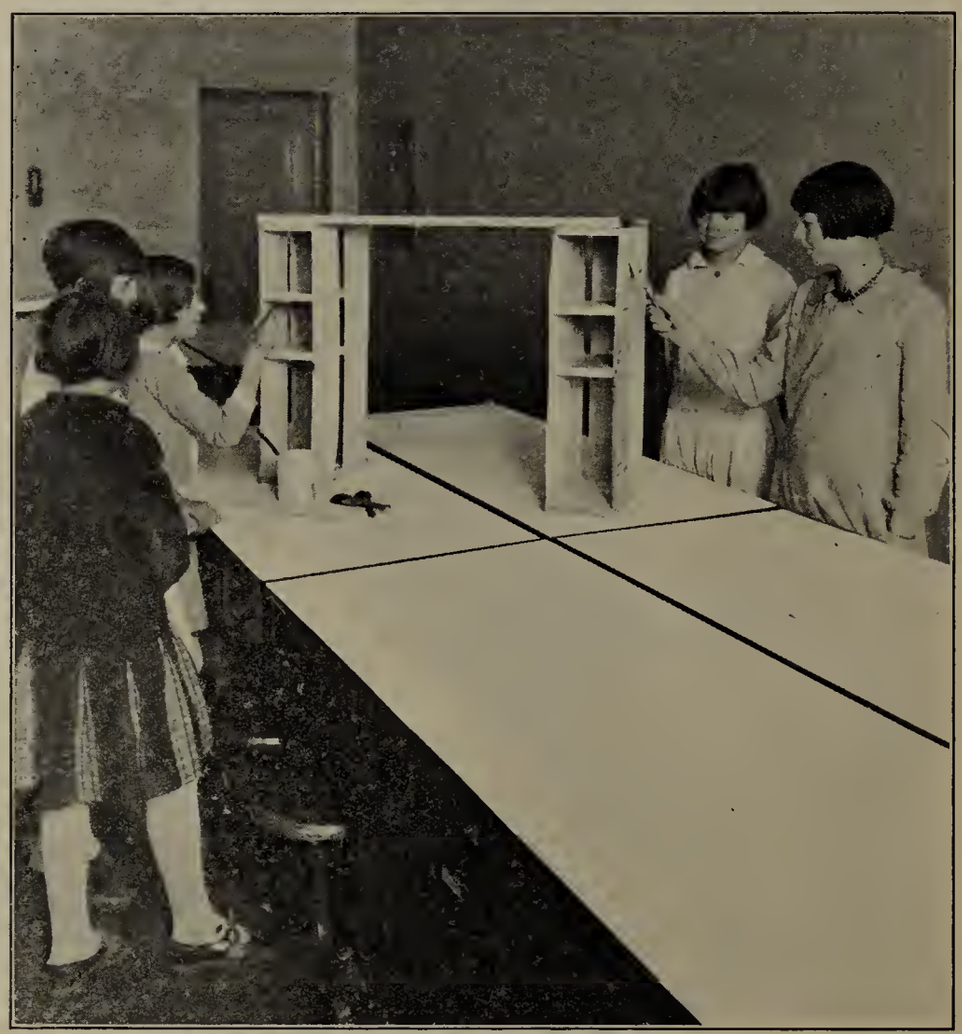
Mothers have been much interested in this project; at exhibits this dressing table has drawn much enthusiastic interest and many inquiries from mothers, and we are constantly answering questions about how it is made from pupils in other classes who see it in the room, and from mothers who see it in use in other homes. The Mother's Club as a whole made a visit to the classroom one day to see a finished table and were much pleased with its attractiveness and usefulness. The problem does not seem to become old, due partly, we think, to the changing population in the community and partly to the fact that we have not been teaching it long enough to supply all the homes with dressing tables.

This is only a single unit of our course in house-keeping, but it illustrates the effort we are making to meet a need as we found it in our community.

