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REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

FOR

THE YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1918

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1918

THE UNITED STATES

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

Created as a Department March 2, 1867.

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COMMISSIONERS.

HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.,
March 14, 1867, to March 15, 1870.

JOHN EATON, PH. D., LL. D.,
March 16, 1870, to August 5, 1886.

NATHANIEL H. R. DAWSON, L. H. D.,
August 6, 1886, to September 3, 1889.

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, PH. D., LL. D.,
September 12, 1889, to June 30, 1906.

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, PH. D., LL. D.,
July 1, 1906, to June 30, 1911.

PHILANDER PRIESTLEY CLAXTON, LITT. D., LL. D.,
July 8, 1911, to date.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, October 15, 1918.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith, as required by law, the report of the Commissioner of Education for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1918.

This report consists of two parts: (1) A condensed statement of the activities of the Bureau of Education, and (2) a very brief interpretative survey of the progress of education in this and some other countries within the last two years.

A fuller statement of the work of the bureau is contained in the Annual Statement of the Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior, and a much more comprehensive account of educational progress in this and all other culture countries of the world will be given in the Biennial Survey of Education within the period 1916–18, to be published in two volumes early in the calendar year 1919.

The work of the Bureau of Education for the fiscal year 1918 might be more clearly stated under four heads:

1. Efforts to maintain the schools and all other agencies of education as nearly as possible at their normal efficiency during the war.

2. Cooperation with the Department of War, the Department of Labor, the Treasury Department, the Food Administration, the Council of National Defense, the Bureau of Public Information, and other governmental agencies in various forms of war work to be done through the schools or of special interest to school officers, teachers, and children.

3. The ordinary functions of the bureau in collecting and disseminating information in regard to education, advising State, county, city, and institutional educational officers, and assisting in the promotion of educational legislation and school improvement.

4. Studies necessary to the reconstruction or readjustment of education after the war.

In all these the bureau has done what it could with its limited means. As the end of the war approaches, studies for readjustment become relatively more important.

Because of the deliberation with which we entered the war and the very hearty cooperation of the Federal Government with State,

county, municipal, and institutional officers and the fine response of the people at large, our schools have suffered much less than the schools of most other countries engaged in the war. Very few schools were closed during the year. Full reports for the year are not yet in, but apparently there was a larger attendance in both the elementary schools and the high schools than in the last previous year, though the increase in attendance was less than the normal. The increase in enrollment in the elementary schools seems to have been approximately 1½ per cent, as against a normal increase of 2½ per cent; in the high schools, 2½ per cent, as against a normal increase of more than 9 per cent. Reports indicate that in boarding schools for boys and girls, in some parts of the country at least, attendance was much larger than usual. This was due, of course, to the fact that parents breaking up their homes because of war emergencies found it convenient to place their sons and daughters in schools in which they might have temporary homes. Attendance of women in normal schools, colleges, and universities was little less than the normal; in some cases it was much above the normal.

Immediately after our entrance into the war in April, 1917, young men in college began to volunteer for service in the Army, and the exodus was large. During the summer, fall, winter, and spring the demand for men and women of higher education and training for service in the Army, both at home and abroad, in the departments at Washington, and in the war industries, continue to increase and became so large that both students and instructors left the colleges, universities, and technical schools in large numbers. Before the end of the school year the attendance at these institutions was reduced 25 per cent or more. The exact figures will be given in the Biennial Survey.

Both students and teachers in schools of all kinds and grades have responded in the finest spirit of loyalty and patriotism to all the demands of the Government and have volunteered their services and hearty cooperation in every movement for the good of the country, for the welfare and comfort of our soldiers and sailors, and for the relief of suffering caused by the war both at home and abroad. No other class of our people has shown finer spirit. In this service the schools of all grades have justified themselves as democratic institutions and have won still more fully the confidence and support of the people.

In many places it has been found necessary to readjust the courses of study and school calendars to industrial needs. This has, however, been done always with the purpose of interfering as little as possible with the regular school work. Everywhere the people have manifested a desire to comply with the President's request that no boy or girl should have less opportunity for education because of

the war. The labor laws and school-attendance laws have been enforced in the interest of the children and the future welfare of the country. Our people have been willing to make all necessary sacrifices for the winning of the war, but they have not been willing to sacrifice the education of their children, nor have they believed it to be necessary.

The need for these readjustments and the demand for certain kinds of training to meet the war emergencies have served to call attention to certain weaknesses in our systems of education, which will no doubt be kept in mind during the period of readjustment upon which we are now entering. The experiences of other countries will also be enlightening. It is quite plain that we must include in our curricula more of the things that make for industrial efficiency and for physical health, but it will be still more important that we include those things that make for intelligent and virtuous citizenship in the period of reconstruction and in the new world of democracy and freedom in which our country must play a most important part. That there may be no duplication of effort and no loss of energy in the great task of education for individual development, industrial efficiency, social happiness, and civic and political welfare, there must be a better organization and closer coordination of all our agencies of education. School officers, legislators, and the people at large seem to be fully aware of this.

Schools in other countries actively engaged in the war have suffered much. Attendance in institutions of higher learning is only a small fraction of what it was before the war. In some of these countries at the beginning of the war the enforcement of child-labor laws and other laws pertaining to the welfare of the children were much relaxed. However, the people soon became aware of their mistake and have since done what they could to remedy it. The advice of all those who have gone abroad to study conditions during the war, as well as of those who have come to this country from the countries with which we are associated in the war, has been unanimous to the effect that we should not neglect the education and other interests of our children.

Reports from Germany during the first two or three years of the war seem to indicate that the schools of this country were maintained better than the schools of other European countries at war, but reports for the last year indicate that their schools have suffered much.

In all countries on either side education will no doubt receive much consideration in the period of reconstruction. Already England and some other countries have taken important steps. The Fisher bill, recently enacted into law in England, is very comprehensive and will be very carefully studied, no doubt, in all countries including our own. A full report of this act will be made by this bureau.

Studies now being made by this bureau and by other agencies in this country will, it is believed, be helpful not only to our own States in their work of educational reconstruction but to other countries as well.

Through the next decade the most important task in this and all other countries will be the building of systems of education which will give to all children full and equal opportunity for that kind and degree of education which will fit them for life and citizenship in the new world of freedom and democracy which will emerge out of the destruction of the old world of subjection and privilege. In this task the Bureau of Education of the United States should play a large part. To enable it to do this worthily and well it will need much larger support than it has ever yet had.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

I.

SOME ASPECTS OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

HIGHER EDUCATION PRECEDING THE WAR.

The declaration of war on Germany by the United States, April 6, 1917, brought suddenly to a close an important epoch in the history of higher education. For more than a quarter of a century American colleges and universities have developed with a rapidity and freedom characteristic of American individualism. Within recent years the broad and liberal system of elective studies has reached the limits of its evolution, a reaction having already taken place as evidenced by the general adoption of the group system and other definite controls of elective subjects. The quantitative standards of both entrance and college requirements have been well defined and are now agreed to by nearly all degree-granting institutions.

One of the important problems in higher education just before the war concerned the improvement in the articulation of high school and college curricula. A number of leading colleges and universities have begun to develop a groundwork of prescribed studies which tend to weld the secondary school and college curriculum into more coherent relationship without losing the benefits of the elective system.

THE GROWTH OF THE SURVEY MOVEMENT.

Increasing interest has been shown in the study of administrative problems of higher education. The growing appreciation of the value of college education in the life of the people has led a number of States voluntarily to submit their higher educational institutions to expert criticism in order to determine their needs with more scientific precision. Such surveys in the past have been determining factors in improving the influence of colleges on the environment and

in bringing a more intelligent and helpful attitude of the general public to higher education.

Three States have recently conducted surveys of their State-endowed institutions of college grade under the supervision of the United States Commission of Education. The surveys of Nevada and Arizona were completed in 1916, being followed by South Dakota in 1917. A brief report of the Nevada survey has already appeared in Vol. I of the Commissioner's Report, 1917.[1] The reports of the Arizona and South Dakota surveys are in press.

Up to the present the bureau has stood for the principle of consolidation where practicable and it has also discouraged the separation of a college or other technical divisions from the main body of the university and to establish it at another place.

The adoption of the principle of major and services lines, where two or more colleges are unnecessarily duplicating courses, has also been emphasized.

THE SUPREME COURT SETS ASIDE THE HARVARD-TECHNOLOGY AGREEMENT.

In order to avoid the evils of excessive duplication of effort, Harvard University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology had maintained for nearly three years a successful scheme of cooperation. In the words of President Maclaurin, "the educational power both of the institute and the university has been greatly strengthened. Men taking institute courses have had the benefit of contact with eminent professors of the university, whose influence they would not otherwise have enjoyed, and men taking Harvard courses have similarly benefited by their association with professors of the institute. Unfortunately, however, the funds that the university has at its disposal for the promotion of the great science of engineering is almost wholly dependent upon the income from the Gordon McKay endowment, and the supreme court has decreed that this income can not be applied in the manner indicated in the agreement." The breaking of these relations is in the minds of leader educators one of serious moment, as the agreement was an act of unusual importance to the large constituency which supported these institutions.

PREPARATION FOR THE WAR.

While the normal problems of higher education were under discussion and solutions were being found, several discerning university authorities foresaw the inevitableness of America's entry into the world struggle and commenced to adapt their programs to meet the situation. Courses in military science and tactics were offered to those who looked forward to national service. As the crisis ap-

[1] For a complete report of the Nevada survey, see Bulletin, 1917, No. 19.

proached, the patriotic impulses of all colleges and universities were greatly increased.

THE IMMEDIATE EFFECTS OF THE WAR.

Scarcely had Congress voted for war when a large proportion of the senior students all over the country immediately offered their services to the Nation, sacrificing academic honors for those of greater moment. College authorities not only encouraged enlistments, but duly rewarded those men who had gone into service, granting them their diplomas on the basis of their records up to the time of leaving college. Many college professors and instructors volunteered for service also.

Students not only enlisted in the Army and Navy, but also entered the ranks of agricultural and war industries. Nearly 200 institutions granted leave of absence to faculty members for the period of the war.

Unfortunately, in the anxiety and rush to get into immediate action, many men capable of higher forms of service were doing duty where others less qualified could have done the work. In a measure this country was about to repeat the serious mistake of the allies in Europe, which had allowed their colleges to be decimated. The shortage of officer material and technically trained students has been keenly felt in England, France, and Canada.

EFFORTS AT POLICY FORMING.

About the time of the outbreak of hostilities Columbia University had prepared a valuable service blank in order to determine with accuracy its available resources in the faculty, graduates, and students. The Bureau of Education reprinted this blank and distributed it to the colleges and universities. The data thereby obtained was of great value in the work of the organizations which were studying the policies of higher education and the war.

Fully realizing the critical conditions developing in the colleges and universities, the Council of National Defense, through its committee on engineering and education of the advisory commission, called, on May 3, 1917, a meeting of the presidents of the National Association of State Universities, the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the Association of American Universities, the Association of American Colleges, and the Institutional Committee of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering. This committee, under the leadership of Hollis Godfrey, Sc. D., sought to establish a medium of communication between the higher institutions and the departments of the Government which were carrying on the war.

It also proposed to secure the opinion of a conference of college representatives as to the policy presented by the colleges and universities with regard to—

(*a*) Immediate utilization of their resources for the Government service.

(*b*) Possible modification of curricula to fulfill the need for men trained in the technical branches and in military science.

(*c*) Maintaining and improving institutions of higher education for the training of the youth of the Nation to meet the more difficult conditions of living which will follow the war.

The conference was held in Washington, May 5, 1917, and was attended by representatives of 187 institutions.

The first principle stated by the college representatives on May 5 was that men below draft age should continue their college training. The second principle urged the modification of calendars and curricula. The third principle established by the university representatives was that students in applied science should be allowed to finish their college courses before being called to active service. The committee has continually urged this matter upon the War Department. The fourth principle declared the desirability of giving military training in all colleges having sufficient enrollment. Whether influenced or not by the publicity given this matter by the committee, a large percentage of the colleges of the country have adopted military training. The fifth principle related to the medium of publicity through which the Government should reach the colleges and urged that the Bureau of Education, of the Department of the Interior, and the States Relations Service, of the Department of Agriculture, be used for this purpose.

Thus far all the circulars and published letters of the committee have been issued through the Bureau of Education. Finally, the college and university representatives urged the dissemination of information concerning the war and the interpretation of its issues by colleges as one of their major tasks. Reports which have been received indicate that a number of institutions have already been rendering this service effectively.

On July 3 and 4, 1917, the committee on engineering and education held an important conference to which were invited representatives of the leading universities of Canada.

As a result of its study and conference, the committee made the following recommendations, carrying out more specifically the purpose of the resolutions adopted at the conference of May 5, to the end that their students may, before entering active service, reach the point of highest military efficiency and that the supply of trained and educated men may not be cut off more than is necessary either during the war or after its close:

First, that each college endeavor to induce its students to continue their studies at least until the age of conscription and that students

above that age who are not called to special service and who have not completed their education should be urged to do so.

Second, that each college make provision by any available means for military drill for all of its students who are physically fit.

Third, that at a point approximately one year before the military age provision be made wherever possible for a course in military science and tactics, such course to be substituted for one of the regular studies and to be given equivalent credit.

The work of the engineering schools.—A still further development of the work of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense was a study of the relation of engineering schools to the National Government during the war. In accordance with a resolution of the institutional delegates at a meeting of the Society for the promotion of Engineering Education held in Washington, July 7, a committee was appointed for consultation with the heads of the various bureaus, departments, and divisions of the Department of War and the Department of the Navy. It rendered a preliminary report as to the probable need of scientifically technically trained men in connection with the military operations. This committee recommended that an engineer familiar with the equipment and capacity of the higher technical institutions of the country be commissioned in the Army and assigned the task of coordinating the needs of the Army for technically trained men with existing facilities. As a result of this recommendation a general staff officer was appointed to work with the committee. This arrangement finally led to the permanent organization known as the Committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department.

Shortly previous to this time, the Commissioner of Education issued a statement encouraging a full enrollment of the colleges at the opening of the fall term. This statement was followed by a letter of Secretary Lane to President Wilson, who immediately responded. A strong campaign was directed from the Bureau of Education in behalf of a large enrollment in all schools throughout the country.

THE SCHOOL YEAR OF 1917–18.

As this war is primarily one of college-trained men and scientists of experience, it is apparent that the immediate induction into the ranks of young men who show immediate promise of becoming technically qualified is a mistake. The letters and statements of the President, the Secretary of the Interior, the Commissioner of Education, and other officers of importance, have continually urged high-school graduates and undergraduates to continue their education until they were called by the Government. This counsel was seconded by leading British and French military authorities who had found them-

selves seriously handicapped at a critical moment by the loss of qualified college men who, under ordinary circumstances, would have been available in the replacing of officers.

