10-1-1930

The Techne, Vol. 14, No. 1: State Manual Training Normal

State Manual Training Normal School

THE TECHNE

Life without Labor is a Crime, Labor without Art and the Amenities of Life is Brutality.—Ruskin.

Vol. XIV. SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER, 1930 No. 1

You'll find that education is about the only thing lying around loose in this world, and that it's about the only thing that a fellow can have as much of as he's willing to haul away. Everything else is screwed down tight and the screwdriver is lost.

—George Horace Lorimer.

PUBLISHED BY
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
PITTSBURG, KANSAS

THE TECHNE

Published by the Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg
Pittsburg, Kansas
W. A. Brandenburg, President

Vol. XIV. SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER, 1930 No. 1

The Techne publishes, for the most part, papers on educational subjects, though articles on closely related fields are also used. Part of these papers set forth the results of research; others aim at interpretation of current developments. Though some of the discussions will interest the specialist, it is hoped that in every number there will be something useful for the average teacher.

The Techne is sent free to alumni, teachers, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

Entered as second-class matter December 13, 1917, at post office of Pittsburg, Kansas, under the act of August 24, 1912. Published five times a year—in October, December, February, April and June.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

OBSERVATIONS ON NORMAL TRAINING

By T. E. Osborn, Kansas State High School Supervisor

Nineteen states offer teacher-training courses in the high schools, and in 1928-1929 there were 1500 classes with 21,316 students enrolled and 12,637 who received certificates. In comparison with 1922-1923, these figures show a loss of 13.94 per cent in number of classes; 35.45 per cent in number of students enrolled; and 30.32 per cent in number of certificates granted. Five of the 19 states—Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Missouri, and North Dakota—have 72.3 per cent of the total number of normal training departments. Six states—Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee, and Virgina—have dropped the course since 1920, and West Virginia is discontinuing it this year. Four states—Georgia, Kansas, North Dakota, and South Dakota—are discouraging the work by refusing state aid. Fifteen states still pay a part or all of the expense of the course. Michigan gives each school $3,000, Minnesota gives $2,190, and Wisconsin gives $10,066 per year.

Seven of the nineteen states offer the course as a fifth year; five give it in the fourth year of high school; and in seven the work is begun at the end of the sophomore year.

Another matter of importance is that of the qualifications of instructors. Fourteen of the nineteen states require a bachelor's degree; eleven require at least two years' experience, which may or may not be in a rural school; eleven require rural experience; Iowa and Wisconsin require five years' experience; New York and North Carolina require at least three years' experience in rural schools; and Minnesota calls for two years' experience in the rural schools. Seventeen of the nineteen states require special instructors for this work. In some of the states the county superintendents give very material assistance to instructors, such as visiting classes, selecting students, placing the graduates, arranging schedules for visitation in rural school, etc. In six states a state supervisor gives full time to the work, and in all others only a part of his time is given.

The normal-training course has been in operation in Kansas since 1910. During the twenty years, 37,499 high school graduates have taken the examination, and 28,362 have been granted certificates to teach in the elementary schools of the state. Of those who took the examination, 9,127 or 24.4 per cent failed. That is to say, 756 out of every 1000 received certificates and 244 did not.

It is, therefore, seen that the normal-training schools of the state have produced on average of 1,418 new teachers annually in Kansas for the past twenty years. These new teachers come very largely from the rural districts and return to them for the first several years of experience. They are familiar with rural life and sympathetic with rural people. They are, therefore, more likely to be successful than others who do not have this view-point. The county superintendents under whom they teach know how well they have succeeded.

One who is well informed on the matter of teacher training must admit, of course, that the training which has been given is meagre and

inadequate. Yet how much better trained they are than many of us were when we began with the county certificate! It could not be expected of the schools to turn out highly trained teachers when less than one year is devoted to the professional courses.

The work of preparing the normal-training graduates for teaching could be better done if it were possible to obtain better instructors. The number of outstanding normal-training teachers in the state is small—perhaps does not exceed twenty-five. There are some ex-county superintendents who are among the best normal-training teachers of the state. Their experience especially prepares them to train the teachers for the rural schools. A teacher of the normal-training classes should be one of the most highly-educated teachers in the school, and besides this, should have the proper attitude toward rural problems.

In order to determine the extent to which the teachers holding normal-training certificates are serving the state, the statistics found on page 19 of the county superintendents' report for 1929-30 were totaled for the whole state as follows:

ALL CERTIFICATES

Total number teachers in elementary schools under supervision of county superintendents	10,824
Total number teachers holding state certificates	3,162
Total number teachers holding normal-training certificates	3,932
Total number teachers holding county certificates	3,730
Per cent of state certificates	29.2
Per cent of normal-training certificates	36.3
Per cent of county certificates	34.5
Number of teachers in one-teacher schools	7,184
Number of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools	3,640

STATE CERTIFICATES

Number of teachers in one-teacher schools holding state certificates of some kind	1,378
Per cent of teachers in one-teacher schools holding state certificates	19.1
Number of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding state certificates	1,789
Per cent of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding state certificates	49.1

NORMAL-TRAINING CERTIFICATES

Number of teachers in one-teacher schools holding normal-training certificates	3,144
Per cent of teachers in one-teacher schools holding normal-training certificates	43.8
Number of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding normal-training certificates	788.
Per cent of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding normal-training certificates	21.8

COUNTY CERTIFICATES

Number of teachers in one-teacher schools holding county certificates	2,667
Per cent of teachers in one-teacher schools holding county certificates	37.1
Number of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding county certificates	1,063
Per cent of teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools holding county certificates	29.1

The number of normal-training students and also the number of schools offering the work have been decreasing since 1925, when state

aid was refused. This fact is shown by the following figures for the three years I have had charge of the work in the state:

	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31
Number schools offering Normal Training	185	153	129	113
Number students taking examination	1,529	1,215	993	
Number failures	228	195	217	
Per cent of failures	15	16	22	
Number students enrolled				976
Number counties without Normal Training			41	
Number counties with one N. T. school			34	
Number counties with two N. T. schools			13	
Number counties with three N. T. schools			8	
Number counties with four N. T. schools			5	
Number counties with five N. T. schools			3	
Number counties with nine N. T. schools			1	

It is interesting to know what types of schools are now performing the function of teacher-training schools of the state. The following figures show how many high schools of the different types are offering normal training:

Number first-class cities offering N. T.	1
Number second-class cities offering N. T.	17
Number community high schools offering N. T.	12
Number third-class cities offering N. T.	53
Number rural high schools offering N. T.	41
Number private high schools offering N. T.	3

This shows that most of the normal-training students come from the small third-class city and rural high schools. These are situated in the rural communities where their graduates must secure schools.

CONCLUSIONS FROM THIS STUDY

1. The normal-training high schools are still serving a very important place in training teachers for the rural and elementary grade schools under the supervision of the county superintendents. More than one-third of these teachers hold normal-training certificates.