Courses for Coaches at Ohio State University

Several intensive two-weeks credit courses in athletic coaching, for college and secondary-school coaches, are announced for the summer quarter of Ohio State University, college of education. All courses are supervised and are conducted by varsity-sports coaches. They include lectures, discussions, demonstrations, and advanced technique. Previous coaching experience is desirable but is not required. Among noncredit courses, offered as part of the recreational program, are a summer baseball class under the direction of an assistant varsity baseball coach; and a two-weeks course in athletic officiating, designed to meet the need for more competent officials for football, basketball, baseball, and track contests.

An increase of 12,447 over last year's circulation of 300,000 books among blind persons in the United States is reported to the American Library Association by 24 libraries. With few exceptions libraries for the blind serve adjacent States, and books not obtainable elsewhere are sent to readers in any locality.



The enthusiasm of each new class is equal to that of its predecessor

Michigan Law Provides for Crippled Children

A clinic for crippled children will be neld hereafter at least once a ycar in every county in Michigan, according to recent enactment of the Michigan Legislature providing for thc same gencral care for crippled children as is now given deaf, dumb, blind, or other unfortunate children. At such clinics all crippled children will be given careful surgical examination, and provision is made for use of public funds for treatment whencver parents or guardians are not able to provide proper carc. A State commission will be created, the activities of which will be closely correlated with work of the Michigan Society for Crippled Children and similar voluntary State organizations. It is expected that the initial registration, to be made in May, will discover the number and location of crippled children of the State who are in need of assistance.

A State-Wide Teachers' Retirement System for Every State

Majority of States Have General Retirement Laws and Some Have Laws Applying to Certain Localities. Not for Benefit of Teachers Only, but Primarily to Increase Efficiency of the Schools

By E. RUTH PYRTLE

Chairman Committee of National Education Association on Teachers' Retirement Allowances

EVERY State in our Union should have a teachers' retirement system that is actuarily sound, supported by both the public and the teachers. Twenty-two States and the District of Columbia have state-wide laws, and 11 other States have laws applying to certain cities only. Some of these retirement systems are most satisfactory, but some States are working to revise and strengthen their laws.

The teachers of the States having good retirement laws can do much to help bring about the enactment of a sound law in the 16 States now working for such legislation.

What can you do?

Use your influence, as a member of our great profession, as a voting citizen, in season and out of season, to encourage the taxpaying public to see that good retirement systems make for better efficiency in the schools.

The teacher working under a good retirement system knows that a sound retirement law attracts and holds capable young people in the profession, that it gives a better guaranty of promotion within the profession because of the retirement of teachers at reasonable age.

The fortunate teacher under a good state-wide retirement law realizes that the efficiency of the teacher is increased because it lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving her mind of the fear of destitute old age; and she knows that a good retirement law makes it possible for the teacher to invest in study, training, and travel without endangering the provision made for her old age.

When the teaching profession and the rest of the taxpayers in the States having no retirement laws are made aware of this, retirement legislation will naturally be cnacted. Provision should be made for reciprocal relations between States with retirement systems. It should be possible for a teacher to render teaching services anywhere in the United States or its Territories without being penalized by a reduced allowance upon retirement. This will be possible when all the States have sound retirement laws.

Orange hoxes covered with figured cretonne—but a thing of beauty

Faculty advisers to girls, women teachers whose time is devoted wholly or in part to the counseling of girl students, have been appointed in 22 of the 70 large high schools in Wisconsin. Work of such "school mothers" is handicapped in most cases by the fact that heavy teaching loads make their advisory work secondary, and allow little time for vocational guidance and follow-up work.

School Grounds Bear an Important Part in the School Program

Irregularities Should Be Remedied and Obstructions Removed. Drainage Lines Required in Low and Soggy Grounds. Bermuda Grass, Well Established, Makes Excellent Surface. Limestone Screenings Usually Satisfactory

By HENRY S. CURTIS, M. D.