Although the college year of 1917–18 opened with an excellent enrollment all over the country it was not long until the stirring appeals of military and naval service caused a great falling off in attendance, the losses on an average more than 20 per cent in over 300 colleges of the country. While uniform effort was impossible, the colleges vied with each other in genuine patriotic endeavor, and did important service in awakening the country to the real needs of the war. There had also been established, under the provisions of the National Defense act, units of the Reserve Officers Training Corps in the land-grant colleges and in leading State and privately endowed institutions. The Reserve Officers' Training Corps gave opportunity to a considerable number of young men of ability to prepare themselves for commissions in the Army or in the Navy. Notwithstanding the patriotic attitude of the colleges and the many opportunities offered, students became restless, and scholarship deteriorated on account of the uncertainty created by the prospects of the immediate drafting of all men from 18 to 45 years of age. All the colleges have been placed in a trying position through the loss of teachers and pupils. The situation was made still more embarrassing by the lack of financial support caused by the withdrawal of students and by a decrease in many endowments which normally might have been expected. The colleges and universities faced the problem of their existence.

Fortunately, the experience of the Army in training college men warranted a more extended adoption of this method in view of the great demands for officers in manning the new Army of 1918–19. The adaptability and earnestness of college students in gaining proficiency as military and naval officers has been such as to create a deep sense of satisfaction and appreciation.

At this time the committee on education and special training put forward the plan by which all properly equipped colleges of the country could cooperate with the War Department in giving military training to all students of draft age, who are qualified for regular work in college. This plan, if properly carried out, will supply, within a reasonable time, a large percentage of the necessary officer personnel for the rapidly increasing needs of the Army. While this plan is yet in its formative stages, the response of the universities and colleges has been very satisfactory. The Bureau of Education has ascertained by general inquiry that only 10 out of 400 colleges and universities raised the slightest objection to the plan, the objection in these cases being of secondary consideration.

GENERAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE COLLEGES TO THE GOVERNMENT.

During the first year of the war nearly 100 colleges and universities offered their plants and equipments to the Government which was beginning a series of extensive and exhaustive experiments in the fields of chemistry, physics, and engineering relating to the war. The results of this offer have been far-reaching. In the first place, the withdrawal of the leading research scholars from the principal universities and colleges in order to carry on the research work of the Government, practically eliminated the usual post-graduate and research work from the regular program.

The universities of Harvard, Columbia, Chicago, and the University of Michigan lost nearly all of their leading professors of physics. The University of Pennsylvania and the University of Cincinnati have also suffered the loss of the greater part of their chemical staffs, the regular work being carried on by the assistants. Likewise, the leading professors of geology and geography have been inducted into the National service. Perhaps no branch of scientific learning has suffered so severely as psychology. It has been estimated by the authorities of the War Department that research work in this subject has been reduced at least 75 per cent.

ORGANIZED EARLY CONTRIBUTIONS OF COLLEGES TO THE GOVERNMENT.

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE INTELLIGENCE BUREAU.

One of the most effective organizations established by the colleges was the Intercollegiate Intelligence Bureau, directed by Dean William McClellan, of the University of Pennsylvania.

By means of its agencies, it was unsually successful in obtaining for the Government the right type of specialists and experts needed by the Government in working out its special war problems. Perhaps no organization has done so much for the advancement of the idea that this war is a war of scientists and specialists whose organized cooperation is indispensable in order to obtain victory.

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL.

The National Research Council which is a creation of the Council for National Defense, is the central agency by which the vast program of scientific research has been so successfully carried on for Government departments of war service. Having availed itself of the best talent of the Nation, the council has assigned to at least 25 leading educational institutions the study of problems related to military optics, ordnance, munitions, topography and food conservation.

Perhaps one of the most important contributions has been that of psychology—the latest of the sciences—to the problems concerned

with the selection of the right men for the different kinds of service required in the Army and Navy. The methods applied by the psychologists have almost completely revolutionized the methods of organizing Army and Navy personnel.

Among the great number of problems now under investigation may be mentioned the following, which concern food conservation, wheat and flour substitutes, gas defense, dyes, devices for the Navy, high explosives, electrical problems connected with wireless, methods of preserving edible fish, powder research, smoke screens, utilization of wood waste to produce acetic acid, a very light military bridge, gas engines, optical problems relating to gun sights, analysis of suspected foods, lignite coal for war purposes, sugar beets, porous basalt for concrete, detection of submarines, making cellulose from pine straw, testing of steel, bronze and wood, testing of automobile parts, testing of paints and varnishes and oils, special research in pathology and military research and special testing in naval tank. Other important technical studies have been carried on successfully.

LATER EFFORTS AT COORDINATION OF THE COLLEGES AND THE GOVERNMENT.

THE EMERGENCY COUNCIL.

Notwithstanding the excellent progress of the work of the organizations designed to bring close cooperation between the colleges and the Government, the need of a more adequate medium of communication between the institutions of higher education and the war service, led to the establishment in January, 1918, of the Emergency Council on Education (now the American Council on Education). The American council is composed of nearly all the leading associations of colleges, universities, and technical schools of the country. The chairman of the council is Donald J. Cowling, president of Carleton College; the secretary-treasurer, P. L. Campbell, president of the University of Oregon; the executive secretary, R. L. Kelly, ex-president of Earlham College. The American council has proved successful in developing closer contacts between the colleges and the Government and is now giving some attention to the promotion of more cordial relations between the universities of the allies and the United States.

THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND SPECIAL TRAINING OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

On February 13, 1918, the War Department appointed a permanent committee to conduct the special program of military education in the colleges of the United States. At present the committee is composed of four members, representing the General Staff, The Adjutant General's Office, the Provost Marshal General's Office, and the War College. With the committee is associated an advisory board of six members representing the educational interests.

THE STUDENTS' ARMY TRAINING CORPS.

In September, 1918, the Committee of Education and Special Training of the War Department carried out the plan of establishing students' army training corps in all colleges and universities which offered a minimum enrollment of 100 students above high-school grade. This task of transforming over 500 institutions of higher learning into institutions of military training was accomplished quickly and with a minimum amount of friction. By a single stroke the colleges of the country were saved from almost virtual extinction, while the Nation was able to provide at a moment's notice the highest type of instruction necessary in training the host of new officers for the Army of 1918–19.

THE AIM AND ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDENTS' ARMY TRAINING CORPS.[1]

Purpose.—The primary purpose of the Students' Army Training Corps is to utilize the executive and teaching personnel and the physical equipment of the educational institutions to assist in the training of our new armies. Its aim is to train officer candidates and technical experts of all kinds to meet the needs of the service. This training is conducted in about 550 colleges, universities, professional, technical, and trade schools of the country.

Vocational and collegiate sections.—The corps is divided into two sections. The collegiate or "A" section and the vocational or "B" section were formerly known as National Army training detachments. They aim to train soldiers for service as trade specialists in the Army. As the program for vocational training is now virtually completed, few, if any, new units of this type will for the present be added.

The "A" or collegiate section, which will be inaugurated October 1, is open to registrants who are members of some authorized college, university, or professional school. Students of authorized institutions may join the Students' Army Training Corps by voluntary induction into the service. They thus become members of the Army on active duty, receiving pay and subsistence, subject to military orders, and living in barracks under military discipline in exactly the same manner as any other soldier.

The housing, subsistence, and instruction of soldiers in both branches of the Students' Army Traning Corps is provided by educational institutions under contract with the Government.

Choice of service.—The members of the Students' Army Training Corps are voluntarily inducted into the service, and are ordinarily allowed to choose the branch of the service for which they wish to be prepared. This freedom of choice, however, is not absolute. It depends upon the individual's qualifications and upon the needs of the service at any particular time.

Opportunities.—The status of a member of the Students' Army Training Corps is that of a private. Members of a collegiate or "A" section who show by

[1]Adapted from War Department General Circular.

their rating in academic and military work that they have unusual ability may be—

(*a*) Transferred to a central officers' training school.

(*b*) Transferred to a noncommissioned officers' school.

(*c*) Assigned to the institution where they are enrolled for further intensive work in a specified line, as, for instance, in engineering, chemistry, or medicine.

Those members of a collegiate section whose record is such as not to justify the Government in continuing their collegiate training may be—

(*a*) Assigned to a vocational training section for technical training of military value.

(*b*) Transferred to a cantonment for duty with troops as a private.

Members of a vocational section who show exceptional fitness or promise may be recommended for officers' schools, or may be continued at institutions for more advanced study.

Relation to draft.—Members of the Students' Army Training Corps, having already been inducted into the service, will not come under the operation of the selective-service law. It is expected that the members of collegiate sections will be transferred from institutions every three months in age groups, the 20-year-old men going first, the 19-year-old men going next, and the 18-year-old men last, roughly corresponding to the period at which men of these ages will be called under the selective-service law. As these groups leave the colleges their places will be taken by new contingents obtained by individual induction, or, if necessary, in depot brigades. Students of such subjects as engineering, chemistry, and medicine may be required to finish their courses where the needs of the service make this desirable.

Members of vocational sections will ordinarily remain at the institution for two months and will then be assigned to various branches of the service in which technicians are needed .

It is impossible to say absolutely how long the training of any particular man will continue, since this will depend upon the capacity of the individual and upon the changing needs of the service.

Curricula.—In addition to 11 hours per week of military training, the course of study of the men in the collegiate section of the Students' Army Training Corps will consist of the ordinary college or technical course, grouped and modified in such ways as are necessary to meet the needs of the War Department. Students in colleges of liberal arts will have as much free election as it is possible to give them. Technical students will have an intensive course mapped out for them by their institution, following directions from the War Department.

Members of vocational sections will pursue such subjects as auto driving, auto repair, bench woodwork, sheet-metal work, and electrical work, etc., in addition to 13½ hours per week of military training.

Members of both sections will attend courses on the issues of the war.

The following paragraphs, taken from the descriptive circular issued by the War Department, explain clearly the purpose of the new corps, besides giving other information of value.

CHANGES IN COLLEGE CURRICULUM.[1]

Under the war program all curricula are based on quarterly courses with terms of 12 weeks each, including examination periods. It is planned that each term be a unit in itself, so that students of approximate age may be withdrawn at the end of any term. The new program will be adjusted to

[1] Adapted from General Circular of War Department.

meet the needs of the different age groups. Students who have reached the age of 20 (on September 12, 1918), whether previously in college or not, may have but a single term of 12 weeks in college, and are expected to devote practically their whole time to the special programs. There are five programs which are especially adapted to the needs of the different types of service, namely: I. Infantry and Artillery; II. Air Service; III. Ordnance Corps and Quartermaster Corps; IV. Engineer Corps, Signal Corps, Chemical Warfare Service; V. Motor Transport and Truck Service.

Students who have reached the age of 19 (on September 12, 1918), whether previously in college or not, may have but two terms in college, and should therefore complete the essential subjects in two terms.

For all other students, whether previously in college or not, curricula will be prepared so that the essential subjects may be distributed over three terms.

The remaining time will be available for such additions from the list of allied subjects as may be selected by their respective educational institutions.

The essential subjects required of every member of the Students' Army Training Corps who is preparing to become an infantry or artillery officer, and who has not had equivalent training, are war issues, military law and practice, hygiene and sanitation, surveying and map making.

The allied subjects which may be elected by members of the Students' Army Training Corps are as follows: English, French, German, Italian, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, psychology, geology, geography, topography and map making, meteorology, astronomy, hygiene, sanitation, descriptive geometry, mechanical and freehand drawing, surveying, economics, accounting, history, international law, military law, and government.

Permission may be granted for the recognition, as an allied subject, of not more than one subject outside the above list, provided that it occupies not more than three hours per week in lectures and recitations with corresponding time for study.

CHANGES IN METHODS.

It is evident from a study of the new curricula that new and intensive methods of study and recitation will be adopted, the results of which may be of far-reaching significance in college education. The abolition of the secondary activities in colleges and universities, such as athletics, fraternity life, and student activities, will give opportunity under the inspiring stimulus of war aims to gain a spirit of concentration and scholarship seldom if ever equaled.

On the other hand, there will be little if any chance for genuine reflective or productive thinking with the sole exception of the technical students who may be allowed to continue and complete their specialized studies.

It is also evident that nonmilitary subjects will have relatively little chance during the war, especially in those groups which are only in school for one or two terms. The classics will be left to the few who are not members of the Students' Army Training Corps.

Whatever the influence on the future program and methods the present plan may have, it is clear that higher education has given itself soul and body to the national service. It has devoted voluntarily its splendid organization to the winning of the greatest war

in the history of the world, and has for that reason adapted its program to meet the emergency.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION.

One of the happy results of the war has been the closer entente between the allied nations. In order to further closer relationship and mutual understanding, a mission of leading university officers of Great Britain was invited to visit this country in the early fall. The response on the part of the British authorities was favorable, resulting in the sending of the following group of educators:

Dr. Arthur Everett Shipley, vice chancellor of the University of Cambridge.
Sir Henry Miers, vice chancellor of University of Manchester.
Rev. Edward Newburn Walker, fellow, senior tutor and librarian, member of the Hebdomadal Council, Queens College, Oxford University.
Sir Henry Jones, professor of moral philosophy, University of Glasgow.
Dr. John Joly, professor of geology and mineralogy, Trinity College, Dublin.
Miss Caroline Spurgeon, professor of English literature, University of London.
Miss Rose Sidgwick, professor of ancient history, University of Birmingham.

This distinguished educational mission will be the guests of the principal officers of the Government, the presidents of many of the leading universities and colleges, as well as a group of influential citizens of the country. Without doubt the interchange of ideas and the deeper acquaintances gained through the visit of the mission will be of lasting benefit to the allied nations.

THE FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Under the Smith-Hughes Act Federal appropriations ultimately aggregating over $7,000,000 per annum have been made available for cooperation with the States in the promotion of vocational education in agriculture, in trades and industries, and home economics, including the preparation of teachers. The principle of Federal aid through the States to education in institutions of subcollegiate grade has been established.

Its early enactment was strongly urged by President Wilson in addressing Congress in December, 1916, as—

> of vital importance to the whole country because it concerns a matter too long neglected, upon which the thorough industrial preparation of the country for the critical years of economic development immediately ahead of us in very large measure depends. * * * It contains plans which affect all interests and all parts of the country, and I am sure that there is no legislation now pending before the Congress whose passage the country awaits with more thoughtful approval or greater impatience to see a great and admirable thing set in the way of being done.

As an expression of educational policy, the new act embodies some important departures from previous legislation. It makes provision

for the training within the schools of a large group of our population unreached directly by the Federal Government. On the other hand, by offering instruction along vocational lines and of subcollegiate grade, it supplements the Morrill Act, the expressed purpose of which is to maintain colleges "to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts * * * in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." On the other hand, since it contemplates a system of training in the schools, it also supplements the Agricultural Extension act of 1914, in which the service provided is "the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in State colleges in the several communities." Since it imposes definite requirements as to the training of teachers, it also represents a material extension of authority over the purely permissive provisions of the Nelson amendment of 1907.