2. The number of state certificates held by rural and graded school teachers in the state is increasing, and the number of county certificates is decreasing.

3. The efficiency of the normal-training work in high schools depends very largely upon the experience, training, and attitude of the instructor in charge. Wherever this work is put into the hands of an inexperienced instructor, it proves disastrous to the students who take the course. Requirements for approval of instructors of normal-training classes should be increased. Five years of experience would be better than two. The high schools that are unable to secure properly qualified teachers with broad experience are advised not to offer the course.

4. Each county superintendent should be interested in the normal-training work. High school boards should be urged to employ only efficient normal-training instructors. The county superintendent should co-operate with these instructors in giving classes an opportunity to visit and observe the best rural schools in the county. The county superintendent should also cultivate the acquaintance of the normal-training students and give such encouragement and instructions as may be necessary in placing them in the schools where they will be most likely to succeed.

THE PREDICTION OF COLLEGE MARKS AND TEACHING SUCCESS

An abstract of a masters thesis, written by James W. Evans and directed by Dr. Ralph A. Fritz, K. S. T. C., Pittsburg, 1930. Mr. Evans is now an instructor in Graceland College, Lamoni, Iowa.

Can standard tests be used to predict a student's success in college and his success as a teacher after he has finished college?

Despite obvious obstacles to any final answer to these questions, a study made at Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg indicated these probabilities:

There is no close relation between a student's intelligence and his success as a college student.

There is a fairly close relation between a student's intelligence and his later success as a teacher.

Experience as a teacher makes for success in college.

There is a fairly close relation between a student's success in college and his later success as a teacher.

In this study an effort was made to predict, by means of tests, the college marks, and the profibable teaching success of 100 women student teachers in the Horace Mann Elementary Training School at the College.

The criterion of college success (marks) was an average of weighted college marks. The criterion of probable teaching success was the student's score made in a standardized teaching aptitude test. This test, because of its stated purpose and the nature of its construction, perhaps might better be termed a test of teaching ability. The test, referred to in this study as the Aptitude Test, is "Aptitude Tests for Elementary and High School Teachers, Set 1," by J. E. Bathurst, F. B. Knight, G. M. Ruch, and Fred Talford.

The most important of the factors by which prediction was attempted was the student's score on the 1929 edition of the Thrustone Psychological Examination, which was used as a test of general intelligence. Using the records of the 100 students, the writer computed coefficients of correlation (Pearsonian) between scores on the psychological examination and average college marks, and between scores on the psychological examination and scores on the Aptitude Test.

The total group of students was divided into smaller groups on the basis of various factors, as the student's age, her score on each of the two tests and its percentile rank, and her average college mark and its percentile rank. Evaluations, in the form of averages, were then made of the records of the students in the smaller groups.

Groups found among the 100 students were compared with each other and with the total group. The group units consisted of the following: three curricular groups,—Kindergarten-Primary, Intermediate, and Three-Year State Certificate,—several groups formed on the basis of

the year of high school graduation, a group of twenty students who had graduated from the Pittsburg high school, a group of nine negro students, a group of twenty-three students whose parents were farmers, and a group of twenty-five students who had had teaching experience other than practice teaching. Although the conclusions regarding the smaller groups were based primarily upon averages in their records, care was taken not to form erroneous conclusions from averages which, on account of the distributions, inadequately represented the majority of the students composing the group.

The summary and conclusions derived from this study are as follows:

(1) A correlation of .527 was found between intelligence as measured by the psychological examination, and college success as measured by the average college mark. Of itself, such a correlation cannot be regarded as showing great predictive value in the test. However, the scatter diagram of the scores and marks showed that the test predicted with considerable accuracy the marks of students whose test scores were among the highest or the lowest of the 100.

(2) Perhaps because of the smallness of the groups into which the 100 students were divided, none of the following factors were found to be of much significance in the prediction of college marks: the student's age, the curriculum followed, the year of graduation from high school, the fact that a student had graduated from the Pittsburg high school, or the fact that a student's parents were farmers.

(3) The nine negro students averaged lower than the rest of the 100 students in intelligence, but not so low as their average college marks would lead one to expect. Some other factor or factors apparently assisted in lowering their marks.

(4) Intelligence and probable teaching success, the latter measured by the Aptitude Test, correlated .732. If the Aptitude Test did accurately measure teaching ability, a close relationship was thus shown to exist between the intelligence possessed by these students and their probable success as teachers. If the Aptitude Test did not accurately measure teaching ability, it was apparently a fairly good test of the intelligence of the 100 students.

(5) A group of twenty-five students who had had teaching experience other than practice teaching showed a slight superiority in intelligence over the remaining seventy-five students, a slight superiority in aptitude, and a more pronounced superiority in college marks. From the close correlation between intelligence test scores and Aptitude Test scores, one might conclude that teaching experience did not enable students to make better scores on the Aptitude Test. This would point to one of two things: either teaching experience does not contribute to teaching ability, or the Aptitude Test does not adequately measure teaching ability.

The more pronounced superiority of these twenty-five students in

college marks might be taken to show that teaching experience assists one in making high marks in college. But as much of their college work had probably already been taken before these students did their teaching, the results seem to point to the fact that these students possessed more than the ordinary amount of persistance and conscientiousness in their work. The fact that they returned to school after having been teaching seems to bear out this conclusion.

(6) The student's age, the curriculum followed, the year of high school graduation, race (aside from intelligence), graduation from the Pittsburg High School, and rural parentage seemed to have no important bearing on a student's probable teaching success, as measured by the Aptitude Test.

(7) Probable teaching success and college marks correlated .629. If the measures used were valid, such a correlation would show a fairly high degree of relationship between success in college and success in teaching. Moreover, whether the test was valid or not, such a correlation shows that the Aptitude Test was the best factor found in this study for the prediction of college marks.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT IN KANSAS

The following is a digest of a thesis submitted by Maurice Andrew Callahan, working under the direction of Dr. Hugh C. Pryor, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree, Master of Science, in the department of education, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas.

The administration of public education in the state of Kansas is in the hands of three groups of school officials: the state superintendent, city superintendent, and county superintendents. Many studies have been made of the first two groups of administrators, while but little study has been made of the last group. This fact is difficult to justify since a majority of the pupils and teachers in the state are under the direct supervision of the county superintendents.

The object of this study is to show the status of the county superintendent in the educational system of the state. In order to do this the writer has investigated: (1) scholastic preparation; (2) salary; (3) certification; (4) teaching and adminstrative experience; (5) number of schools, pupils, and teachers under the supervision of the county superintendent; and (6) number of years in office.