Director of Hygiene and Physical Education for Missouri

UNDER earlier conditions the school ground was not regarded as a part of the school plant, but merely as a setting for the school building. Consequently, the architect was left free in its planning, and he always placed the building if possible, at the head of a street and usually at the back of the lot. The school board then parked the ground in front, if they had the money, and planted trees at the back and sides. There was no attempt to differentiate the use of school grounds from the grounds of a court house or other public building.

Physical Education Largely Out of Doors

To-day with physical education a part of the program in 35 to 40 States, and with the larger part of the work being taken on the outside instead of inside, the school ground becomes a part of the school equipment and has to be improved and used in connection with the program of the school.

Perhaps the greatest shortcoming in the past has been that many of the older schools were located on hilltops. Very little can be done on a hillside. It can not be used for baseball, basket ball, volley ball, or tennis; it can not be used for running or any of the activities for which State programs provide.

At nearly all modern schools the ground is made level at the time the school is built. Not only is a hillside or uneven ground unsuitable for physical education, but it "gullies" during rains, and soon becomes a dangerous place to run over.

Remove Projecting Stones and Stumps

Besides the unevenness there are often, however, many other obstacles on the school grounds. In some cases stones project above the surface, offering serious injury to bare feet and causing stumbling to shod ones. Stumps of old trees sometimes stand in the middle of playgrounds, where they are as much in the way as though they were in the middle of the street. Old trees have sometimes been cut down and left where they fell. Cement slabs are sometimes left about wells and cisterns which were long ago abandoned, and walks sometimes lead to old outdoor toilets although indoor toilets have long ago been established. Obviously all of these should be removed.

Even where the ground has been put into condition once, it will always require care in order to remain so. Brickbats and stones are thrown upon the ground or brought in for bases or other purposes, and ashes are constantly collecting. There should be at least a weekly clean-up at all school grounds in order to keep them in condition.

Motor Vehicles Out of Place Here

Many grounds have been cut up by trucks hauling in coal and by automobiles driving in after rains. There should be a surfaced road by which the coal can be brought to the building and a definite path for trucks to follow. Automobiles should be kept off the grounds. Automobiles cut up the ground to such an extent as to interfere seriously with play, even after they are gone.

Arbor Day has been a calamity at many schools as the trees have been planted in such places as to prevent any proper use of grounds. I am a great admirer of trees, but I do not care for a tree in the middle of a baseball diamond or a tennis court.

After the ground has been leveled, if it is soggy and more or less low, lines of tile should be run through at a distance of about 16 feet from each other. If the ground is sandy or loamy and high, this drainage may not be required.

If the ground is small and used by many children, it is usually necessary to surface a part of it, or to plant it to some wear-resisting grass.

In the southern part of Missouri, and in most of the States farther south, if Bermuda grass can be once started it will stand the most strenuous use. It has an underground stem and sprouts up from every joint. I have seen high schools with small grounds which still maintain this grass although used nearly all the time. Next to Bermuda, and in places where Bermuda will not grow, June grass or blue grass is probably best.

Make Provision for Wet Weather

In nearly all high and elementary schools a portion of the ground should be surfaced in order that it may be used in wet weather when otherwise the children could not get out of doors. Many different forms of surfacing are used. Many of the old city schools have brick yards. Brick is very hard to run on, wears out balls and other equipment rapidly, and is very slippery in frosty weather. Concrete is better than brick, but is still very unsatisfactory. It is tiring to run upon, and a fall upon it is apt to mean a serious hurt. In some places a surface is manufactured by mixing sand, ashes, and clay in a concrete mixer. This gives a fairly satisfactory surface where the ground is high; but the surfaces most commonly used are torpedo gravel, a fine water-washed gravel about one-eighth of an inch in diameter, chat, or limestone screenings. Limestone screenings are better than chat for the reason that they stick together and do not pick up on the feet to be carried into the school building. Recently some of the schools have been using rock asphalt crushed and screened; but it is yet too early to know whether or not this is going to prove satisfactory.