The Smith-Hughes Act creates a Federal Board for Vocational Education. This board consists of seven members, including the Secretaries of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, and the United States Commissioner of Education, ex officio, with three members appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, ultimately for a term of three years each. One of the appointed members is a representative of the manufacturing and commercial interests, one of the agricultural interests, and the third of those of labor. The board selects its own chairman each year.

The Federal board is charged with the administration of the act, the details as to the care of funds, the certifying of the States, etc., in general plan resembling the legislation for the agricultural colleges and experiment stations. In addition it is empowered to make, or have made, investigations and reports to aid the States in the establishment of vocational schools and classes and in giving instruction in agriculture, and the trades and industries, commerce and commercial pursuits, and home economics. These studies include agriculture and agricultural processes and the requirements upon agricultural workers, similar studies as regards the trades, industries, and commerce, home management, domestic science, and the study of related foods, and the principles and problems of administration of vocation schools and of courses of study and instruction in vocational subjects. In the discretion of the board, the studies concerning agriculture may be made in cooperation with or through the Department of Agriculture. Similar cooperative arrangements may be made with the Departments of Labor and Commerce for industrial subjects, while the studies of the administration of vocational schools, curricula, and methods of instruction in vocational subjects may be taken up in cooperation with or through the Bureau of Education.

An appropriation of $200,000 per annum, available from the date of passage of the act, is made to the board for its expenses.

To cooperate with the Federal board in carrying out the act, each State when accepting its provisions is to designate a State board of at least three members. The State board of education or some board having charge of the administration of public education or of any kind of vocational education may be designated as the State board, or an entirely new board may be created.

The State board is to prepare plans for the approval of the Federal board, showing the details of the work for which it is expected to use the appropriations. These plans it is specified must show the kinds of vocational education contemplated, the kinds of schools and equipment, courses of study, methods of instruction, and the qualifications and the plans for the training of the teachers and agricultural supervisors. In all cases the work must be conducted under public supervision and control.

The plans of expenditures for salaries in agricultural and industrial subjects must show that the controlling purpose of the education is to fit for useful employment, that the training is of less than college grade, and that it is designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age who have entered upon or who are preparing to enter upon agricultural or industrial work.

The Federal appropriations to the States are divided into three distinct groups, providing respectively for the payment of salaries of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects; for the payment of salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects; for the preparing of teachers, supervisors, or directors of agricultural subjects, and of teachers of trade and industrial and home economics subjects.

The main initial appropriations for salaries in agricultural subjects is $500,000. This is increased by $250,000 per annum during the next six years and then by $500,000 per annum during the next two years, making an appropriation of $3,000,000 for the fiscal year 1926 and annually thereafter. Like appropriations are made for salaries in industrial subjects.

The main appropriation for preparing teachers and supervisors is likewise $500,000 for the first year, but increases to $700,000 and $900,000 respectively for the next two years and then becomes $1,000,000 per annum thereafter. The Federal appropriations for teacher training must be divided among agricultural, trade and industrial, and home economics subjects, no one of these subjects being granted more than 60 nor less than 20 per cent of the State's allotment for that year.

The training of the teachers provided for will throw a very heavy burden of responsibility on our higher technical institutions and par-

ticularly the land-grant colleges. These institutions have been very successful in training technical experts who have contributed in large measure to the success of our industries. They have not as yet paid any large attention to the training of teachers for secondary schools of the strictly vocational type. The pedagogy of this class of education is yet in its preliminary stages. It evidently will not do simply to copy what has been worked out abroad. There is therefore great incentive for men of original thought and inventive skill to enter this comparatively new field of teacher training.

Up to January 1, 1918, 48 States accepted the Smith-Hughes Act either by specific provisions of the legislatures or by acts of the governors and up to January 1, 1918, the plans of the 48 States had been examined by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, approved, and the board had certified to the Secretary of the Treasury that these States were entitled to receive the allotments for the year 1917–18, apportioned by the terms of the act.

Federally aided vocational courses have been set up in agriculture in 41 States, in trade and industrial subjects in 32 States, and in home economics in 29 States; 22 States have organized courses in each of these three fields; in 46 States teacher-training courses have been organized.

The record of the States in this work is impressive, especially when it is borne in mind that the record covers an initial period of only 10 months. In Massachusetts, for example, vocational agriculture is taught in 19 secondary schools with Federal aid; trade and industrial subjects, in 36 schools; and home economics, in 29 schools. In New York the number of Federal-aided secondary schools is 4, of agriculture 60, and for trades and industries, 40; in Pennsylvania, for agriculture, 38, for trades and industries, 131, and for home economics, 69; in California, for agriculture 12, for trades and industries 14, and for home economics 14; in Indiana, for agriculture 37, and for trades and industries 21; in Mississippi, for agriculture 34, for trades and industries 1, and for home economics 3. Those States are illustrations of the widespread development of secondary vocational education. The record for other States is equally impressive.

The chief handicap in the promotion or introduction of vocational instruction was the lack of qualified teachers. This was due largely to the present war emergency, many of the teachers being drafted or volunteering for service in the Army.

Under supervision of the Federal board, war emergency training classes for conscripted men have been organized in the public schools throughout the country. A series of war emergency training courses for Army occupations has been prepared, and those courses have been adopted extensively not only for classes organized under direct

supervision of the board, but as well for classes organized by the War Department among men enlisted in the Army, and for classes conducted on a commercial basis under private civilian control.

The preparation of these courses and the organization of training classes have been undertaken at the request of and in cooperation with the Signal Corps and the Quartermaster in the War Department, and the United States Shipping Board.

An arrangement was perfected late in October, 1917, with the approval of the Secretary of War, for the utilization of the educational facilities of the United States by the Federal board in cooperation with the War Department for the purpose of training drafted men in various occupations prior to their reporting at the cantonments.

This work has continued and the war training division of the Federal board reports that on June 13, 1918, 12,000 men had been trained through the Federal board and State authorities for vocational education, and turned over to services—6,000 in mechanical lines, 5,000 in radio work, for the Army, Navy, and mercantile marine, and 1,000 in clerical occupations for Quartermaster Corps work. It estimates that an additional 3,000 men have been trained by private agencies through the impetus given to the work by the Federal board, using Federal board courses of instructions.

The War Department committee on education and special training had in its classes 7,086 in April, 10,685 in May, and 26,666 in June. Contracts in force provided for the training of 100,000 men during the current year. This training is under military control, and it was found necessary to provide for the needs of the Army, in addition to the training in voluntary classes under the Federal board.

Classes in shipbuilding occupations have been established in cooperation with the Federal board in the following States:

North Carolina—Wilmington, evening.
Pennsylvania—Chester, Girard College students.
Ohio—Cleveland, evening classes; Lorain, evening classes.
New York—Port Richmond, Staten Island, evening; Newburgh, evening; Buffalo, evening.
Minnesota—Duluth, evening; part time.
Delaware—Wilmington, evening.
Connecticut—Bridgeport, evening, part time, all day; Housatonic, evening, and part time.
California—San Diego, evening; Long Beach, evening; San Pedro, evening; Oakland, evening; San Francisco, evening; Alameda, evening.
Maine—Bath, evening.
Oregon—Portland, evening, not confirmed; Astoria, evening, not confirmed.
Washington—Seattle, evening.

The following States have appointed agents who will work whole or part time on these classes: Ohio, New Jersey, Texas, Connecticut, Alabama, New York, and California.

THE SMITH-SEARS ACT.

In June, 1918, Congress passed the Smith-Sears Act, providing for the vocational rehabilitation and return to civil life of disabled persons discharged from the military or naval forces of the United States. The act delegates to the Federal Board for Vocational Education the responsibility of reeducating the disabled men in some useful employment, after their discharge from the Army or Navy, and provides for a plan of cooperation between the board and the Surgeon General's Office, covering the work done in hospitals, in order that the men may have the advantage of a continuous and coordinated plan.

It is provided that there shall be full and complete cooperation of the several Government offices concerned with the future welfare of men discharged from the Army and Navy, including the medical and surgical services of the War Department and the Navy Department, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury, and the labor exchanges in the Department of Labor, and the Federal board. Each will render service in retraining and returning to civil employment men disabled in the war.

The Federal board will act in an advisory capacity in providing vocational training for men during their convalescence in the military hospitals, before their discharge from the Army or Navy, and will continue such training to finality after discharge, as the civilian agency or rehabilitation and placement in industry.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN ARMY HOSPITALS.

The subdivision of education in the division of physical reconstruction under the Surgeon General, United States Army, was begun in October, 1917, for the purpose of devising plans for providing educational facilities for disabled soldiers and sailors during the period of hospital treatment and convalescence. On May 20, 1918, Dr. James E. Russell, dean of Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, was appointed chief of the subdivision.

The work undertaken has been practical, so far as possible, and has included work needed for the hospitals. Activities include, besides repair work of various kinds, basketry, typewriting, telegraphy, academic studies, agriculture and gardening, bookkeeping, freehand and mechanical drawing, auto repair, carpentry, cobbling, and other handicrafts. In all, more than 100 different activities have been introduced into the hospitals. Sixteen general convalescent and reconstruction hospitals have been provided for, or one in each of the 16 military districts.

The records of 516 cases which have been treated in four hospitals show 134 men able to return to full military duty, 210 fit for return to limited service, and 172 who are eligible for discharge.

In the last group, 12 are classed as helpless or institutional cases; 121 are able to return to their former occupations; and 39 will need further training to fit them for earning a livelihood.

These figures show the division of responsibility in the work of reconstruction. The task of fitting men for further military service is at present the most urgent need, because wherever an able-bodied man behind the lines can be replaced by one less fit physically but vocationally capable, a soldier is gained for active duty.

THE STUDENTS' ARMY TRAINING CORPS.

The Students' Army Training Corps represents a unique educational undertaking on the part of the Government. The work is under the direction of the Committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department.

The primary purpose of the Students' Army Training Corps is to utilize the executive and teaching personnel and the physical equipment of the educational institutions to assist in the training of our new armies. Its aim is to train officer-candidates and technical experts of all kinds to meet the needs of the service. This training is conducted in about 550 colleges, universities, professional, technical, and trade schools of the country.

The corps is divided into two sections—the collegiate or "A" section and the vocational or "B" section. Of these the former is discussed elsewhere under higher education.

Concerning the latter, it is to be noted that the experience of three years of war in Europe demonstrated the need of large numbers of skilled mechanics and technicians of many kinds. When the United States entered the war, therefore, and undertook the organization of an army, it soon became apparent that a plan must be devised to train mechanics quickly and in large numbers. To accomplish this result the War Department did not depend on the establishment of new schools, but utilized existing institutions which had the necessary facilities. The men, in uniform, are assigned to institutions in units of 200 to 2,000, where they are housed and fed under military discipline for periods of two months each. Military drill and industrial instruction, including shop practice, are provided in an intensive form as the regular daily routine. The initial assignments of men began work on April 1, 1918. Some idea of the magnitude of the undertaking is conveyed by the announcement that on August 1 there were 52,025 soldiers under instruction, in 35 different trades or occupations, in 144 institutions, located in 46 States and the District of Columbia. It is estimated that by the close of the fiscal year, June 30, 1919, more than 300,000 men will have received instruction in these courses, which will be sufficient to make them definitely serviceable in some mechanical or technical duty in addition to their training as soldiers.

MEDICAL EDUCATION AND THE WAR.[1]

Sweeping reforms in American medical education have been in progress for 15 years, and were largely completed before this country was drawn into the world war. For the past six or seven years the majority of medical schools have not only been enforcing high entrance standards, but also have been operating under greatly improved conditions in other respects. The majority of students graduating in the past several years, therefore, have received a medical training equal to that obtainable anywhere. Furthermore, it is these recent graduates who, in larger proportions, have entered the Government medical services and who will be largely responsible for the medical care of our American soldiers and sailors. It is evident, therefore, that those fighting for the preservation of America and American ideals now have as skilled medical care as is obtainable anywhere. That this can be said is due to the energetic campaign to improve medical education that has been carried on since 1904.

MEDICAL EDUCATION AND THE SELECTIVE SERVICE.

When the selective-service law was passed in May, 1917, it made no provision for the exemption of medical students. A study of the effect the draft would have on the enrollments of medical schools showed that from 50 to 65 per cent of the students would be taken in the first three calls, which would force the majority of medical schools to suspend. If the war lasted any considerable time, the result would be seriously to diminish or cut off the annual supply of medical graduates; hospitals would be without internes, and there would soon develop a serious shortage of physicians for both military and civilian needs.

The solution of the problem was found in the National Defense act of 1915, which provided for the Medical Reserve Corps of the Army. Under the provisions of this law medical students were permitted to enroll in the Medical Enlisted Reserve Corps. This made them subject to call at any time, should extreme emergency require it.

It was the stated policy of the Government, however, to leave these students on an inactive status until they should complete their medical course and secure their hospital training. It is believed that they could render the country a better service by finishing their training and becoming efficient medical officers, than by entering at once on active service without that training. The provision for the Medical Enlisted Reserve Corps relieved the uncertainty in regard to the enrollment of medical students, so that medical classes have been re-

[1] This section consists of extracts from a paper prepared by Dr. N. P. Calwell, Secretary of the Council on Education of the American Medical Association for the forthcoming Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.

tained at a normal status, the only loss being of those students who voluntarily enlisted for military service.

Provision was still necessary, however, for the students in the premedical classes who would arrive at draft age before becoming bona fide medical students. The calling into service of such students would prevent the medical schools from obtaining medical students and would eventually be as serious as if the medical students themselves were called to service. There also arose a serious problem as to medical teachers. Those in the draft age were being called into active service and others were volunteering, even though strong efforts were made to induce them to remain at their teaching duties. It appeared that many of the colleges would have to suspend because of the depletion of the ranks of their teachers.

In an effort to solve these problems, at the call of the Surgeon General a conference of representatives of medical schools was held in Chicago, June 11, 1918. At this conference an advisory committee on medical schools, made up of representatives of medical colleges and licensing boards, was chosen to cooperate with the standing committee on medical education of the Medical Department of the Army, for the prompt solution of such problems as might arise in connection with medical education. At a meeting of the two committees on the day following the Chicago conference, attention was called to the provision made for the Students' Army Training Corps, which suggested a solution for the exemption of premedical students. It was also urged that premedical and medical students as well as medical teachers be given Government recognition by being placed in uniform and that the teachers be granted suitable rank.