The statistics used were taken from the annual reports of the county superintendents to the State Department of Education for the years 1921 and 1929. It was orginally planned to make the study cover a period of fifty years but this was found impracticable, as no information pertaining to the county superintendent was required in the annual report before 1921. While the period studied is relatively short, the following facts doubtless have more or less significance:

THE SITUATION

1. The office originated as a part of the educational system of the United States about 1830. It was provided for in the constitution of Kansas in 1859 and the first superintendent took office in the year 1861. The early duties were largely clerical and this part of the work still receives a major portion of the superintendent's time.

2. The legal minimal requirements for the office are far below those for the superintendents of city and village school systems.

3. Women outnumber the men in this field of education. In 1921 seventy-two of the one hundred five superintendents were women, while in 1929 the number of women was sixty-nine.

4. In 1921 sixty-two superintendents were furnished clerks or assistant superintendents, either full or part time, while in 1929 sixty-eight had such official assistance.

5. The median salary in 1921 was $1495, while in 1929 is was $1511.95.

6. The median years of tenure in office showed a slight gain during the period studied. In 1921 this median tenure was 3.06 years, while in

1929 it was 4 years. This slight gain in tenure is probably due to the breaking down of the old prejudice against superintendents' serving more than two terms.

7. The median number of rural pupils per county superintendent in 1921 was 1250, while in 1929 it was 983, a decrease of 267 per county in the period studied. The median number of grade-school pupils under the jurisdiction of the county superintendents in 1921 was 730, while in 1929 it was 719. The median number of high school students under the jurisdiction of county superintendents in 1921 was 253, while in 1929 it was 354. This increase in high school attendance was due in part to the free tuition law and in part to an interest in secondary education. The decrease in rural school pupils was due largely to the general depression of agriculture following the World War and the resultant city-ward movement.

8. The scholastic preparation of the superintendents in office in 1929 showed but little or no advancement over those in office in 1921. Of the superintendents in office in 1921, ten held degrees, while in 1929 the number holding degrees was fourteen. The median number of years of scholastic preparation of county superintendents in 1921 was 3.77 years above the eighth grade, while in 1929 it was 4.13 years. At this rate of gain in scholastic preparation, it would take twenty-five years to advance the superintendents one year in the median number of years spent in training.

9. Many county superintendents still hold first grade county certificates. In 1921 the number of such certificates was forty-one, while in 1929 the number was thirty-eight.

10. The majority of county superintendents are not as well prepared for their work as third-class city and village superintendents, although the latter are under the supervision of the former.

11. The median salary of county superintendents is more than four hundred dollars less than the median salary of third-class city and village superintendents. In 1929 the median salary of the former officials was $1511.95, while the median salary of the latter officials in the same year was $1916.66.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made from this study.

1. That third-class city schools and all public high schools be taken from under the jurisdiction of the county superintendent and that supervision of these schools be entrusted to the superintendent of the city school system.

2. That minimal qualifications of county superintendents be made equal to those required of superintendents in the highest type of school under the jurisdiction of the county superintendent.

3. That the office be taken out of politics and made appointive, with a four-year term.

4. That the county superintendent be required to spend at least four days per week during the school term in supervision.

5. That a uniform program of supervision for the state be planned by the state superintendent and carried out in each county by the county superintendents.

6. That salaries of county superintendents be made at least equal to those of city superintendents having an equal number of teachers and pupils under their supervision.

7. That each superintendent be supplied with sufficient clerical assistance to care for all routine work of the office.

After giving much thought and study to this survey, the writer feels that the position of county superintendent is far too important a part of the educational system of the state of Kansas to be occupied by any but the most highly qualified educators available. Having been county superintendent himself, the writer fully appreciates the many intricate problems confronting county superintendents and the efforts many of them are putting forth to advance educational interests through contests and other school activities. He is nevertheless convinced that the educational interests of the boys and girls of the rural and small town communities demand that the status of the county superintendent be raised to equal at least that of the superintendent in the large city.

THE EFFECT OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE HOME UPON A PUPIL'S ENGLISH

The following is a digest of a thesis submitted by Miss Sara Stephens, working under the direction of Dr. Ernest M. Anderson, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree, Master of Science, in the department of education, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas.

This study was made in order to compare the achievement in English of pupils in whose homes English is the only language spoken with that of pupils in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken.

It is believed that such a study has practical value. The census statistics of 1920 show that 22.4 per cent of the population of Crawford County, Kansas, for example, was of foreign or mixed parentage, 14.7 per cent was foreign born, 60.4 per cent was of native parentage, and 2.5 per cent was Negro. It is important for the administrators and teachers in school systems within this county to know the effect upon the school achievement of the foreign languages spoken and heard by the children of these people of foreign parentage and of foreign birth.

The data were secured in Frontenac, Kansas, from 111 pupils in the Frontenac Junior High School—37 in the seventh grade, 33 in the eighth grade, and 41 in the ninth grade. Information concerning the birthplace of the pupils and their parents, the languages which they knew how to speak, the language which they usually used at home, was secured by a questionnaire. Achievement was measured by the New Stanford Achievement Test, which consists of ten separate tests, five relating to English and five less dependent upon English. The complete test was given in order to compare the scores made in English by the various groups with those made in other school subjects.

The differences between the average scores made in the ten tests by the pupils in whose homes English is the only language spoken and those made by the pupils in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken are shown in the following table, in which all differences except those with an asterisk are in favor of pupils from purely English-speaking homes:

Unit of Comparison	*Grade VII*	*Grade VIII*	*Grade IX*
English			
Paragraph Meaning	6.35	8.32	8.05
Word Meaning	3.85	9.64	3.13
Dictation	2.03	3.5	2.07
Language Usage	18.61	7.36	7.1
Literature	*-3.18	7.59	*-2.34
History and Civics	8.78	4.00	.35
Geography	* 1.99	4.09	3.45
Physiology and Hygiene	2.36	2.28	6.07
Arithmetic Reasoning	.72	4.23	1.26
Arithmetic Computation	.78	3.54	3.14

*Indicates superiority of "English and Foreign" group.

The largest differences are in language usage, paragraph meaning and word meaning. The differences in literature are negligible; in fact, in the seventh and ninth grades the small differences are in favor of the pupils in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken. In geography the difference is also small and in the seventh grade is in favor of those in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken.

Adding up the total differences for the tests which pertain to English and for those which depend less upon English, we find that the differences for the English tests are much larger than those for the last five tests. This would indicate that pupils from homes of foreign influence suffer from a language handicap which is more pronounced in achievement in English than in other phases of school achievement.

According to the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, the intelligence quotients of the pupils in whose homes English is the only language spoken average more than eight points higher than those in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken. Probably a large part of this difference is due to the language type of test, which hinders those who frequently hear and speak a foreign language.

When compared upon the basis of chronological ages, the pupils from homes where English is the only language spoken average six months younger than those in whose homes a foreign language is also spoken.