Increasing Use of Welsh Language in Instruction

Elementary schools in Cardiganshire, Wales, will hereafter be taught only in the Welsh language. The last English-speaking teacher serving in an elementary school in the county has resigned, and hereafter no teacher will be appointed who can not teach in Welsh. This is the outcome of a popular movement in Wales, fostered by the Federation of Welsh Education Committees and other organizations, for the teaching of Welsh in schools of Wales by Welsh teachers as far as possible.

Welsh has become the language of instruction in most infant schools of Caernarvonshire, and its use in senior departments of elementary schools is increasing. In Glamorganshire a rule was passed in 1923 that in five years only teachers qualified to teach Welsh should be employed in elementary schools of the county. Vacation courses and special classes, in the meantime, were organized throughout the county, and it is now proposed to enforce the requirement, beginning January 1, 1929. Notwithstanding the cooperation of Welsh training colleges, local school authorities have difficulty in obtaining competent teachers able to teach Welsh and to give instruction in that language.

Under the single salary schedule recently adopted for schools of Seattle, Wash., the maximum for teachers possessing the bachelor's degree was increased from $2,400 to $2,700. The annual increment was raised from $60 to $100, and the number of increments was reduced from 11 to 8.

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ALL OF NATURE BECKONS YOU

To the Boys and Girls

LL OUT-OF-DOORS invites you. Go! Songs of the birds awaken you early in the morning. Animals of the field and forest stop to look or listen for an instant as they dart across your path. Trees, plants, and flowers bud and blossom as you watch them. Berries, fruits, and nuts ripen in rapid succession. Everything is beautiful. Plants, shrubs, and trees appear in their seasonal color schemes, and the green grass and the foliage sparkle with bright and vivid specks of color as tiny insects and beautiful butterflies flutter in and out among the fragrant blossoms.

With all this beauty and abundance of plant and animal life about you, what do you really know about it? Can you name the birds by song or plumage, the plants by seed or blossom, the trees by bark or leaf, the animals by their call, the insects by their chirp?

Go with your father whenever he has occasion to walk or drive across the fields, through the meadow, or into the wood lot. New and interesting things are always to be seen and many questions must be asked. Carry pencil and paper in your pocket. Write down the names of all the birds, trees, plants, and animals that your father can name. You will be surprised that he knows so many, and you will enjoy the interesting things that he can tell you.

Find out all you can about some bird with which you are already familiar, such as the robin or the wren. Watch it closely and systematically, and make a record of all you see. Describe first the bird and its plumage, and then record all you learn of its habits—where and how it builds its nest; what it eats and in what quantity; how it rears its young; how it teaches the young birds to fly—and everything else that you observe. Learn to know at least two new birds by sight, song, and habit of living.

Know the plant life of your neighborhood. Identify at least two new trees, flowers, shrubs, weeds, or vines. Jot down in your notebook the name of each plant; the place where it grew, whether near the brook, in the marsh, or in the shady woods. Make a careful sketch of the blossom.

Find out all you can about some wild animal. Observe its size, color; note where it lives and what it eats. Jot down all the interesting facts that you can learn about it. Get better acquainted with at least three animals of field or forest.

Find out more about insect life. Learn the names and habits of two or more insects new to you. Make a note of the coloring of each insect, the places it frequents, and the type of food upon which it lives.

Enjoy the beauty of form and color of sky and land. Watch the sky for pretty cloud forms. Note particularly the rapidly changing hues of color at sunrise, sunset, or just preceding and following a storm. Observe how the soft grays creep down over field, woods, and water at dusk. If you are fortunate enough to live near a lake or any body of water, enjoy the reflections of the shifting colors. Notice particularly how the shadows add to the beauty of the entire scene.