Another conference of the two committees was held in Washington July 21, 1918. The arrangements for the Students' Army Training Corps has made progress under the committee on education and special training of the War Department. Through the Students' Army Training Corps it was planned that all students enlisting be retained in the colleges until their special training be completed. On arriving at draft age the students would be required to register under the selective service law. When called by his local board, each student's record would be examined and it would be determined whether he would be called in active service. The stated policy of the Government, however, was that students who were making satisfactory headway in their studies would be retained in college until their training had been completed.[1] The Students' Army Training Corps clearly

[1] Since this article was written, changes in the plans outlined have been made necessary under the extension of the draft regulations to include all men from the age of 18 to 45, inclusive. These changes are too extensive as well as incomplete to be dealt with at this time.

provided for the training of medical officers as well as of engineers, and for officers in other special lines. As to the threatened dearth of medical teachers due to losses by enlistment, a solution of the problem was found in the rule providing for the exemption of those engaged in "essential industries." Each college was requested by the Surgeon General to furnish a list of its essential teachers who, it was planned, would not be called to active duty, even though they should enlist, but should be left at their teaching duties on the ground that they were engaged in an "essential industry."

Through the Medical Enlisted Reserve Corps a large majority of the medical student enrollment throughout the United States came under the control of the Surgeon General of the United States Army. This control of the student body, coupled with the measure made necessary to retain in each college an adequate corps of medical teachers, brought the medical schools also to a large extent under the same national control. It became necessary, therefore, soon after a state of war was recognized, for the Surgeon General to designate what medical schools were worthy of recognition and to establish rules for the satisfactory conduct of such colleges. Since previously the legal control of medical education had rested solely with State medical licensing boards, it was determined to consider as "well recognized medical schools" those which were recognized by the majority of State licensing boards. Of the 90 medical collegs now existing, 81 are "well recognized."

The usual demand for physicians as medical officers for the tremendous armies being organized made it necessary carefully to ascertain the present supply of physicians, the future annual output which should be maintained from the medical schools, and the educational standards and other measures which should be enforced, and at the same time guarantee an adequate supply of physicians for civil and military needs. One of the earliest decisions rendered, which has since been adhered to, was that the present reasonable standards of preliminary education, namely, two years of work in an approved college of arts and sciences or its actual equivalent, should be maintained. In fact this standard of premedical qualifications was considered so important that all "well-recognized" medical schools were instructed to enforce that requirement on all students admitted on and after October 15, 1918.

Careful consideration has also been given to the question of requiring continuous sessions in medical schools so that they might promptly and intelligently be put into effect should the emergency demand it. Looking toward this possibility a few of the medical schools which were properly equipped to do so have already put that measure into effect.

PRACTICAL AND CLINICAL EXAMINATIONS.

There has been much improvement in the character of the licensing examination in some States. A larger number of States have established an efficient examination, including practical laboratory and clinical tests, of those who are to practice the healing art, and in this way they are better protecting the public from ignorance and incompetence. Educational and technical efficiency can not be accurately measured by a written examination alone. A student's fitness intelligently to diagnose and treat human disorders can be brought out only by testing his ability to differentiate between normal and abnormal conditions, in the laboratory as well as at the bedside.

An agency has recently been established, the National Board of Medical Examiners, which has been demonstrating how these practical and clinical examinations can be made at frequent intervals in prominent hospitals in various large cities throughout the country; and members of State boards have been invited to attend them. The spirit and purpose of the examinations, as well as the ease and facility with which they are conducted, are so evident that State board members will doubtless be encouraged to adopt them in the regular examination for licensing physicians.

NATIONAL BOARD OF MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

The National Board of Medical Examiners, just mentioned, was organized in 1915. It consists of 15 members, including the Surgeon Generals of the Army, Navy, and Public Health Services and one other representative of each of those services; 3 representatives of State medical licensing boards; and 6 members appointed at large. Its establishment on a high plane was made possible by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, which made an appropriation of $15,000 per year to cover the expenses of the board until such time as it might be placed on a self-supporting basis.

Six examinations have been held by the board; the first and second at Washington, respectively in October, 1916, and in June, 1917; the third at Chicago in October, 1917; the fourth at New York City in January, 1918; and the fifth at Fort Oglethorpe, Ga., and Fort Riley, Kans., in April, 1918. At these examinations altogether 93 applicants were examined, of whom 72 passed and 21 failed, the percentage of failure being 22.6 per cent.

This board is a voluntary organization, its object being to conduct examinations of physicians so thoroughly as to prove without a doubt their qualifications for the practice of medicine. The value of its certificate, aside from being a qualification of merit, depends on the recognition given to it by State medical licensing boards.

Such recognition has already been given or assured by the licensing boards of the following 12 States:

Colorado.	Kentucky.	North Dakota.
Delaware.	Maryland.	Pennsylvania.
Florida.	New Hampshire.	Rhode Island.
Idaho.	North Carolina.	Vermont.

When the permanency of the national board is established and the high character of its examinations is more generally recognized, its certificate will doubtless be recognized by the licensing boards of a large numbers if not all of the States. It will also furnish a credential by which reciprocity in medical licensure with other countries may be established. A successful applicant may enter the regular Medical Corps of either the Army or Navy without further professional examinations, if his papers are passed and are satisfactory to a board of examiners of those services.

PREMEDICAL COLLEGE WORK.

Since, in 1916, two years of work in an "approved" college had been so generally adopted as a minimum educational requirement for admission to medical schools in the United States, it became important to prepare a schedule of the subjects taught in the first two years of recognized colleges which would best prepare the student for his subsequent medical work. A circular letter was sent out by the Council on Medical Education to presidents of 100 or more of the leading universities, as well as to registrars and university examiners who were skilled in the evaluation of credentials of work done in various educational institutions. In this way an abundance of data was collected. A special committee was appointed to study the problem and to develop a schedule of required and elective subjects which would make up the 60 semester hours required, and to have this schedule conform as nearly as possible with the regular curricula of colleges of arts and sciences.

A preliminary report of this committee was prepared and published in August, 1917. It was presented for discussion at the annual congress on medical education and licensure which was held in Chicago in February, 1918, following which the committee completed a report which was finally adopted. This report included a schedule of the subjects usually included in the first two years of the college course. Of the 60 semester hours of premedical college work which were required for admission to medical schools, 12 were to be taken in chemistry, 8 in physics, 8 in biology, and 6 in English, leaving 26 semester hours of elective subjects. It was specified that, of the electives, 12 semester hours should be taken in nonscience subjects. The outline suggested has received the indorsement of the American

Medical Association and the Association of American Medical Colleges, as well as of a considerable number of college presidents.

SCHOOL HYGIENE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

STATE LEGISLATION FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Within the past 3 years, 8 States have enacted laws providing for State-wide physical education, namely, Illinois in 1915; New York in 1916; New Jersey, Nevada, Rhode Island, and California in 1917; Delaware and Maryland in 1918. In 6 other States, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, Ohio, and Colorado, legislative attention has been given to this matter, but no legislation has yet been enacted. In New Jersey and Massachusetts special commissions made exhaustive investigations and reports as the basis for legislative action. Though this legislation in all but 2 States was enacted prior to the current year, it did not become effective until this year, except in New York and Illinois. In New York, however, the law was amended in 1918 so that the law in final form will not be in full effect until 1918–19.

The most significant feature of this legislation is the broad and comprehensive interpretation of physical education given either in the statutes themselves or in the administrative programs adapted by the State departments of education. In the New York program physical education is interpreted as covering: "(1) Individual health examination and personal health instruction (medical inspection); (2) instruction concerning the care of the body and concerning the important facts of hygiene (recitations in hygiene); and (3) physical exercise as a health habit, including gymnastics, elementary marching, organized supervised play, recreation and athletics." In the California statute the aims and purposes of the physical education are specified: "(1) To develop organic vigor, provide neuromuscular training, promote bodily and mental poise, correct postural defects, secure the more advanced forms of coordination, strength, and endurance, and to promote such desirable moral and social qualities, as appreciation of the value of cooperation, self-subordination, and obedience to authority, and higher ideals, courage, and wholesome interest in truly recreational activities; (2) to promote a hygienic school and home life, secure scientific sanitation of school buildings, playgrounds, and athletic fields, and the equipment thereof."

The Rhode Island syllabus states that "Physical education may be defined as including healthful, sanitary environment; medical inspection; instruction in physiology and hygiene; and exercise in the form of such motor activities as marching, gymnastics, dancing, supervised play and athletics."

With the exception of the Nevada law, all of these State laws provide for compulsory physical education in all their public schools. The most notable weakness is the failure to provide adequate financial support for administration and supervision, and the failure to provide administrative means for making the laws locally effective.

The results of the first year under the new law in New Jersey are summarized by the State commissioner as follows:

> Physical training, systematically taught this year for the first time in many schools, will be more effective next year. It has already enlivened the schools, created new enthusiasms and contributed to the welfare of children and teachers. * * * The public needs to realize that money expended for health education, both rural and urban, is money better spent than for almost anything else. * * * We need not only better medical inspection, but also more school nurses, in country as well as in city. It can not be said with emphasis too great that physical training is preparedness. Its purpose is no other than to increase our man and woman power.

THE NATION'S NEED OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

The war has suddenly revealed to us and to all other nations the basic value of human life. It is no longer merely the voice of the philanthropist crying in the wilderness the doctrine of the individual's right to abundance of life; it is the Nation in its hour of crisis demanding the fullest physical capacity of all its men, women, and children. "The truth is pounded home with every succeeding engagement on land and sea that the conservation of human life is now a part of practical affairs, something to receive its place in the everyday consideration of those responsible for national progress." In war's terrible markets human life is the basic legal tender. Money, munitions, ships, and all the other essentials for the prosecution of war are but promissory notes.

This is recognized in the English education bill which at this date (June 30) is in the final stages of passage. It includes provisions for a comprehensive and thorough program of health conservation and physical education. This program covers adequate medical supervision both of children in school and children in industry and physical education in all elementary, secondary, and continuation schools and the provision of proper equipment for the same, and provision for physically and mentally defective children.

In France, a strong committe has been formed, of which several members of the Chamber of Deputies are members, for the study and promotion of physical education, social hygiene and race conservation. The committee proposes to cooperate closely with the public authorities, the universities, the faculties, the commercial centers, the industrial centers, the financial powers, and the press.

Its program includes a general method of rational physical instruction; a system of schools of physical education for instructors of the Army and of both sexes; simplification of school programs and introduction of a physical test in all examinations; emphasis upon outdoor exercises; outdoor schools and open-air colonies for physically abnormal children; complete reorganization of school medical inspection; the employment of trained teachers of gymnastics; legislation restricting juvenile labor; and a larger place in the training for military service to physical education and athletics.

In this country, likewise, we are recognizing that physical efficiency of the citizens is not only a matter of individual or local or State concern, but also a matter of supreme national concern. The fact that the first draft figures show a wide variation in the percentage of physical effectives that the States can contribute to the national defense—an extreme variation of 33 per cent—lifts the question at once into the field of national statesmanship. The experience of the training camps is a conclusive demonstration of the need of a national program that shall produce not only physically sound but also physically educated citizens.

President Emeritus Eliot of Harvard in a weighty address on "Certain Defects in American Education" (Teachers' Leaflet No. 5, Bureau of Education, June, 1918) states the case clearly and forcefully:

> To secure for every child in the country a complete course of physical training is a great national object in war times and peace times alike, and part of the expense of the course should be borne by the National Government. The Swiss Federal Council prescribes the program of physical training for every school in Switzerland, and appoints and pays the national inspectors who see that this program is carried out. The federation also makes a small contribution to the cost of this training throughout the Republic. The war with Germany has already taught us that the United States should henceforth and at once do the same thing in aid of the much larger expenditures of the States and the municipalities on the same all-important subject, and should make sure that the training is actually given. When a proper course of physical training has been in operation in the United States for 12 to 15 years, the productiveness of the national industries will show a great increase, and the young men who are to fill the permanent Army and Navy of the United States will come to the annual mobilization with bodies already fit for the work of a soldier or sailor.

The commission in the national emergency in education of the National Education Association emphasizes strongly the importance of physical education and health conservation in its program for Federal legislation. The American Federation of Labor in its educational program includes the following planks:

> The provision of ample playground facilities as a part of the public-school system.
>
> Continuous medical and dental inspection throughout the schools.

The organization and equipment of special classes for children who are subnormal, either mentally or physically, and also special classes for children who are found capable of making more rapid progress than is possible in a standard school.

The establishment of complete systems of modern physical education.

Numerous patriotic, civic, health, and philanthropic organizations have taken a similar position. A national committee on physical education has been formed with purposes similar to those of the French "committee" already named. More specifically it is devoted to the promotion of State and Federal legislation for physical education. The committee, in its proposed program for Federal legislation, adopts the interpretation of physical education as illustrated in the best recent State laws. "It assumes physical activity as the basic thing, but conditioned upon, and integrally related with, wholesome physical environment, individual physical examination and record, medical supervision of schools and school children, development of health habits and instruction in health knowledge, hygienic school management and procedure, and cooperation with all agencies that make for physical upbuilding and the moral growth inevitably incident to sane, wholesome, active physical life."

It asks that physical education be for boys and girls alike; for all children between 6 and 18 years, inclusive, in all schools and in industry; for provision for investigation and demonstrations in the interest of progressively scientific standards; for Federal aid to the States and Federal cooperation in the administration of all State systems, but with guarantees of State autonomy and initiative.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND MILITARY TRAINING.

Physical education as interpreted by the individuals and organization cited above is not a substitution for military training. With respect to boys, it is premilitary training. It is a program for producing physically fit men and women by physically educating boys and girls during the period of immaturity. The program stops at 18 years of age. Efficient military training can not begin earlier than 18 years. If universal military training should be adopted, this program would insure maximum preparation of a maximum number of young men for military training. It is preparatory to military training in the following ways: By the selection of boys fit for military training through recurrent physical examination during the growth period and the early detection and correction of remediable defects; by systematic training through graded systems of exercises adapted to children of different ages, through corrective exercises for postural and muscular defects and through intensive physical training and athletics for the older boys; by systematic training into health habits and instruction in health knowledge; and

by increasing the physical efficiency of those whose defects would confine them to limited service, through early detection of defects, through specialized training of such individuals, and through keeping them out of occupations for which they are unfit.

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS.

The war has given stimulus to many voluntary organizations seeking to improve the health of school children. It may not be invidious to mention especially the Child Health Organization. This is an outgrowth of a committee of the New York Academy of Medicine on "War-time problems of childhood," formed primarily to study the problem of malnutrition among school children. "The revelation of the extent to which malnutrition had been shown to exist among school children of New York and its steady increase, due to ignorance of food values and the rising cost of food, was brought to the attention of Secretary Lane, of the Department of the Interior, who urged the formation of a national committee composed of lay and medical members to study the problems and advise means for its solution. In order to avoid the creation of an entirely new association, an organization to promote the health of school children was perfected as one of the branches of the National Child Labor Committee, which has always been interested in health education."

The following is a program that the Child Health Organization has set itself: To teach health habits to children and to secure adequate health examinations for all children in the public schools of the country; to consider the urgent problem of malnutrition among school children; to safeguard the health of children in industry; propaganda to awaken the public to the necessity of conserving the health of the school child as a basis of national security and stability; to promote or cooperate with other bodies in securing legislation for the attainment of these objects.

Active cooperation with the Bureau of Education is assured.

SEX EDUCATION.