Since the character and quantity of the child's incidental education supplied by the home are determined by the social and economic circumstances therein, the status of the homes of these pupils was measured. The Sims Score Card for Socio-Economic Status, an objective measure was used. The home conditions of the pupils in whose homes English is the only language spoken averaged approximately thirty per cent higher than those of the pupils in whose homes a foreign language was also spoken.

In all, eighty-four comparisons were made between the average scores of pupils in whose homes English is the predominent language and of those in whose homes a foreign language is used more or less frequently. Only five such comparisons were in favor of the "English and Foreign" group, while seventy-nine were in favor of the "Only English" group.

Thus the comparisons show that the pupils in whose homes English alone is spoken surpass in average school achievement, in intelligence, and in social status the pupils in whose homes English is not the only language spoken.

This investigation leads to the following conclusions:

1. The pupils from homes where a foreign language is spoken are hindered in their school achievement by a language handicap.

2. This handicap is less in the ninth grade than in the seventh and eighth grades.

3. The differences between average scores made by pupils from homes where only English is spoken and those from homes where a

foreign language is also spoken are sufficient to justify differentiation of the course of study and individualization of instruction for the latter group.

4. Because of the language handicap, pupils from homes where a foreign language is spoken should not be classified on the basis of test scores alone.

The following problems for further study are suggested:

1. An analysis of the errors in English to suggest remedial treatment.

2. Techniques and devices for remedial instruction in such groups.

3. A similar study in the fifth and sixth grades and in the senior high school to acertain if the differences noted decrease as the pupils continue in school.

4. A similar study in other communities where there are many foreigners.

5. A comparison between the scores made by these pupils on group mental tests, individual mental tests, and non-language mental tests.

6. Repeated studies of the same group of pupils through several years of school to determine the effect of schooling upon the language handicap.

7. A study to determine to what extent the difference in achievement is due to language ability, to intelligence, and to social status.

THE RESULTS OF PLACING CHILDREN IN ABILITY GROUPS

The following is a digest of a thesis submitted by Mrs. Anne den Bleyker Dellinger, working under the direction of Dr. Ernest M. Anderson, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree, Master of Science, in the department of education, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas.

This study was made to determine the desirability of placing children in ability groups in the elementary schools of Pittsburg, Kansas

In September, 1924, a plan was put into operation which allowed the children to progress through the six grades of the elementary schools in five years, six years, or seven years, according to the capacity of the individual determined by intelligence tests and the teachers' judgment. These groups were designated as rapid-progress, average-progress, and slow-progress groups. Those completing the elementary school in five years were to cover the average work of the six grades plus some enrichment, those completing the six grades in six years were to accomplish the average amount of work, while only the minimal essentials for each grade were to be required of those completing the elementary school in seven years.

In September, 1929, the group of children who were classified according to this plan entered the junior high schools. There were 255 of these children. A study of the chronological ages showed that 62 of them had entered junior high school younger than 11 years and 9 months of age and had completed the elementary school in five years; that 102 of the children were between the ages of 11 years, 9 months and 12 years, 9 months, the normal age for the sixth grade according to Strayer-Englehardt score card, and had completed the elementary school in six years; while 91 children were above 12 years, 9 months of age and had taken seven years or longer to complete the work of the six grades.

The present study attempted to answer these questions: first, whether the children who had completed the six grades of the elementary schools in five years had achieved the standard for entering the seventh grade; second, whether the children of the Pittsburg schools entering junior high school in 1929 were placed in as homogeneous groups, relative to chronological age, as were the children entering junior high school in 1924; and third, whether there is any financial advantage in the present plan.

The New Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Examination Form V, was used to measure the achievement. The results showed that the 62 children who had completed the elementary schools in five years had not only achieved, but had slightly exceeded, the norm for entering the seventh grade.

As some children had been reclassified and other children had entered the Pittsburg elementery schools from other school systems, it

was thought advisable to make supplementary studies of the various groups. It was found that children entering the original groups from other sources did not modify the findings of the first study.

A comparison of the percentile distributions of the chronological ages showed that the children of the 1929 group were as homogeneously classified, according to chronological age, as were the children before the present plan was put in operation.

A comparison of the average number of years spent in school per pupil for the children entering junior high school in 1924 and in 1929 shows an actual saving of 4.38 months per child in favor of the 1929 group. This is a saving of $3,962.07 annually to the Pittsburg schools for teachers' salaries alone.

The study leads to the following general conclusions:

1. That the plan of placing children in ability groups as practiced in the Pittsburg schools is desirable.

2. That children of exceptional ability when carefully selected, may do the work of the six grades of the elementary school in five years or less, with advantage to themselves and to the school system in which they are enrolled.

3. That children allowed to progress through the six grades of the elementary schools according to their ability, enter the junior high school in as homogeneous groups as under "the skipping and failure plan."

4. That the plan of accelerating children of exceptional ability means additional educational opportunities to many of these children.

5. That the plan of accelerating children results in a saving of teaching force, equipment, and supplies. This is a substantial financial saving, an important item in school administration.

A DIVISION OF RURAL EDUCATION FOR KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

By Flora E. Holroyd, Assistant Professor of Rural Education

One evidence of the interest that has developed in rural affairs since the report of the Roosevelt Commission on Country Life in 1909 has been manifested in the organization of courses and departments of rural education in our institutions of higher learning.

In a study, "Preparation of Rural Teachers," in the *Teachers College Record* for May, 1928, covering 149 teachers colleges and normal schools, for whites, in forty-four states and Hawaii, and representing five-sixths of all the publicly supported teacher-preparing institutions for whites in the United States in 1927, Bunting and McGuffey show that 126 of the 149 institutions reporting are engaged in some phase of work that may be regarced as contributory to preparation for rural school teaching and that 60 institutions have a distinct group of students preparing for service in rural schools. In 43 of these institutions the work is entirely on a college level, and 17 of them offer part of that work on a college level and part on a high school level.

Fifty-five per cent of the institutions with courses in their departments organized on college level, were located in the Middle West; the institutions offering the courses below college level were located largely in the South. Three states in the Middle West, Michigan, Minnesota and South Dakota, had enrollments of more than 500 each in their departments of rural education when this study was published. The figures indicate the trend in rural education among teacher-training institutions throughout the United States, and show especially the interest that normal schools and teachers' colleges are taking in this type of education.

Kansas, however, is not giving as adequate attention as some of her sister states to the problem of preparing rural teachers. The state has five public-supported educational institutions—state university, state agricultural college, and three state teachers' colleges. Both the university and the agricultural college maintain schools of education and issue advanced degrees in the field. The university sends out many school adminstrators, a fairly large number of whom go out to teach in rural towns. All the teachers' colleges have departments of education, which offer four-year courses leading to the B. S. degree and graduate courses leading to the master's degree. The three teachers' colleges enrolled, in the courses offered in 1928, over 8000 students and graduated from the degree courses 514, yet very few of these students, graduates or undergraduates, in any of these five institutions, had made any specific preparation for teaching in rural schools.