Carry a pencil and paper on your jaunts through the woods and fields. You will always find something worthy of record. Sometimes a sketch of the shape, size, and color of bird or insect will help you to identify it later. You may want to make a note of a question which you wish to ask your parents or look up in some book when you have an opportunity.

If you have crayon or water colors, try to copy some of the most beautiful colorings of sky, bird, or insect. You will often find it necessary to blend two or more colors to get the right hue or tone, and you may be surprised to find that the colors which you least expected to use may give just the tint or shade you desire.

If you have a field glass you can often get a good view of the size, shape, or color of a bird perched upon a distant tree. With a microscope you can examine the structure of an insect at close range. Should you possess a kodak you will find interesting experiences in trying to catch pictures of birds or butterflies.

Try to tell what the songs of birds, the humming of insects, the lapping of water, or the changing colors of sky and landscape at dawn or at sunset, or the changes in nature from season to season mean to you. Describe the beauty of form, of color, or of song, or explain its meaning in prose, if you wish, or you may find that you can tell it better in poetry. Whatever form you use try to say it so that those who read it will feel the beauty as you saw it.

On a rainy day you will enjoy modeling or carving. The cat, the dog, a lamb, and a colt, among other things, make interesting studies. A box of clay, a few bars of soap, soft chunks of wood, are the best materials with which to work. If you do not have commercial clay you may find some good clay soil somewhere on the farm. Perhaps if you sift it through a fine screen to remove small grains of sand you will have excellent modeling clay.

If you have a workbench and the necessary tools you can make many useful and interesting things. A bird bath and fountain will attract the birds. Both may be built of cement. By careful planning they can be made very attractive. Make a small model of soft pine or clay before you build the form which you expect to use. See what beautiful lines and what good proportions you can get. Bird houses can be built in beautiful rustic designs and if well placed will increase the attractiveness of the yard.

Camp chairs and benches add much to the convenience and pleasure of out-of-door living. They can be made from saplings, boards, and strips of heavy canvas. Attractive baskets in which to carry food and the dishes necessary for an out-of-door picnic may be made from native willows, rushes, and grasses. A fireless cooker, tripods on which to hang kettles over the campfire, and an outdoor oven complete the essential equipment. With such a camping outfit it will not be difficult to persuade your mother to share the out-of-doors with you.

Keep a diary of your summer outings. Write brief accounts of the most interesting experiences. They will add much to your fund of information. Upon your return to school in the fall compare notes with other boys and girls. Perhaps you will find that you have learned much in common but that other boys and girls have recorded some very interesting things which you failed to see. That will stimulate you to observe more carefully next summer.—*Mina M. Langvick, Specialist in Rural School Curriculum, Bureau of Education.*

THE WORLD DEMANDS ACCURACY THAT IS WELL-NIGH COMPLETE

TWO GREAT TESTS in mental discipline are accuracy and honesty. It is far better to master a few subjects thoroughly than to have a mass of generalizations about many subjects. The world will have little use for those who are right only a part of the time. Whatever may be the standards of the classroom, practical life will require something more than 60 per cent or 70 per cent for a passing mark. The standards of the world are not like those set by the faculty, but more closely resemble those set by the student body themselves. They are not at all content with a member of the musical organizations who can strike only 90 per cent of the notes. They do not tolerate the man on the diamond who catches only 80 per cent of the balls. The standards which the student body set are high. They want accuracy that is well-nigh complete. They apply the same standards to candor and honesty. Bluff and pretense may be permitted in the classroom; but in their relations with each other students regard such practices with contempt, and those who resort to them are properly considered to be cheap. They may be willing to view with considerable tolerance those who break the rules of the school, but they will not fail to mete out condemnation and penalty on those who break the rules of training. When the world holds its examinations it will require the same standards of accuracy and honesty which student bodies impose upon themselves. Unless the mind is brought under such training and discipline as will enable it to acquire these standards at an early period, the grave danger increases that they may never be acquired.

President Coolidge
in his address at the One Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of Phillips Academy Andover, Mass., May 19, 1928

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