The war has lifted the veil of false modesty from the question of social hygiene and sex education. Effective methods of instruction in the cantonments have been developed. The Commission on Training Camp Activities through its camp community service has done much to educate the public. The State health departments and the United States Public Health Service have carried on effective educational propaganda. Religious and educational societies as well as medical societies are seriously grappling with the great problems of sex education. The bureau in cooperation with the medical section of the Council of National Defense, as noted above (p. —), has issued

a pamphlet "Keeping Fit" for high-school boys, giving simply and briefly the main factors in physical fitness, including sex. The appreciation of this pamphlet has been instantaneous and sincere. Requests have come for large numbers of copies, not only from high schools, but also from the Young Men's Christian Association, Boy Scouts, industrial firms, and many other sources. Several hundred thousand copies will be needed to meet the demand in the coming year.

MEDICAL INSPECTION.

In all foreign countries the medical supervision of schools has suffered during the war. School medical officers, like all other members of the medical profession, have been called to military service. In our own country the same condition prevails though to a less degree. In few States or communities, however, has there been any improvement in the work of school medical supervision. North Carolina appears to be one exception. The revised law which went into effect at the beginning of the present school year requires that teachers shall make a preliminary examination of all pupils, and provides for detailed examination of all suspected children by the county medical officer or by a physician designated by the State health department. The report of the first year's work under the new law shows that "more than 3,000 teachers properly filled out the cards after careful preliminary examination of more than 150,000 children"; and that of this "number of children, 34,387, or nearly one-fourth, have been carefully examined by the school physician or a specially trained school nurse." The report further shows much successful follow-up work and the establishment of dental clinics. "The most gratifying feature of the year's work has been the uniformly satisfactory work of the teachers in completing the preliminary examination of the children."

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE WAR.

When America entered the war the slogan of the schools became "Win the war," and this determined purpose has since conditioned their every activity. Upon the declaration of war the school machinery of every State in the Union was placed at the disposal of the Federal Government which found in it a valuable means for the quick dissemination among the people of that information and instruction needed to develop and conserve an enlightened and unified public opinion. Efforts, too, of the pupils themselves were effectively enlisted in drives for liberty loans, thrift-stamp sales, and Red Cross aid; in increasing the production of food and the saving of it; and in harvesting crops where the labor supply was inadequate. Moreover, the content of practically every study in our curricula has

been profoundly modified by war considerations leading, indeed, to a vitalizing of work never before experienced by the schools of this country. A new significance, it can not be doubted, has been given especially to the teaching of history, civics, geography, language, and the sciences. The kindergartners of America also, responding to the new impulses, have not only organized and equipped a kindergarten unit and sent it to France to work among the little children of the devastated area and through plays, games, stories, and handwork are giving back to them the happiness of normal childhood but they are, as never before, cooperating with established social agencies employed in child conservation to the end that childhood in our own country may be saved from the blighting effects of war conditions.

PROBLEMS OF RECONSTRUCTION.

While the "Win-the-war" slogan still expresses the unalterable purpose of the schools, as of every other national agency, nevertheless it is recognized that consideration must more and more be accorded the problems of reconstruction. In this matter France and England have pointed the way, for not only have they adapted their schools to the exigencies of war, but along with these tasks they have not neglected to plan for and in part execute changes in their systems in anticipation of postwar conditions and the problems which the reconstruction of a changed world will entail.

With us, perhaps, the problem of first importance which must be faced, a problem which the war has thrown into sharp relief, is that of amalgamating our foreign born, transforming them into loyal, literate, and efficient citizens. The revelation of the 1910 census that there were 5,500,000 people in the United States who could neither read nor write attracted little attention, but the fact that of 10,000,000 registrants for the selective draft there were 700,000 who could not write their names and an equal number who could not speak English and who could not, because of a lack of a common medium, respond intelligently to military or industrial orders on the one hand, and to moral and spiritual appeals on the other, has aroused the Nation to the magnitude and importance of the problem as nothing else has ever done.

It is clear that this is, first of all, a problem of the schools, though the schools are by no means the only agency making for Americanization, and the teaching of the English language is the first step in the fusing process. While in the accomplishment of this task every bit of school machinery is needed, nevertheless opportunity for service knocks with particular distinctness at the door of the kindergarten, of the elementary day school, and of the night school. Upon these institutions there rests in unusual degree responsibility for giving the immigrant his first view of the customs, the thoughts, and

the ideals of the country of his adoption. As feasible steps in Americanizing the foreign-born there should be a law on the statute books of every State compelling every alien child, between the ages of 6 and 14, to attend the elementary day school for full time. There should be opportunity for every child of foreign birth, between the ages of 4 and 6, to attend a public kindergarten. Furthermore, wherever a group of 15 or 20 aliens beyond the age of 15 can be found who desire instruction, there should be established a night-school class equipped with all the materials essential to efficient work. In short, the important problem of peace as of war is the fusing of our racial groups, in the accomplishment of which the public school should set itself no less a program than that of providing adequate schooling for our entire foreign-born population, whether old or young, whether male or female, whether married or unmarried.

TEACHER SHORTAGE.

Inasmuch as the interpreters of America to the newcomers are of necessity the teachers of such classes it is of surpassing importance that men and women whose character and training are of the finest, and who appreciate the greatness of their opportunity, be enlisted in this work. A necessary prerequisite to securing teachers of the type desired is the fixing of salary schedules at a point which will enable teachers to live in reasonable comfort, and yet have a margin adequate to permit them to avail themselves of opportunities for personal growth; and with a margin, too, generous enough to make it possible for them to command that respect and recognition in the community to which the dignity and importance of their work entitle them.

If we fail to make such provision the work of our schools will suffer, through the impermanence of the teaching force. Indeed, already our schools are in grave danger of disorganization because the increase of teachers' salaries has lagged far behind the rise in the cost of living, on the one hand, and behind the advance in wages paid by industry, on the other. Again, large numbers of young men teachers have entered the Army. This depletion of the teaching force has in some parts of the country reached the proportion of a teacher "famine." Careful estimates based upon reports from nearly every section of the country would indicate that the actual teacher shortage may now reach an aggregate of 40,000. Reports indicate also that an unprecedented number of those now teaching are inexperienced, estimates fixing the number at a quarter of a million nearly. Clearly, then, the stabilization of the teaching force is demanded, not alone in preparation for the great work of Americanization which will be sharply accentuated after the war is over, but because the very

integrity of the school organization which has been built up likewise demands that serious consideration of this matter be not long delayed. Among the effective ways, surely, of checking teacher withdrawals are: The upward revision of salary schedules; providing increases beyond a given maximum which all can reach, for demonstrated efficiency and worth; and creating an adequate retirement fund, which will enable teachers to spend the years of declining age in peace and comfort and with honor.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND SPIRIT.

Despite concerted effort to hold pupils in school there have been losses, particularly in schools of secondary rank. Many of the older boys have responded to the appeal of active war service and many others, comprising both boys and girls, have entered the industries tempted by the offer of high wages. However, it may be said that the measures taken to lessen the movement away from the schools have been effective, for the loss has not been nearly so great as many anticipated. Indeed, many schools report an actual increase in the number attending, though many individuals have left school before their work was completed. Moreover, superintendents are reporting that never before have pupils been so enthusiastic, so earnest, and so persistent in their work. In large measure this is due undoubtedly to the fact that teachers have approached their work with a greater earnestness of purpose, and also to the fact that they have incorporated a fresh content in practically every subject of school curricula.

CLOSER EDUCATIONAL RELATIONS WITH OUR ALLIES.

The latest example of the long look ahead toward closer relations, commercial and educational, which are sure to prevail among the allied nations, is furnished by the French High Commission, which has arranged to send a number of young women of high-school education to this country for intensive courses in our institutions. These young women, for the most part, are daughters of French officers who were killed in the war. It is probable that this group is but the vanguard of larger numbers, if this initial experiment proves to be a success.

As it is the wish of the members of the French High Commission that these girls have the opportunity of becoming acquainted with the home life of our people, it has been arranged that they are to be taken into representative homes and treated as members of the families rather than as boarders.

It has been suggested that after the termination of the war a reciprocal arrangement be entered into for an interchange of young

people between the two countries. If the plan is consummated, it will prove a powerful factor in binding together more firmly than ever before the people of these two Republics.

In another way this closer relationship with France is being brought about. In the devastated areas of France particularly many highly educated teachers have been obliged to relinquish their work and, in consequence, are available for appointment in this country, where teachers of French, or French in combination with other subjects, are needed.

The Bureau of Education in cooperation with the American Council on Education and the French High Commission has, by means of a circular letter, called attention to this opportunity. Immediate and generous response was made and calls came for nearly 200 such teachers. As fast as received these were placed in the hands of the French High Commission. The Paris agents of the commission are recruiting teachers for this service, and it is expected that many such will find their way into our schools and educational institutions.

THE GROWTH OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

The rapid growth of the junior high-school movement has been one of the striking features of the past year. Wherever a reorganization of the school system has been discussed, the organization of the junior high school has found favor. The reasons for its easy acceptance rest in part, to be sure, in the fact that its introduction involves no demoralizing change in the established school organization. Herein lies one of the dangers that must be recognized, for it is obvious that if the junior high school is to become anything more than a name it must involve a reorganization that is more than a mere regrouping of grades and classes; it must contain and conserve all those provisions for the educational guidance of the individual pupil in a wide, flexible, adaptable curriculum for which it was established.

It is not improbable that five years may see its inclusion in the majority of the schools of the country. Prof. Davis, of Ann Arbor, has investigated the junior high schools in the north central association territory, 1917–18, and has found that about one-fourth (2,931) of the accredited schools of the region contained this form of organization, and that about one-sixteenth (72) had been organized in 1917. The year 1918, Prof. Davis believes, will show an even greater increase. It is believed that the growth in the region for which he reports is typical of the whole country.

AMERICANIZATION THROUGH EDUCATION.[1]

Progress in the field of Americanization through education has been extraordinarily rapid. This has been due primarily to the war. Official and unofficial agencies which hitherto had never given any attention to the subject of Americanization were forced by necessity to deal with the subject. The attitude of the American people generally toward the population of foreign birth has been undergoing many and rapid changes. On the one hand, the evil of dual allegiance as expressed in hyphenated citizenship has brought home to the average American citizen the necessity of providing opportunities for the education and training of the immigrant in the American language, citizenship, and forms of living. Where before in the breast of many naturalized citizens had been slumbering almost complete allegiance for the land of their origin, an allegiance not apparent to Americans, under the pressure of war this hidden sentiment was brought to light. It was loudly condemned by Americans, and its existence once appreciated caused an impetus to be given toward the more fundamental training of immigrants in every aspect of life and citizenship in America.

On the other hand, it came to be seen that a united people back of the fighting line was indispensable to victory. Since a large proportion of our population was of foreign birth or of foreign parentage, special attention to the morale of this portion of our people became a war necessity. Persons of foreign birth were employed in our war industries; others moved forward to take the place of citizens drafted into military service. Upon their labor the entire country was dependent for food, clothing, coal, and war materials. Any break in or impediment to their support and allegience to this country and the cause of the allies meant the possibility of failure and perhaps ultimate defeat. Hence our internal line of defense had to be maintained at all cost. It is for these reasons that the cause of Americanization through education has gone forward rapidly.

This development of a national consciousness of the problem of Americanization and its many phases forced an organization and formulation of Federal plans and activities. This program is based on the results of four years of study of this subject by the Bureau of Education, and this bureau has been the principal agent in its presentation. It comprehended the promotion of school legislation, changes in the organization and administration of public evening schools and other facilities, modification in the instruction, methods, and subject matter, extension of facilities in factories and homes and the stimulation of public institutions, such as libraries and of unofficial organiza-

[1] Summary of chapter for the forthcoming biennial survey of education in the United States, by H. H. Wheaton.

tions, and finally a general coordinating and correlating of the many official and unofficial activities desiring to cooperate in a national program. On December 13, 1917, the Council of National Defense indorsed the activities being conducted by virtue of this program and on February 12, 1918, announced a general national program to be worked out through the State Councils of Defense and subsidiary organizations throughout the country.

Under this program, as set forth in Bulletin 86, the several States were urged to pass legislation requiring the attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate persons between 16 and 21 years of age at some school or other recognized facility under public supervision. Incidentally they were urged to require communities with a substantial number of immigrants to establish evening schools for their education. Adequate appropriations were urged and each State having a substantial population of foreign born was urged to appoint supervisors of immigrant education to conduct the State program. Emphasis was laid upon the necessity of training institutions for teachers of immigrants and upon the necessity of improving the equipment of teachers for this kind of work through the proper preliminary instruction. State councils and community councils were urged to promote factory classes, to increase library facilities and to coordinate the varied activities of private and unofficial organizations and agencies.

Under this plan about 30 States have organized State committees on Americanization, 6 have appointed State directors of Americanization, while a number of others have secretaries of the committees on Americanization. At least 3 States have deputized existing departments or commissions to carry on the activities of the State councils in the field of Americanization. At the close of the fiscal year the national plan in conjunction with the States has gotten well under headway.

State boards of education or commissions have been especially active during the last two years. In June, 1917, the New York Department of Education appointed a State Supervisor of Immigrant Education, under whom has been organized a large number of activities in the many towns and cities of the State. The supervisor is charged with the direction of organization work, with the organization of teachers' training institutes and normal-school instruction, with the formulation of plans for industrial plants interested in the instruction of employees, with the supervision of camp schools, and with the preparation of courses, syllabi, and other material essential to instruction in English and civics. In Massachusetts the State board of education has organized a division of university extension, under which activities have been stimulated in many communities and methods of teacher training developed. Within the last year a

State supervisor of immigrant education has been appointed who is devoting his entire time to the subject. In California the commission of housing and immigration, in conjunction with the State department of education, has secured the passage of a Home Teacher act, providing for the bringing of the instruction in English and civics, personal hygiene, sanitation, and other appropriate subjects to the homes of the immigrants. Through the cooperation of the State Daughters of the American Revolution, the women's organizations of the State and other interested agencies, an experiment was conducted in San Francisco pursuant to the provisions of the act. Success has been marked and the plan is to extend the system of home instruction. The commission has also published pamphlets and courses of instruction in English and civics.

Great progress is noted in a large number of cities. Not only has the number of evening schools been increased in those communities already having such facilities for instruction, but the number of cities creating evening schools for the first time has very substantially increased. It is interesting to note, however, that while the number of opportunities for instruction has very largely increased, yet attendance has not been altogether satisfactory. Labor conditions, overtime work, and the pressure of war activities, coupled with anti-American propaganda, have very largely caused a decrease in the average attendance of immigrants upon public evening schools. This has caused the cities to redouble their efforts in publicity and the advertising of facilities. Many have published attractive posters and distributed handbills announcing evening schools, the subjects of instruction, and the location and hours. Supervisors of immigrant education have been appointed in Rochester, Detroit, Cleveland, Los Angeles, and other large cities. In some, assistant superintendents of schools have been charged with the responsibility for the immediate direction of evening schools, with particular emphasis upon the education of immigrants.