Since Kansas as a state is basically rural, the state-supported institutions should recognize the importance of rural education and accept the reponsibility of training teachers for the field. The writer

believes that every public-supported institution of higher learning that undertakes to train teachers should recognize especially the needs of the rural schools, but in this brief she will deal particularly with the responsibilities of our teachers' colleges in training rural teachers.

The term "rural schools" as used in this article applies to all schools located in the open country, including one-or-more-teacher schools consolidated schools, village schools and schools of incorporated towns of less than 2,500 population, that offer instruction in the elementary or secondary school subjects or in both elementary and secondary subjects.

It has been stated that Kansas is basically rural—just how rural can best be seen from school statistics.

The Kansas school census for 1928, listing all persons between the ages of 5 and 20 inclusive, showed as recorded in the State Superintendent's report, that 60 per cent of those enumerated lived in rural districts and 40 per cent in urban districts. Those enumerated in one-teacher districts—35 per cent of the whole census—totaled 191,938. Those enumerated in districts employing two or more teachers for schools in the open country or in villages totaled 135,846, which was 25 per cent of the whole census. The total of the census was 544,524.

Rural pupils also made up 60 per cent of the actual enrollment. Twenty-eight per cent, or 116,014, attended one-teacher schools; 31 per cent, or 131,941, attended other grade schools classed as rural; and 1 per cent, or 4,752, attended community high schools. The rest of the 421,768 pupils enrolled attended schools in first and second-class cities.

Of the 19,800 teachers in the state that year, 14,437, or 73 per cent, were classed as rural. These included 7,195 teaching in one-teacher schools, 6,523 teaching in two-teacher or village schools, 284 in community high schools, and 435 supervisors, principals, and superintendents.

Of the 8,529 school districts of every kind, 8,442, or 99 per cent, were classed as rural. These included 7,129, or 83 per cent that employed but one teacher; 1,289, or 15 per cent, that employed two or more teachers; and 24, or 1 per cent, organized for high school purposes and depending chiefly on farming territory and villages for their support.

Not only is Kansas basically rural in population, but taxable valuation for the state indicates that 70 per cent of the wealth of the state is located and taxed in rural areas. The figures are exceedingly challenging to one deeply interested in rural welfare. In the grand total of taxable wealth, shown in the same report, $2,995,403,641, rural school districts, including the villages, had $2,099,250,346.

The Kansas teachers' colleges are supported very largely by appropriations voted by the state legislature and levied against the state as a whole. Since 70 per cent of the taxable wealth of the state is found in rural areas it, therefore, means that 70 per cent of all appropriated

funds are raised by these areas. It would seem that the three institutions were under moral obligations to train efficient rural teachers and to aid in every possible way the cause of rural education, both because their financial support is very largely from rural revenue sources, and because the major number of persons of school age are enrolled in some type of a rural school.

At present two of the three institutions, Hays and Pittsburg, have a bureau of rural education within the larger department of education. Both institutions offer specific courses in rural education and one, at least, sets up a curriculum for rural teachers. At present comparatively few students elect to take the offered courses.

Some would advocate that when we have prepared a teacher for a special field of work, as the primary, the elementary, the high school, or administrative field he is prepared to practice his "art" in any situation. That argument does not seem to hold when we look into the tasks of some specialized fields and certainly not when we examine those in the rural school field.

It would seem that persons who expect to teach in rural schools in Kansas need to have specific preparation for their work. It is the writer's believe that this training can be best acquired in a partially differentiated curriculum.

The curriculum problems of the rural school, whether we refer to one-room school, village school, consolidated school or rural high school, differ from those of the city school. Good teaching depends upon using the child's experience for the basis of his further learning. The rural child's experience, his social background and environment have probably been very different from those of the urban child. It is necessary for teachers of rural children to know and understand their experiences their general social environment, in order to meet the children in a sympathetic and understanding manner. Furthermore, it is necessary to know how to use these experiences and the environment in order to utilize them in the education of the child. A knowledge of rural conditions should help the teacher to measure actual life experiences against the generally accepted aims of education for all youth, and to supply to the rural child those factors which appear to be lacking in his environment. This will mean different emphasis, and in some instances, new content for the courses planned for the rural teacher.

The organization of one-room schools represents a distinctly differentiated problem. Here the program has to provide for instruction in all eight grades, the recitation periods must of necessity be short, and there is practically no time for supervision of study. Organization problems in some of the village schools offer almost as serious a problem with their overcrowded rooms. Quite frequently the program must provide for instruction in two grades, and even three.

A study of differences in activities of teachers in rural school and grade teachers in cities shows conclusively that many school activities are performed by rural teachers which city teachers are not expected to

perform (some of which it would not be ethical fo them to do), and that there is much differentiation in the matter of importance in some of their common activities.

The types of community activities also differ. Much more is expected of the rural teacher and she needs to know the values of the demands that will be made upon her time and strength in order to select and choose the requests that have a rightful demand on her.

Teachers preparing for high school work need to face the peculiar factors of the one-room school in their training in order to understand the social and educational background of their pupils, who come from the farm and open country schools.

These suggestions for differentiated training for rural teaching would involve: (1) a consistent study of the native and domestic plants and animals of the region in a course that might be described as nature study—agriculture and which is taught primarily for information and appreciation and not as vocational agriculture; (2) a course in rural sociology and economics, in which the environment with its relationships and correlations is studied in an attempt to understand rural life as it a thorough course in rural education that will attempt to set up some exists today and to determine what is the normal community life; (3) standards in the way of housing and equipment, that will deal with the managerial and organization duties of the teacher, and the skills and techniques needed for adapting texts and courses of study to the experiences and neds of the child, and that will present some administration factors to the end of having co-operative effort between teachers and tendents, and will strive to develop a professional and deep-seated insuperintendents, and will strive to develop a professional and deep-seated interest in the teacher for her task; (4) specialized courses in observation and teaching, that will provide opportunity for responsible student-teaching in typical rural school situations.

In addition to these specialized and differentiated courses which are to be regarded as an integral part of the formal curriculum, the prospective teacher needs the socializing influence of certain guided and directed activities that take place outside the classroom and which may be regarded as a part of the informal curriculum. These activities not only have a socializing value, but also may aid in developing poise, leadership, and self-confidence. These abilities will be of great value to one who will soon assume a position that demands independence, poise, and leadership,—namely, teaching a district school and meeting the public.

It is not expected that any one individual would actively engage in all of the following activities, but they are given rather to indicate the types that would develop the above qualities, and to indicate the comparatively wide range of activities that could be engaged in with profit. It would be expected that each division would set up its own program in the light of the student needs and interests.

(1) Student clubs: Rural clubs offer one of the best opportunities

for developing an esprit de corps among the group, for training in social relations, for building up ideals in community program building, and to enlist the general good will for the rural cause. It seems advisable to suggest that such an organization should be included in the program of every teachers' college.

(2) Excursions: Excursions offer an excellent opportunity to study the nature of the region, the local geography, the occupational, industrial and business interests; to develop appreciation for the surrounding environment; and to point the way to what the students can very profitably attempt to do later in a more simple and limited way in their own schools. These excursions could well be a part of the Rural Club program; as such they would be factors in developing strong bonds of friendship within the group and, better still, group consciousness of a common interest.

(3) Teacher assistants: Each rural student may choose to be a teacher's helper in some outlying one-room school. He should if possible visit this school occasionally and learn to know the teacher and the pupils. He could assist by assuming the responsibility of planning some project for the school, collecting materials needed for carrying it out, and helping the teacher and pupils in its execution. Such a project might be a program, play tournament, or excursion.

(4) Community meetings: The student should plan to attend some community events in one-room schools and in village or consolidated schools. He should also attend a county teachers' meeting and if possible a school board convention. Brief reports of the visit would be made either in the classroom or at some rural club meeting.

(5) Presiding at some public meeting: The student should plan and carry forward some social activity either within his department or before the student body as a whole.

The Division of Rural Education in teachers' colleges should cooperate with the extension department of the college in carrying out planned and active field service. The directors of rural education in the two institutions giving special attention to rural education do much along this line. Both conduct annual rural life conferences that last three days or more and are attended by county superintedents and by principals of village and consolidated schools. The faculty members of the rural education department are much in demand as speakers before schoolboard conventions, teachers' meetings, and community meetings. They also appear before from three to five normal institutes in August, spending five days at each place and giving from ten to fifteen lectures during the time. The directors edit pamphlets and bulletins of interest and value that are sent to superintendents principals, and supervisors or conduct correspondence and extension courses each winter session.

There are two other types of extension work that Kansas teachers' colleges should consider very seriously. Both would take additonal faculty members and would require larger budgets than the institutions

now receive, but it is believed that the results of the activities would be far-reaching in raising the standards of Kansas rural schools.

(1) It is believed that the civision of bureau of education in each college should be staffed by a sufficiently large number of faculty members and by persons qualified by reason of training to undertake supervision of instruction in co-operating communities (the community helping to bear the expense) for demonstration purposes. Kansas is in need of rural school supervision, but the great majority of the state eletorate are hardly aware that such supervision is ever given, and very few persons indeed have any conception of the advantage and value of it. If our state teachers' colleges were in a position to carry on several such projects throughout the state, they would do much to bring about a demand for county rural school supervision.

(2) Supervisory and advisory contact with beginning teachers who have been trained in the institution, carried out co-oeratively with county superintendents, would improve the classroom teaching, stimulate county superintendents to perform a higher type of supervision, and raise the ideals of that office in general, tend to draw the teachers who had not completed their course back to the college to complete their work, and would, eventually, be a big factor in getting a demand on the part of the public for college training as a prerequisite to teaching.

In addition to all the duties and responsibilities of the department of rural education and in conjunction with them, there should be the most harmonious articulation between the division of rural education and every other department in the college. Teachers who expect to be elementary teachers or high school teachers inthe so-termed rural comnunities should choose their curricula under the joint advise of the head of the department in their special field and the director of rural education. The director will from time to time feel the need of knowing in outline the materials of various courses; it should always be possible for him to meet other instructors and have this information freely. He should also have the privilege of asking subject-matter teachers to be cognizant of the rural field as they set up student activities. Such articulated efforts should never under any consideration savor of dictatorship, but the two departments should realize that they have a common aim in sending out teachers who are preparing to teach in the rural field and that a failure will reflect against both the rural division and the subject-matter department.

To carry out the program outlined here will require more than a director of rural education, or even a director and an assistant. Such activities, however, could be carried out, it is believed, if each of the three colleges had departments staffed with a director, supervisor of practice, and a field worker all with the same degree of preparation required of other college professors and instructors in positions of like responsibility, a competent, full-time office secretary, in addition, and supervision teachers on the field in sufficient number to accommodate

the enrollment of the rural division. It is expected that the campus school would be available for the rural department as for any other, but if the prospective rural teacher is to obtain the fullest and best type of preparation, she will need to have practice in rural schools. This will necessitate off-campus schools. These should be one-room and two-room open country types and, if at all possible, there should be a consolidated or village school. As to the number of one-room schools, Prof. Mabel Carney of Teachers College advocates one for every ten students who will take rural practice as a minimum number, and this number is given only with the understanding that the student will get practice in group teaching at the graded campus-school.

Such a program as outlined in this paper would no doubt bring a number of objections and criticisms if presented to Kansas teachers college administrators and educators. Probably all would say that the cost was prohibitive. Some would say that one-room rural school teachers are elementary teachers and that if they are trained in that capacity it will suffice. Some might say that rural teachers entered the field without college preparation and that therefore the institution had little or no responsibility for their inefficiency. Some would say that it is impossible to secure proper practice facilities.

The cost would be a serious block if all three Kansas Colleges plunged into this program in its entirety, but that has not been the thought of the writer. Instead, this program has been set up as a goal toward which we can work for a period of years. The supervision of teachers in service would be the item of greatest expense outside the practice schools, and would probably be the last portion of the program to be initiated. It is believed that the enlarged program would yield such improved school returns that larger support would be forth coming. But if such did not result, may we not bring the proportion of revenue that comes from rural scources at the present time 70 per cent and lay that opposite the things we are giving back to the rural schools? Should we not in fairness, reshape the direction of some of our school expenditures, if necessary in order that we may return value recieved for the support that rural Kansas is making to the cause of higher learning in general, and to teacher training in particular?

It is true that one-room rural school teachers are elementary teachers, but they are in addition to that primary teachers, (sometimes kindergarten teachers, and almost nursery school teachers), janitors, play supervisors, principals, attendance officers, health nurses, and community servants. It has already been said that rural teaching is a specialized and differentiated task. Kansas occupied the shamefully low rank of 28 in the Russell Sage Foundation survey made a few years ago; we are told that the one-room rural school pulled down the level of the most excellent city grade and high schools to this mediocre rank. the states until we correct our weakest spot. One of the best ways to correct that is for our state teachers colleges to feel a genuine interest in the welfare of the 35 per-cent of school population that looks toward the

one-room school for elementary education, and to train teachers specifically for that type of teaching and to encourage them to seek out rural positions. The atitude of ignoring the needs of one-room schools, because we believe they should be supplanted by some other type of organization, is shutting off the inherent rights of thousands of youth in a land that owes its birth to the philosophy of equality, of opportunity, and democracy.