In New York City a unique experiment was tried in the line of social activities. The object of these activities, which comprehended dancing, lectures, entertainments, musicals, and other attractive forms of recreation and amusement, was to stimulate immigrants to come to the public schools and acquire the habit of making these the center of their recreation and amusement. At all of these places English was made the language of social intercourse. Many immigrants who would not otherwise have attended evening school were thus persuaded to join the classes in English and civics.

In Detroit an extraordinary campaign of publicity has been carried on by the board of commerce in conjunction with the board of education. The result was to increase very substantially the number attending. The cooperation of industrial plants was secured in

sending their employees to school or in establishing plant classes. Campaigns of a similar type were carried on in Buffalo, Rochester, Boston, Cleveland, Pittsburgh, and other places. In New York City, Detroit, Buffalo, Rochester, Boston, and Cleveland special courses in the training of teachers were conducted. In all of the cities mentioned in New York State these courses were conducted under the general supervision of the State department of education, which at the last session of its legislature secured an appropriation of $20,000 for the purpose of training the teachers of the State. Such training has been carried on to an extent in other States, such as Massachusetts and Connecticut, under the supervision of the State departments of education.

Legislation upon the subject of Americanization has made distinct, although not extensive, advance. In New York State the legislature at its last session passed three bills: One providing for the compulsory attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate minors between the ages of 16 and 21 years at some public school, plant school, or recognized private school; a second providing for the compulsory maintenance of schools and classes in every community where 20 or more minors were affected by the preceding bill; and a third appropriating $20,000 for teacher training. In Arizona the governor made an attempt to secure the passage of similar legislation without success, but the legislature did pass a bill appropriating $20,000 to be expended in the nature of State aid for the establishment and maintenance of suitable facilities for immigrants. In Wisconsin the various acts relating to vocational education and part-time instruction were amended in such way as practically to require the attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate persons upon some school as a preliminary to part-time instruction. Federal legislation was proposed by the National Committee of One Hundred. The proposed bills provided for a system of Federal aid to the several States, appropriating like sums for instruction in English, civics, and other subjects. The bills have been approved by a large number of State councils of defense, industrial establishments, school authorities, and others, and have been placed in the hands of the President for his consideration as administration measures related to the winning of the war.

The work of private agencies and unofficial organizations has been extensive. The Carnegie Corporation has entered into the field of investigation of the methods of Americanization. The national Americanization committee has continued its cooperative arrangements with the Bureau of Education and other agencies of the Federal Government. Pamphlets in foreign languages have been distributed by the Sons of the American Revolution, while other patriotic societies have distributed printed propaganda on the subject. The

Council of Jewish Women has been particularly active through its many branches. The Young Men's Christian Association has not only conducted its former classes in English and citizenship in the many associations throughout the country, but has assisted the War Department in carrying on instruction within the military training camps. The Young Women's Christian Association has conducted instruction in its international institutes in several cities, while the United States Chamber of Commerce has promoted the cause of Americanization through the local chambers of commerce and through the many industrial establishments employing foreign-born labor. Over a hundred chambers of commerce have appointed Americanization committees and are now engaged in cooperating with school boards and other agencies in the stimulation of attendance and in the establishment of adequate and proper facilities.

Some improvement has been noted in the subject matter of instruction. It is coming into the consciousness of school authorities and teachers that instruction of immigrants in English and civics must be preeminently practical, hence new courses and material have been created for the use of teachers in the schoolroom. More distinct advance is seen in the actual methods of instruction. The dramatic theme method has become popular and seems to be making the most decided impression on school authorities and teachers. Greater attention is now paid to the advertisement of evening schools through posters, handbills, and through supplementary agencies. Correlation and coordination of the efforts of organizations of the foreign born, as well as the native born, have been emphasized more particularly during the past year. A large number of industrial plants have established plant classes, while most of those which have had facilities for some years have continued their maintenance. Conspicuous among these plants are the Ford Motor Co., which has maintained a very large school for non-English-speaking employees for over three years; the D. E. Sicher Co., New York City, where the classes have been annexed to the nearest public school; the Joseph & Feiss Co., of Cleveland; the Packard Motor Co., of Detroit, and many others.

The most significant aspects of the progress made have been the increased consciousness of the American people of the necessity of Americanization, the effort to provide practical instruction, and the increased cooperation among official and unofficial agencies.

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION.

As reflected in State legislation, educational movements of the year have not been especially conspicuous, either for new developments or for quickened pace along older lines of progress. There were only eleven regular sessions of legislatures in 1918, and the European war was no doubt uppermost in the minds of many of

those lawmakers who were in session. The war, however, has already left an impress upon educational legislation as upon everything else, although most legislatures of 1917 had adjourned or were at the point of adjourning when war was declared. By the time of the assembling of legislative bodies in 1918, the war spirit had taken thorough hold of the people. School legislation, in consequence, hardly escaped its effect. This is seen in the enactment of laws looking to the Americanization of aliens and the elimination of illiteracy among native Americans, the provisions for instruction in patriotism and the commemoration of patriotic days and events, stronger emphasis on physical training in the schools, emergency measures for the increase of teachers' pay, and similar measures.

The new laws designed to promote patriotism generally took the form of a requirement that patriotic instruction and exercises be incorporated in the curriculum and, in the absence of previous law on the subject, provision for the display of the United States flag on the schoolhouse or grounds. New York and Texas were among the States which made provision for patriotic instruction. In the former, the older law left to the option of the school board the inclusion of patriotic lessons in the curriculum; the new law requires instruction in patriotism in all schools, private as well as public. The Texas law, enacted at a special session of the legislature held in 1918, requires every public-school teacher to devote at least 10 minutes each school day to instruction designed to inculcate "intelligent patriotism."

The display of the United States flag on or near every public-school building is required in about three-fourths of the States.

The elimination of illiteracy and the Americanization of aliens engaged the attention of the legislators of several States during the year. Among these were Arizona, Kentucky, Mississippi, and New York. The State last mentioned attacked the problem from three directions. A law known as the "Lockwood law" authorizes the establishment of institutes in the normal schools and in cities for the purpose of training teachers to give instruction to adult illiterates. A second law requires attendance at either day or evening school of all minors between 16 and 21 years of age who do not possess such ability to speak and write the English language as is required for completing the work of the fifth grade of the public schools. A third law requires the maintenance of evening schools in cities of the first, second, and third classes and in union free school districts under certain prescribed conditions.

After the outbreak of hostilities in Europe a strong impetus was given to physical training in the public schools of this country. This is evidenced by the enactment of the laws of New York and Louisiana in 1916 and by the adoption early in 1917 of provisions for physical

training in all schools or for military training in high schools, or for both, in Arizona, Indiana, New Jersey, Oklahoma, and Oregon. Since the entry of the United States into the war, California, Michigan, Rhode Island, and Maryland have enacted similar laws. That of the last-mentioned State was enacted in 1918. According to the provisions of this law, physical training must be provided in all public schools and schools receiving State aid. The State board of education is directed to regulate such training and to appoint a State supervisor of physical training and such assistants as may be deemed necessary.

The rapid rise in prices due to war conditions and the concomitant increase in pay to industrial workers and other wage earners made necessary an effort to adjust teachers' salaries to these new and appreciably abnormal conditions. The efforts of local school authorities to meet the emergency are, of course, not shown in State legislation, but in several legislatures which have been in session this year the matter has received consideration. New laws fixing minimum salaries that may be paid public-school teachers were passed by the legislatures of Kentucky, Maryland, and Massachusetts. In Wisconsin, where a special session of the legislature was held, cities of the first class were authorized to levy an additional tax for the purpose of paying more salaries to teachers during the period of the war and for one year thereafter. South Carolina provided for the establishment, in the office of State superintendent of education, of a bureau for the registration and employment of teachers.

Some other measures upon which the war doubtless exerted an influence were, (1) the law of New York requiring teachers to be either American citizens or persons who have taken proper steps to become such; (2) the law of New Jersey to permit any pupil in the senior year of a public educational institution who is inducted into the military or naval forces of the United States to graduate, if he has completed his work up to the time of such induction; and (3) the bill passed in Kentucky which was designed to prohibit teaching the German language in the elementary and high schools of the State. The Kentucky measure, however, was vetoed by the governor.

There were, of course, many laws enacted in 1918 in which the "war impulse" was not dominant or in the enactment of which military considerations were of small consequence. Three groups of enactments are of sufficient importance to warrant notice here. These are compulsory attendance laws, provisions for the better financial support of schools, and acts relating to vocational education.

Beginning with the enactment of the Massachusetts law in 1852, the movement in America for compulsory attendance at school has

gone on apace for over half a century. The provision for required attendance has spread to the Pacific Ocean and to the Gulf of Mexico, and where it has been in force for years there is still a tendency to make stronger its hold on the ground which it has gained. These facts have added significance now that Mississippi, the last of the States to enact such a law, has made provision for compulsory attendance by act of 1918. All of the 48 States now require attendance at school for some period of years of the child's life and for all or some part of the school term. The new Mississippi law carries a local-option feature; that is to say, it is to apply only in counties and independent school districts wherein it is adopted by vote of the qualified electors. Three other States—South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida—have provisions in their attendance laws which are in effect local option in character. Other noteworthy attendance laws of 1918 were the Massachusetts act further regulaing the maintenance of county truant schools, the Kentucky act extending to magistrate's and police courts jurisdiction in cases arising under the attendance law, and the Virginia act making State-wide the application of its law.

One of the most significant features of progress in school administration during recent years has been the trend toward a unit of administration and support which shall be larger than the local district. Evidence of the presence of this trend in the legislatures of 1918, especially with regard to school support, is unquestionable. In Louisiana five amendments to the constitution were proposed, all of which were designed to make more stable the State's system of school support and, particularly, to shift the burden more from the local community to the county and to the State. In Virginia, the State school tax levy was increased from 10 to 14 cents on the hundred of property valuation, and $100,000 was added to the annual appropriation. The lower house of the Georgia Legislature increased the annual school appropriation of that State from $3,200,000 to $4,200,000, and this large increase remained in the bill until 3.10 a. m. of the last night of the legislature, when the increase was reduced in conference committee of the two houses from $1,000,000 to $300,000. In Massachusetts and Maryland, like tendencies to add to the State's share in school support were in evidence.

The movement for industrial education which began in this country more than a decade ago and culminated in the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act of February 23, 1917, providing Federal aid for vocational education, was up for consideration in some of the legislatures of 1918 which had not previously considered it. The lawmakers of Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Rhode Island, and Virginia accepted the provisions of the act. All other States have

not met, in part at least, the conditions prescribed by the Federal Board for Vocational Education and are entitled to the benefits of the act under its provisions.

RURAL EDUCATION.

Progress in rural education throughout the nation, while not decisive nor marked by any great advance in any one phase, has been continuous in a variety of activities. The war emergency has emphasized the educational requirements of modern agricultural communities and has accentuated the marked weaknesses in our rural school system. The general public is realizing the necessity of reorganization of the provisions made for education in the country.

Administration of rural schools.—The problem of education in rural communities has attained too great a magnitude to be left entirely to purely local control and support. A larger unit of administration, preferably the county unit, with modifications which adapt it to local conditions, State cooperation and financial aid for the development of rural education are reforms rapidly materializing in many States. During the year New Mexico adopted the county unit for all school purposes, making the nineteenth State organized wholly or in part on that basis.

Professional supervision of rural schools.—Some real progress has been made in many States toward professional supervision. State and county departments of education have added to their regular staff. Washington, Montana, and Vermont are among those States which provide State supervision of rural education, and Maryland, Kentucky, and West Virginia have devised plans for increased supervision of rural schools under county direction.

In Maryland provision has been made by which each county with 100 teachers or more will have at least one specially trained supervisor in addition to the county superintendent, the attendance officer, and the statistical clerk.

Kentucky has recently introduced professional supervision for both white and colored schools. At the present time 32 white supervisors are engaged in 24 counties, and 18 colored supervisors in as many counties.

West Virginia was one of the first States to subdivide its counties for supervision purposes and now has as many as four supervisors in certain counties.

Increased financial support.—The country needs progressive legislation to procure more equitable taxation and at the same time to provide more liberal support for schools in rural communities. Higher State and county, as well as local taxation, must be resorted to. Practically all the States that make use of State taxation and appropria-

tion for school purposes have been obliged recently to increase the amount greatly, and county and local communities have done likewise.

Maryland increased its State appropriation in 1918 from $1,750,000 to $2,000,000, and in addition provides bonuses of from $50 to $100 to teachers who remain in their schools throughout the year. North Dakota has increased the amount of State aid for standardization and consolidation of rural schools from $120,000 to $225,000. Other States are doing as much or more than these.

Teachers' salaries.—The unprecedented opportunity in industrial activities due to the war threatens a serious exodus from the teaching profession, especially in the rural field. Many States have taken steps to increase teachers' salaries liberally, but even larger increases will be necessary to keep the best men and women in the schools. The following are some of the increases in salary lists reported for 1918:

Maine increased salaries about 25 per cent.

In Montana few schools pay less than $70 per month in rural communities, with the majority ranging from $85 to $100 per month for experienced teachers.

In Maryland minimum salaries increased in 1918 from $600 to $800 for high-school teachers. The following schedule prevails for elementary teachers according to length of experience:

Grade of certificate.	Beginning teachers.	3 years' experience.	5 years' experience.	8 years' experience.
Third	$400	$425	$450	$475
Second	450	475	500	525
First	500	525	550	600
Principal	550	575	600	650

Kentucky has recently passed a minimum-salary law giving teachers of the second class $45 per month, teachers of the first class $55 per month.

In Pennsylvania the following minimum salaries have been adopted: Professional certificate, $45 per month; professional and normal certificate, $55 per month; permanent certificates, $60 per month.

Washington increased salaries from 15 to 20 per cent. Teachers are generally engaged 12 months in the year.

In Wyoming rural teachers' salaries range from a minimum of $70 to $90 per month and a maximum of $100 to $125 per month.

Vermont increased salaries during the year 12 per cent. Teachers are almost invariably employed by the year.

Organization of rural schools.—Improvement of the one-teacher school through standardization, where the centralization movement

is impracticable; specially prepared teachers; the all-year school accompanied by an increased number of teachers' cottages and a better type of school consolidation, characterized the progress made in rural school organization during the year.

One of the most comprehensive score cards for rural school standardization yet devised was published in the Kansas State Agricultural College Bulletin of June, 1918. The score card gives 1,000 points for perfect plant and an additional 1,000 points for teaching equipment and efficiency, subdivided as follows:

	Points.
Site	235
Buildings	445
Service and equipment	320
Teaching equipment	500
Special activities	200
Efficiency plans and provisions	300

Real progress is being made in the construction of houses for teachers. The State of Washington reports 196 teachers' cottages erected and more under way. Wyoming reports that many cottages have been erected during the year. Texas now counts upward of 200 cottages and several other States are accomplishing almost as much.