It is true that teachers can and do begin rural school teaching without any college training. Let us examine the statistics on certification; an analysis of these figures will reveal some interesting facts. The 1928 Biennial Report of the State Superintendent has figures for 13,558 teachers of the approximate 14,000 teaching positions in the rural field. They are classified by number as follows:

County certificates,	3,882
Normal training,	1,509
State certificates,	8,167

State certificates may be eleven different types, but from the point of college preparation they represent three levels, namely:

30 semester hours (3 - year, non-renewable certificate).
60 semester hours (a life-certificate).
120 semester hours (a degree or life diploma).

The state law requires degrees for all four-year accredited high schools except in the case of certain teachers who were engaged in high school teaching prior to 1915, and in case of the special fields of home economics, manual training, and agriculture, where special certificates were issued prior to 1930. However, such a strong sentiment has been created in favor of degree graduates for high school positions, that it is safe to predict that 95 per-cent of all high school teachers have had four-year college courses.

Many of the grade teachers have certificates representing 60 semester hours or two—year college courses but probably more than half of the 1,873 reported hold 3-year non-renewable certificates earned on thirty hours of college credit, and a very large per-cent, probably 98, of the reported 4,000 one-room rural teachers holding state certificates are teachin on this lowest grade that is, the 3-year non-renewable certificate based on thirty hours of college credit.

Normal training certificates are issued on the basis of graduation from a normal training course in high school and successful passing of an examination written and scored by the State Board of Education. These certificates are valid for two years and may be renewed on the presentation of eight semester hours of college credit earned during the life of the certificate; thus they lead to college preparation. The 1,816 certificates of this type and the 3,882 county certificates are all found in one-room and small village schools. These figures would in-

dicate that something less than 50 per-cent of the rural elementary teachers have had less than one year's college training, if any at all.

But 50 per-cent of the 10,824 rural elementary teachers represent 5,400 people that have had a year or more of college. The combined enrollment of students in rural education in our teachers colleges was less than 100 for the academic year of 1927-28. That tells its own story; our teachers colleges clearly have the responsibility of setting up adequate preparation facilities for these teachers and then of getting actively behind a program for the elimination of county and normal training certificates. With a large surplus of teachers in the state, reported as between 4,000 and 5,000 in 1928, there is no better time for the bringing of strong pressure for such action than the present.

The obtaining of adequate practice facilities in one-room and two-room schools presents a real difficulty at present. One-room-on-campus schools present artificial situations and care not recommended. The Kansas people seem very deeply attached to the local-district-control system and it is very difficult to get any school district to relinquish any of its prerogatives in that line. Whatever can be accomplished at present must of necessity depend upon attitude and common consent rather than a legal status. It will require tact and patience and in addition to that hearty co-operation from an earnest and educated county superintendent. It seems to the writer that fairly satisfactory arrangements would be possible if districts could come to feel that it was an honor to be designated and chosen by a teachers college for a practice teaching laboratory. The state should subsidize any such school in order to insure teachers of competence and training, and should assume some responsibility in equipping the school with material of teaching for the purpose of educating their students in the selection and use of laboratory and library facilities, and for the sake of the children enrolled in the school. The State should have advisory rights in the selection of teachers. That right may have to come indirectly and subtly in the beginning, but as confidence and good will are established the school boards will voluntarily come to the director of rural education and seek advice.

Ideally, the teachers of these schools should be masters degree graduates, but that will not be realized for a long time to come. A reasonable expectation now, would be competent experienced teachers holding life certificates granted on a basis of two years college work.

The benefit of a division of rural education offering specialized and differentiated training for teachers who will go out into rural schools has been dwelt upon in length. Such a division will not only strengthen the educational opportunities for our youth, but will also be a definite factor in raising the educational standards of our rural adult population. The rural people will be brought into closer relation to the college through the work carried out in their local communities, by such as instructional supervision projects, practice teaching, speaking engagements, in their Parent Teacher Association, etc; and by the supervision

extended to their teacher. All these will serve to inform them and present the educational needs; they will be stimulated by the contacts to think consructively in matters of improvement along educational, social, and economic lines, and finally they will by reason of all this desire better trained teachers.

Such departments will be a prominent factor in raising the ideals and standards of county superintendents, and will encourage them as nothing else can. It is believed that, with an alert public and better trained county superintendents, the position will be elevated to the professional rank it should hold.

The rural schools are dotted all over the plains and hills of Kansas. They are serving approximately 400,000 children, who have every right to look to a great state to send them trained and competent teachers. These schools are a challenge to our teacher training institutions. Shall they accept the challenge and go forward to meet it? Our answer must be, Yes.

THE TREND

The National Bureau for the Advancement of Music in a circular entitled, "Notes on the Contents of the 'Survey of College Entrance Credits and College Courses in Music'," states that of 594 institutions tabulated, seventy-six per cent accept music for entrance, while more than three-fourths offer musical instruction. The circular states that the colleges of the Middle West and of the Far West exhibit a more progressive attitude toward music than do those of the East and South.

The last number of *The Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* "Investing in Public Education," September, 1930, contains much worth-while material of high interest to every educator and to the general public. Under captions, "The Ability of the United States to pay for Its Schools, How Much of Our Income and Wealth is Invested in Public Education? How Do Expenditures for Public Schools Compare with Certain Other Expenditures? What Part of the Nation's Income Is Devoted to the Payment of Taxes and How Does the United States Compare with Other Nations on This Item? What Part of the Nation's Taxes is Alloted for the Support of Public Schools? What is the Trend as to the Per Cent of Income Represented by Expenditures for Public Schools? Good Schools Pay Their Way," School superintendents and community leaders will find an interesting array of facts and figures.

Probably the most outstanding work recently done in character education is the scientific approach to this important and intricate phase of human activity by Hugh Hartshorne, research associate, Yale University, and Mark A. May, professor of education, of the same institution. *Religious Education,* for September, publishes a first article by these investigators which is a partial summary of three volumes of the report of the Character Education Inquiry. A second summary article will appear in the October number of *Religious Education.*

This first article carries these significant statements: "Theories of ethical training suffer from a lack of data concerning causal concomitants of specific behaviors and attitudes. Plans and programs which have no experimental basis, and which may be as likely to damage character as to improve it, are produced by the score. Hundreds of millions of dollars are probably spent annually by churches, Sunday schools and other organizations for children and youth, with almost no check on the product—a negligence of which no modern industry would be guilty, and which the public schools have rather generally outgrown, so far as routine school work is concerned. There are tests for predicting success in school studies, in school work in general and

in various occupations, and these have real value in saving the time of individuals and the money of the school system. Yet there are no tests for predicting success in living. Through lack of them, a vast amount of time and no one knows how much money are probably thrown away on expensive and intricate devices for moral and religious education, and on more or less futile attempts to live well in a world whose problems people are inadequately prepared to meet."

Educators are viewing with interest the scientific approach to this fundamental problem of human society being undertaken by Hartshorne and May. They are wondering how far such contributions will affect traditional methods and institutions.

Two nation-wide surveys conducted by the Office of Education in the United States Department of the Interior are now going on. The National Survey of Secondary Education, with Dr. Leonard V. Koos of the University of Chicago as associate director, has been under way several months and will probably continue two more years. Congress appropriated $225,000 for this study. The second, for which an act of Congress recently appropriated a total sum of $200,000, is a three-year program for the survey of teacher training. This study began July 1, 1930, with Dr. E. S. Evenden of Columbia University as assistant director. Educators are advocating a third nation-wide survey in the field of educational finance to begin in 1931.

The marvelous growth in high school attendance, the increasing cost of secondary education, and the more or less chaotic state in the organization and administration of high schools has probably stimulated the proposed survey of secondary education by the United States Office of Education. It is announced that this survey will cover the following twelve major subjects:

1. Brief historical statement in order to relate the development of the organization for the administration of secondary education in public schools to the background and origin of the underlying philosophies and practices.

2. Analysis of forces such as school law, regulations, personal factors, and the like which have become determinants and controls of the existing types of organizations.

3. The direct responsibility assumed by the state departments and accrediting bodies which have made staff members of these offices functioning officials in the administration and supervision of secondary schools.

4. Place assumed by boards of education and their executives in he various types of organizations planned for the management of local econdary units.

5. Responsibilities assigned to the central office of local school ystems and the various types of central office organization developed o carry on the work in secondary schools.

6. Evaluation of the various plans in operation for the administration of the various types of secondary schools within school systems.

7. Evaluation of the various organization plans operating within various types of schools for administration and supervision.

8. Place delegated the principal in the administration and supervision of secondary schools of various types of local school systems.

9. Analysis of the status of the personnel employed in the various staff positions having to do with secondary education.

10. Study of the functions assigned and the duties and responsibilities allocated to the various members of the administrative and supervisory staff employed in the secondary schools.

11. Organization within secondary schools to facilitate efficient management and to relieve professional staff members of unnecessary clerical work and routine duties.

12. Organization within schools and systems to co-ordinate effort, to reduce unnecessary duplication, and to develop co-operation.

Twenty-one members of the schools of Tulsa, Oklahoma—sixteen mathematics teachers, the director of mathematics, two principals, the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education, and the associate superintendent in charge of curriculum—spent six weeks at the University of Iowa on curriculum construction under the direction of Dr. F. B. Knight. During the winter the group had held conferences, studied available literature, research studies, teaching materials and courses of study in preparation for its summer work. Each member enrolled for four hours of curriculum work and two hours of elective work. The committee worked two-thirds of the time on the Tulsa mathematics curriculum. They were on the same monthly salary as if they had been teaching in the summer school. Among the advantages of such a plan are daily conferences with the expert, library and research facilities of a college, freedom from the routine of school duties during the time spent on curriculum study, a cost not exceeding that of teachers assigned to part-or-full-time work on the course of study during the school year.

There are at the present time more than ten thousand foreign students in the colleges and universities of the United States, and five thousand American students in foreign universities. In 1930 nearly three hundred exchange fellowships were administered by the Institute of International Education, which was started in 1920.

The Psychological Corporation is sponsoring a nationwide experimental study of English usage under the direction of Dr. L. J. O'Rourke. The school systems of each state are invited to participate. A series of three specially prepared diagnostic tests for Grades VI to XII inclusive were available in October, 1930. The tests cover one hundred items of English usage which have been found to present major difficulties.

In April, 1931, a second series of tests will be available to measure the effects of remedial instruction. It is expected that the study will provide a basis for better allotment of phases of usage for instruction in the various grades. A committee of the Psychological Corporation will prepare the final report of the study which will be made available through the co-operation of the United States Office of Education.

An editorial in the *Journal of Educational Research* of September, 1930, stresses the following needs of present-day education:

1. A clearer understanding of the objectives of education.
2. A better selection, gradation, and organization of subject matter for teaching purposes.
3. More information about the nature and direction of the learning process.
4. Better means of providing for individual differences.
5. Recognition of the importance of the learner's attitude as a factor conditioning the learning process.
6. More attention to the general welfare of school children.
7. Greater emphasis upon the social, emotional, and character aspects of education.
8. Better means of measurement.
9. Better trained teachers and an adequate in-service training of teachers.

New York City builds a school building every twelve days.

Half of the boys and girls of ages 15 to 18 years in the United States are high school students. It is a record unsurpassed elsewhere in the world.—*School Executives Magazine*, September, 1930.

The World Federation of Education Associations is planning to hold a regional meeting in Honolulu in the summer of 1932.

The next year book of the National Society for the Study of Education will be published in February, 1931. Part I, dealing with the textbook, will include such topics as the techniques of authors in preparing textbooks, policies of publishers, selection for use in schools, typography, and legislation affecting the use of texts. Part II will be devoted to rural educaton.

During 1927-28 the committee on World Friendship among Children worked out a friendship project with the children of Mexico, to whom boys and girls of the United States sent some 25,000 friendship school bags. In January of this year Mexican school children made a return gift—forty-nine beautifully prepared chests containing displays of Mexican resources, products, and the like. These chests are now being shown throughout the country and will eventually be housed in the

capitals of the several states. Any school or city wishing to secure the loan of one of these chests should write the Committee on World Friendship among Children, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York.—*The English Journal*, September, 1930.

A new institution exclusively devoted to graduate work will be located in or near Newark, New Jersey. The Institute for Advanced Study will provide facilities with which eminent scholars may devote themselves to research and to the training of students for and beyond the degree of doctor of philosophy or equivalent professional degrees. Louis Bamberger and Mrs. Felix Fuld have provided an initial endowment of five million dollars. Dr. Abraham Flexner will serve as the first director of the institute.

The University of Texas and the University of Mexico have made plans for an annual exchange of students and instructors. Mr. E. D. Farmer, a rancher of Texas, has given $205,000 to the state university to finance the exchange and the legislature has approved the gift. The interest on this money will support eight student scholarships of $1,000 each and also provide for four exchange professors each year.—*The English Journal*, September, 1930.

The September, 1930, issue of the *Journal of Educational Research* contains a tentative score sheet by means of which a school system may judge its efficiency in providing for bright children. It may also be of value as a guide for schools interested in introducing some form of special training for bright pupils. The total possible score is 1000 points arranged under five major heads: I, Grades in which some form of special training is given to bright children: II, Methods used in selecting bright children; III, Factors affecting the organization; IV, Modification of the curriculum; V, Methods of instruction.

Bulletin No. 2, 1930, recently published by the United States Office of Education, is entitled "Bibliography on Junior Colleges." It was prepared by Walter Crosby Ells of Stanford University and contains a list of sixteen hundred items annotated. In the introduction a table shows the number of titles appearing each year since 1887. In that year only one item was published; the number for 1928 and 1929 were each more than three hundred.

A National Bureau of Education has been established recently in connection with the Department of Education of the Union of South Africa. The bureau, according to official announcement, will follow to some extent the plan of the United States Office of Education.