Consolidation.—Experimentation in school consolidation has passed and the movement is accepted as good national policy. There are about 10,500 consolidated schools in the United States in 1918 resulting from the centralization of two or more schools. The new schools are organized with a view to preparing for the new agricultural era a permanent farming population trained for farm work, and at the same time having high ideals of citizenship. The following gives some idea of the progress made in a few of the States from which reports were received in 1918:

Maine reports many schools closed during the year, conveying the children to stronger and better schools. South Dakota, a State in which school consolidation is of recent origin, reports 42 new consolidated schools. Maryland and Kentucky depend more on closing small unnecessary schools and conveying the children to larger one and two teacher schools. Kentucky thus far has 79 consolidated schools, 12 of them with transportation, but it has 1,084 rural schools with two or more teachers. In New Mexico school consolidation is progressing rapidly in the irrigated sections, where many large consolidated schools have been organized during the past biennium. Washington has increased the number of its consolidated schools to 23. North Dakota has opened 52 consolidated schools and voted 60 new consolidations during the year. The total number of consolidated schools in actual operation is 447. West Virginia has 120 consolidated schools, 20 of which were organized in 1918. Penn-

sylvania reports 715 schoolrooms closed as result of consolidation in the past 10 years, of which 684 were one-room schools. Six thousand two hundred and one children are transported to these schools in 326 vans, coaches, or wagons. In Iowa 235 consolidated districts were organized up to June 30, 1917. Two hundred and forty-five thousand dollars was expended as State aid for consolidation.

Rural high schools.—There is a decided movement throughout the country to establish rural high schools of an agricultural type in the open country or in the rural villages. Some States are finding that the solution of rural school organization will probably be the adoption of some form of the junior high school. In West Virginia the State board of education has recently adopted a sweeping 6, 3, 3, plan for the organization of all the schools of the State. In Vermont, the State Commissioner of Education, Dr. Milo B. Hillegas, reports that the 12 junior high schools in operation during 1916–17 were eminently successful and the number will doubtless be extended.

The rural school course of study.—Some States, notably Louisiana, are beginning to plan distinctive courses of study for the rural schools. A number of committees have been organized, or are being organized, for the purpose of making a fundamental study of the entire field of rural education. Columbia University, through its rural education department, is conducting such a study. This embraces a plan of cooperation between teachers' college and two New Jersey counties, the schools of which will be used as practice schools and study laboratories for the development of teaching practice and course of study for rural schools.

Professional requirements.—Maine, Vermont, Oregon, Washington, and Michigan have increased the professional requirements for teachers during the year. The requirement of a four-year high-school course and at least one year of professional training in addition thereto, as recommended by the United States Bureau of Education, has been adopted in several sections of the country. Wisconsin, Indiana, and Maryland are among the States which base their salary scales on the degree and kind of professional preparation and tenure in the same community.

Schools preparing rural teachers.—The real hope of the country for an ample supply of well-trained rural teachers rests with the public normal schools. Many of them have reorganized their work to meet the demands for the new type of rural teachers. Up to the present time 122 rural school departments have been established in the normal schools. Altogether, 84 of these departments make use of rural practice schools; 97 other normal schools offer specific courses for training rural teachers during either the regular or summer sessions.

TEACHER TRAINING.

In common with that of other higher institutions of learning the work of the teacher-training schools was extensively modified by war conditions. Decreased attendance in both regular and summer sessions and an almost complete lack of men students are reported from a majority of these institutions for the year 1918. The courses have been materially changed; many institutions offering courses intended directly to qualify for certain kinds of war work. Practically all have devoted time usually given to social and other extramural activities to Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, Liberty loan drives, and the like. In most instances teacher-training institutions have aimed to qualify their students better to take an active part in community war work and to interest and instruct the children under their charge in the Nation's war aims and activities.

In general, building is entirely suspended for the period of the war. Two institutions report enlarging the school plant, but as a rule necessary improvements only are made. One new State normal school is reported as opening its doors during the year. Three institutions report new buildings, two of which were practice schools and one a model rural school erected on the campus for practice and observation work.

Summer schools are increasing in usefulness as well as in length. Four normal schools report the adoption of a 12-week summer school, which is one of four sessions into which the school year is divided. In many instances enrollment in summer schools has increased in spite of the adverse conditions prevailing.

There is a growing appreciation of the value of extension work in teacher training and of the need of extending facilities for increased professional training to teachers in service. One institution reports adding to its rural school department an extension agent who is devoting his whole time to this phase of the work. Nine additional institutions report the establishment of new or improved extension activities. Several of these send out books, Victrolas, Babcock testers, and the like, to be used in rural schools. One institution reports 310 teachers enrolled as students in its extension division.

Nine teacher-training institutions report the establishment during the year of specialized departments for training rural and agricultural teachers. As a rule some method of providing practice teaching facilities has been adopted, the kind varying in different States with local conditions and school facilities. Teachers' cottages often are erected in connection with the separate practice schools.

Most encouraging progress is reported in regard to advanced education and professional requirements for certifying teachers and for entrance to normal-school courses. More and more emphasis is

placed on attendance at professional schools and less on academic examination in the certification of teachers. Two States, North Dakota and Louisiana, are no longer renewing certificates on examination only. In two States laws have been passed requiring all applicants for certificates to have education equivalent to graduation from a four-year standard high school and nine weeks' additional professional training. These laws go into effect in 1919 and 1920. One State offers a bonus for teachers having two years' professional training in addition to graduation from a four-year high school.

Several institutions are lengthening their courses from two to four years. In general the four-year courses lead to the A. B. degree.

In many schools household economics and agriculture are receiving renewed attention. An interesting experiment is reported from the State normal school at Arcata, Cal. The plan is to place all of the rural schools in three counties under the direct supervision of members of the faculty of the normal school. In the county in which the school is located the faculty members are to spend two days a week in this supervision. In the two counties more remote more than half the time of the instructors is given to the work.

A large number of teacher-training institutions report modification or enlargement of their courses to meet the requirements of the Smith-Hughes law in order that they may secure the Federal appropriations made available under its provisions.

EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE CHURCHES.

The most significant tendency of the year in the educational work of the churches, greatly stimulated by the war, has been the increasing cooperation of all the interests in the field of religious education. Within particular denominations there is a definite tightening of the bonds uniting educational institutions. During the year the Protestant Episcopal board has strengthened its college department; the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America is consolidating its various educational interests under a single board; the Methodist Episcopal Church South is expanding the work of its board of education and organizing its colleges in an association; and the Reformed Church in America is projecting a survey of its educational interests.

The extent of interdenominational cooperation may be estimated from some of the activities in which the various churches have joined forces. At the present time colleges of most of the Protestant denominations, together with many Catholic schools, are combining much of their advertising under the leadership of the Council of

Church Boards of Education, various State associations of colleges, and State Councils of Defense, and the National Council on Education, which conducted an emergency campaign from Washington in 1918. The various church boards of education have combined their educational survey work and investigation in a single department.

The Council of Church Boards of Education, the Christian associations, and the church workers in State universities held a joint meeting during the year and considered especially the religious work in State institutions. The same organizations united in a Nation-wide campaign to accomplish the Northfield program of 200,000 college students in Bible study during the year. There have been special gatherings of those interested in college Bible departments, standards of Sunday-school work, cooperative purchasing, preparation for the ministry, and the relation of colleges to the war.

The higher institutions, including those under denominational control, suffered severely during the year through loss of students, faculty, and revenue. Many of them placed their facilities at the service of the Government for war work. In so far as they could secure military instructors, the denominational institutions introduced military training, and during the coming year units of the Students' Army Training Corps will be established at most of them.

Comparatively few of the denominations maintain elementary parochial schools. The great majority of such schools in the United States are under the control of the Catholic and Lutheran Churches.

The Catholic Church in the United States consists of 14 archdioceses and 87 dioceses. Each of these divisions has its elementary schools, which continue to grow in number and attendance. In 1917–18 the total number of such schools was 5,748, a gain of 151 over the number for the preceding year, and the number of pupils in attendance was 1,593,407, an increase of 95,060.

The number of supervisory officers is increasing very rapidly. This is due largely to the increasing number of community inspectors appointed in recent years. These inspectors are members of their teaching communities, appointed to supervise the schools of their respective communities. Many of them cover a wide territory in their work, while others are limited to the schools of their community situated in a particular diocese. The number of Catholic high schools accredited by the Catholic University of America has increased to 144.

LIBRARY ACTIVITIES.

Libraries and the war.—Upon the declaration of war by the United States the librarians of the country immediately became concerned to

determine how they might best serve the Nation in this crisis. The outcome has been the cooperation of practically every library in the country to a greater or less extent in a program of war service which may be outlined under the following heads: As an agency of war publicity for the Government; work in behalf of the food campaign; cooperation in liberty-loan and war-savings campaigns; aid to the Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, and other agencies of war relief; Americanization of aliens; and providing library facilities for soldiers. This last service has been rendered directly by libraries adjacent to camps, hospitals, and stations, and in general by the cooperation of nearly all librarians in the corporate war work of their professional organization, the American Library Association. It has also been recognized that it is a function of the library to uphold the spirits of the people by supplying literature clearly presenting American ideals, and also expressing the great universal principles which serve for encouragement in sacrifice and consolation in bereavement. In addition, the general educational facilities of the public library serve in both war and peace to raise the standard of efficiency of the people to meet their practical responsibilities.

The war has affected the budget of the libraries in two ways—by diminishing their income, because of decreased appropriations, etc., and by reducing the purchasing power of the income actually received. The problem of service is also pressing, because of the inroads made on the library staffs by war conditions. The libraries of the country, in common with other institutions, consequently labor under serious economic difficulties, which have obliged many libraries to curtail their activities. Some communities have even proposed to close their public libraries during the war, but against this course it may be urged that the reasons which advise the continuance of school and college sessions in war time also apply to libraries.

War service of the American Library Association.—At the Louisville conference of the American Library Association, in June, 1917, a war-service committee was constituted, in accordance with a recommendation presented in the report of a preliminary war-work committee appointed soon after the entrance of the United States into the contest. The war-service committee was empowered to devise methods by which the association might aid in providing reading matter for the soldiers and to solicit funds for the erection and equipment of camp libraries.

A few weeks thereafter the commission on training-camp activities requested the American Library Association to assume responsibility for providing adequate library facilities in the 32 cantonments and National Guard training camps soon to be opened. The acceptance of the invitation from the commission placed the war-service committee in direct official relations to the Government through the War

Department. The committee began work at once collecting books and making plans and arrangements, basing its operations at first on volunteer service and on a few thousand dollars contributed by members of the American Library Association. While awaiting the building of camp libraries the books were distributed through the Young Men's Christian Association and similar agencies.

During the last week of September, 1917, a national "million-dollar drive" for funds was held, which succeeded in raising approximately $1,500,000. In the campaign for this fund the war-service committee was assisted by a library war council composed of nationally known citizens appointed by the Secretary of War. Further provision for the work was made by a grant of $320,000 from the Carnegie Corporation for the erection of camp library buildings, at a maximum cost of $10,000 for each building.

The raising of the fund made it possible by October 1 to unify the work in a single office, under a skilled executive with a paid office staff, and to proceed with an extensive program of activities. Headquarters for the war-service committee were established in the Library of Congress, at Washington, and Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, was made general director. This centralization has given the work a special impetus. For the shipment of books for overseas service dispatch offices were established at the principal ports of embarkation, and each office was provided with a suitable stock of books and facilities for sorting, casing, and delivery. Librarians were appointed for the camps, generally from the younger men of experience in library work. By the spring of 1918 a larger supply of gift books became necessary, and accordingly in April an intensive campaign was undertaken to secure them. This campaign resulted in the immediate collection of more than 3,000,000 volumes, most of them suitable for use.

By the end of June, 1918, 36 camp library buildings had been erected and 42 large camps had trained librarians and complete library service. There were 150 librarians in the field. Books had been supplied to numerous hospitals, marine and naval stations, vessels, and small military camps and posts, including aviation camps. Nearly 300,000 selected books had gone overseas through six dispatch offices. The number of books purchased was over 400,000, largely technical, and more than 2,000,000 gift books had been sent to camps and stations. In addition, about 5,000,000 magazines had been distributed, many of which were received under the 1-cent mailing privilege.

Standardization of libraries and certification of librarians; library salaries.—In common with schools and colleges, the libraries of the country have taken up the problems of standardization and certification as applied to their own institutions and service. The Ameri-

can Library Association has a committee at work on this subject, which reported at the Louisville conference in 1917 and was continued for further study. In its report the committee considered chiefly the classification or grading of libraries; nomenclature, or the title of positions; and certification of librarians. The subject of standardization of libraries includes the titles pertaining to particular positions, grading of library staffs, certification of librarians, efficiency records, hours of service, promotion schedules, salaries, and pensions. There is considerable controversy among library administrators regarding the wisdom of placing library employees under the State or municipal civil service, as has been done in some places.

Library salaries, always meager, have been rendered still more inadequate by the recent marked increase in the cost of living. The situation has been felt with especial keenness in New York City, Philadelphia, and Boston, where the junior employees of the public libraries, in the hope of improving their economic condition, have formed unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Plans for increasing library salaries are under consideration by the authorities of these cities. The Chicago public library board granted liberal increases to more than 400 of its employees, available May 25, 1917, and some other cities have done likewise. The lowness of salaries is causing a dangerous shortage of library assistants throughout the country, which threatens to lower the standard of library service. A warning against this danger has been issued in a recent letter addressed to library trustees and librarians by a committee of the Association of American Library Schools.

Library legislation.—The State legislation of 1917 shows a general tendency to extend the scope of library work into new fields and to provide more generously for its maintenance. In many cases the existing library law was amended. Important subjects of legislation were county libraries, legislative reference bureaus, and coordination of the work of county and city libraries. The most significant and most complete county library law of the year was enacted by Indiana. The Michigan Legislature of 1917 authorized the creation of county libraries, and Montana, North Carolina, Oregon, South Dakota, and Texas also passed important county library laws. Pennsylvania enacted a new general library law, including among its provisions an authorization of county libraries. A bill passed by the Ohio General Assembly providing for county district library service was vetoed by the governor.

New library buildings.—The year has been marked by activity in library building, notwithstanding the many unfavorable conditions at present for such work. Among the structures erected or in progress the following may be mentioned: Detroit Public Library,

corner stone laid November, 1917; San Francisco Public Library, opened in 1917; Sacramento Public Library, opened April, 1918; Indianapolis Public Library, dedicated on the birthday anniversary of James Whitcomb Riley, October 7, 1917; St. Paul Public Library, also dedicated in October, 1917. Work on the new building for the Philadelphia Free Library was suspended because of legal complications. The buildings of the Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass., and of the Public Library of Kansas City, Mo., were remodeled during the year.

Amherst College dedicated its new Converse Memorial Library building in November, 1917. The library building of the University of California was greatly enlarged during the year, and a library building was in course of erection on the campus of Leland Stanford Junior University. Work was begun on a new library building for the University of Oklahoma at Norman. Plans were inaugurated for a new building for the University of Wyoming library, and the contract was let for the construction of a large library building for the Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

Library association meetings.—The American Library Association has continued to hold its annual conferences without interruption by the extraordinary conditions due to the war. These war-time conferences have naturally been chiefly devoted to the consideration of library war service in which those attending displayed their very earnest interest. The attendance shows a falling off from the figures of the immediately preceding conferences, but is large in view of the impediments in the way, especially expensiveness and difficulty of travel. The thirty-ninth conference was held at Louisville, Ky., June 21–27, 1917, with a registration of over 700 persons. The fortieth conference, at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 1–6, 1918, with about 600 in attendance, largely leaders in the profession, was even more than that of Louisville a war gathering. A conspicuous feature of the meeting was a numerous group of librarians in service uniform from camp, hospital, and dispatch service. William Warner Bishop, librarian of the University of Michigan, was chosen president of the American Library Association for 1918–19. The various State library associations have also maintained their usual meetings during the past year for consideration of current professional subjects.

PORTO RICO.

The work of the schools has been greatly handicapped through conditions brought about by the war and the prevailing low salaries of teachers. The department of education lost many of its most efficient men, who went into military service, and the changes in the teaching corps were frequent. The rural teaching force had 730 changes; the city of San Juan had 110.

In spite of these obstacles the work of the schools has been characterized particularly by the various activities carried on by supervisors, teachers, and pupils toward promoting the success of the United States and its allies in the world war.

Special attention has been devoted to increasing the food supply. There have been established 1,312 rural school gardens, 83 urban school gardens, 5,548 urban home gardens, and 21,145 rural home gardens.

For the promotion of community and war propaganda there were organized 1,177 committees for the promotion of agriculture, which conducted 2,380 public meetings; 831 parent associations held 1,297 public meetings; teachers made 60,038 visits to rural homes and cooperated with the Food Commission in conducting 2,157 rural conferences for enlightening the public on the issues of the war and the promotion of agriculture. During conservation week the schools conducted over 2,000 meetings and secured 122,826 pledge cards. The thousands of home visits and public meetings have made a lasting impression on the people. The gospel of food economy, of increased production, of improved methods of cultivation, and the need of planting a greater variety of products has been preached to the remotest rural barrio.

War literature was introduced into the schools and instruction given in patriotism. Among the literature used were Lessons in Community and National Life, Democracy To-day, and How the War Came to America.

The course of study in home economics, including both cooking and sewing, comprised four years of work, extending from the seventh through the tenth grades. Owing to changed living conditions due to the war, the course in practical cooking was changed entirely with a view to instructing students and their families in a diet that would make use of local food products. Mothers' classes taught in Spanish were conducted by teachers of home economics for two hours once a week, and neighborhood evenings were held once a month in the home-economics rooms, where subjects relating to home and community life as affected by the war were discussed.

Since the United States entered the war the department of education and the University of Porto Rico has lost 233 of their best men by their entering the military service. Of these, 10 were supervisors of schools, 12 instructors in the university, 4 high-school principals, 10 high-school teachers, 5 school-board members, 18 manual-training teachers, 13 teachers of English, 2 special teachers of agriculture, 49 graded teachers, and 110 rural teachers.

The school population of Porto Rico is 427,666, of which number 215,819 are of compulsory school age, i. e., between 8 and 14 years. The total enrollment in all the public schools was 142,846, or 33.1

per cent of the population of school age. Of these, 84,570 were enrolled in rural schools, 50,060 in elementary urban schools, 3,346 in secondary schools, 3,613 in night schools, and 1,257 in the University of Porto Rico. There were enrolled also in private schools 7,248 children.

The schools of Porto Rico were conducted in 1,712 buildings, having 2,845 classrooms. Of these buildings 540 are public property and 1,172 are rented; 316 are situated in urban centers and 1,396 in rural barrios; 58 new buildings were completed during the past two years, 17 buildings with 141 rooms in urban centers and 41 buildings with 49 rooms in rural centers.

The total amount expended for educational purposes during the year was $2,365,260.99, a per capita expenditure per pupil of $12.63 for elementary education and $41.92 for secondary education.

Important changes in the graded schools are the teaching of English on a strictly oral basis in the first three grades, the introduction of specially prepared textbooks in arithmetic, formal instruction in moral and civic training, for which purpose a special pamphlet has been issued. The improvement in the primary grades as a result of a better coordinated system of teaching such subjects as Spanish, English, writing, and arithmetic in closer harmony with the needs and the life experience of Porto Rican children has everywhere been remarkable. Much of this improvement is the result of the use of specially prepared textbooks in which the standpoint of the Porto Rican child, his experience, and his needs are given due consideration.

HAWAII.

During the past two years the school enrollment has increased from 30,205 to 34,343. The great diversity of nationality of races found in the public schools is indicated by the following figures:

Hawaiian	3,216	Porto Rican	1,032
Part Hawaiian	3,805	Korean	409
American	849	Spanish	489
British	108	Russian	125
German	126	Filipino	626
Portuguese	5,001	Other foreigners	151
Japanese	15,101		
Chinese	3,305	Total	34,343

The number of teachers has increased from 804 in 1916 to 967 in 1918. The problem of obtaining well-qualified teachers to fill the many vacancies caused by resignations and the creation of new positions is a serious one, as the normal school at Honolulu graduates only about 50 yearly. The situation has been aggravated this year by the resignation of an unusually large number of teachers, due to war conditions. Some teachers are secured annually from the

Pacific Coast States, and this year it is estimated that it will be necessary to obtain about 150 teachers from that source. Conditions in many of the country schools have been improved by the erection of teacherages, so that now practically every school in the Territory, with the exception of those located in Honolulu and Hilo, has on its grounds cottages for the teachers, and it is now possible to secure a better class of teachers for those schools.

Continued emphasis is placed on vocational training, although, owing to war conditions, it is veering to some extent from the shop to the field and garden. Nearly all the large schools have well-equipped shops in charge of specially trained teachers. They also conducted school and home gardens on a large scale even before the war began. In no place in the Union is self-help, particularly as expressed in the home garden, as important as it is in Hawaii. Every ton of home-grown product means the saving of a 2,000-mile haul by steamer from San Francisco. Practically every school in the Territory has a school garden and practically all the school children who have attained suitable age have home gardens as well; the pupils of 132 schools have 9,692 home gardens.

The school children have taken an active part in the activities occasioned more or less directly by the war, such as war saving stamp campaigns, Liberty bonds, Red Cross, etc.

CANAL ZONE.

The enrollment of pupils in the public schools of the Canal Zone is increasing gradually, the number enrolled during the year being 2,774. Of this number 1,764 were white and 1,010 colored. There were employed during the year 65 white and 15 colored teachers. The entrance salary for grade teachers was increased from $95 to $104.50 per month; high-school teachers from $120 to $132; science and mathematics teachers from $145 to $159.50. The total expenditure for schools was $140,000, an average cost per capita of enrollment of $50.83.

Junior Red Cross work was carried on extensively in the white schools and a Junior Red Cross Auxiliary was organized in each white school. Junior four-minute men speaking contests were carried on successfully in connection with the work in English. "Lessons in Community and National Life" and thrift and war-savings problems were incorporated into the work of the schools in such subjects as arithmetic, reading, history, English, geography, and current events.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.

There are three classes of schools in the Virgin Islands—public, denominational, and private. Public schools are maintained in the

towns of Charlotte Amalie, Frederiksted, and Christiansted. Outside of these towns the country schools are conducted by the Moravian Church and are aided by subsidies from the local treasuries. A private high school in Christiansted also receives municipal aid. The great need in these islands is for schools providing instruction above the elementary stages along practical lines, such as agriculture, trade, and business. A normal school is also needed, so that native teachers may be developed under American instructors.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Beginning with the school year 1917–18 all schools where a course in farming is given are to be in session throughout the year. This is not entirely a new venture, as for several years all settlement farm schools and most agricultural schools have been in continuous session, and notwithstanding the younger pupils enrolled in them these schools have maintained the best farms.

The calendar year has been divided into 42 weeks of classroom work, 4 weeks of special field practice, 4 weeks of vacation, and 1 week each for examinations and an annual cleaning up. Each pupil enrolled will be given a vacation of four weeks at the time in the year that the farm activities can best spare his services. All teachers assigned to farm schools are required to render service throughout the school year, except that short vacations may be given when their services can be spared.

It is believed that students should be detailed to definite projects and thereby become factors in a productive enterprise. Each pupil is expected to do fieldwork for not less than four consecutive periods (160 minutes) each day for 5 days a week, and daily fieldwork up to 3.5 hours may be required at the option of the principal. Each pupil is required to perform at least 3 hours of fieldwork on every other Saturday forenoon.

II.

EDUCATION IN CERTAIN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

ENGLAND.

GENERAL.

In its report for 1916–17 the board of education states that "the year has been noteworthy for its demonstration of the advantages which can be derived from enlisting the cooperation of the educational institutions of the country in the promotion of various national movements." The difficulties due to the military occupation of schools and the inadequate supply of teachers have not decreased appreciably, but while the ordinary studies of the schools have continued unabated additional work in the national cause has increased. The schools have served as valuable centers for disseminating information on food conservation and war recipes, promoting thrift, and the sale of war loans. Out of 35,000 war-savings associations in existence at the end of June, 1917, about one-third were connected with the schools. Handwork has profited by the new motive, and work has been done for the soldiers and in making equipment for hospitals and even munitions plants. Not only have the schools proved to be effective agencies in inculcating the new economy in food, but they have participated largely in increasing the supply by the development of school gardens.

The teachers have played no small part in developing these patriotic endeavors and have won for themselves a new place in public esteem. Says the report for 1914–15:

> When peace is restored the teachers of England need have no fear if anyone asks them what they did in the war. They offered themselves freely, and, whether they stayed in the schools or carried arms, they did their duty, and the service is richer for their own practice and the exemplification of these principles of civic duty and patriotism which in times of peace they taught, and not in vain, by precept and exhortation.

This tribute is all the greater when it is remembered that the teachers have been among the last to receive additional remuneration to meet the increased cost of living. Local action was dilatory at first, and it was not until the close of 1915 that war bonuses became general throughout the country, followed by the establishment of

new scales of salaries. It was Mr. Fisher's intention that a large share of the supplementary grant in 1917 of more than $19,000,000 should be devoted to teachers' salaries. The reports of two departmental committees appointed to inquire into the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salaries for teachers in elementary and secondary and other schools were published in 1918 and open up brighter prospects for all teachers, while the Government is planning to introduce pension systems for teachers of all grades.

The evil effects of the war which were early manifested in the poor attendance and the premature withdrawal of young children for employment have been checked largely by publicity and the cooperation of Government departments and by the increase of remedial and preventive measures. In 1917 the board of education offered to pay a grant equal to half the cost of maintaining evening recreation centers, while the Home Office appointed a juvenile organizations committee to consider facilities for the recreation and guidance of adolescent boys and girls. The departmental committee on juvenile education in relation to employment after the war urged the importance of continuation schools and the vocational guidance of boys and girls on leaving school, with the result that education authorities have taken steps to render juvenile employment bureaus, established under the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, more effective.

Retrenchment in educational expenditures has continued but has been directed to the elimination of overlapping between the central and local authorities; the reduction of clerical and statistical work; the closing of evening schools, no longer in demand owing to the absence of a clientele; and in other ways that have not seriously affected the efficiency of education. The building of new schools has, of course, been suspended. The cost of education has, however, inevitably increased, and, while figures are only available in the national estimates, a somewhat similar increase may be assumed for local expenditure. For 1913–14 the estimates for the board of education were $74,621,595, and for 1917–18 they had risen to $102,375,180; but for 1918–19 they are $98,804,980, a decrease due mainly to a reduction in the grant to the department of scientific and industrial research. Since the outbreak of the war the board of education has assumed a number of new financial burdens whose full effects are not yet manifested. These include half the cost of maintaining adequate schemes for medical treatment; half the cost of maintaining evening recreation centers, schools for mothers and nursery schools; half the cost of salaries for trained organizers and supervisors of physical training and games; increased grants to secondary schools, both for general purposes and for advanced courses; and the increased cost of

pensions to teachers already retired. The directions of future increase in the national expenditure are indicated by the promise of the new act by the provisions of which half the cost incurred by local authorities for maintaining comprehensive schemes of education will be met by the board. The vast and unproductive expenditure demanded for the conduct of the war has awakened the country to a realization of its tremendous financial strength, which will be devoted after the war to the task of reconstruction. But the increased participation of the central authority in the expenditures of the country for education will not be permitted to lead to the development of a centralized and dictatorial bureaucracy. Nothing that has occurred during the war has shaken the traditional English faith in the principle of freedom and initiative in local government, but the war has had the effect of arousing that sense of responsibility and that social conscience that are the corollary of freedom.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The four years since the beginning of the war have witnessed an increased enrollment of boys and girls in the secondary schools, accompanied by a widespread consideration of the aims and purposes of secondary education. The increase in numbers has been due largely to the prosperity consequent on the development of war industries, partly to the greater interest in education. So great has been the demand for the admission to secondary schools that many schools have been compelled to institute a waiting list, while in the absence of adequate accommodation and the reduction in the number of teachers the board of education has been compelled to relax the regulations as to the size of classes in schools on its grant list. A few schools are still under military occupation. The following figures indicate the increase during the past four years in England and Wales:

Enrollment in the secondary schools.

Year.	Schools on the grant list.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1913-14	1,027	99,225	88,079	187,304
1916-17	1,049	113,214	105,644	218,858

Although the figures are not available, since the collection of statistics has been suspended, the increase has probably been similar in schools not on the grant list and in private schools in general.

Soon after the outbreak of the war criticisms were heard of the secondary schools. They had succeeded in the task of developing leaders and training individual initiative and independence, but they

had failed to inspire their pupils with love of intellectual pursuits and to give them the knowledge needed in modern life. Soon the discussions narrowed themselves down to a dispute on the relative merits of a classical and a scientific education in which the advocates of modern language studies soon engaged. There was unanimous agreement on one point, that it is not the function of the secondary schools to provide vocational or professional preparation, and under no circumstances should specialization begin before a good general education had been completed at about the age of 16. It was generally agreed that secondary education, beginning at about the age of 12, should provide an education for four years including English language and literature, one or two foreign languages, geography and history, science and mathematics, drawing, organized games, physical training, manual instruction, and singing, with necessary differentiation for girls to include domestic subjects. These subjects are required by the regulations of the board of education for secondary schools on its grant list, but it was charged that even here there was a tendency to encourage the study of classics at the expense of other subjects. After much informal discussion the question was finally settled at conferences between the Council on Humanitarian Studies, representing the interests of the linguistic and literary subjects, and a committee of the Royal Society representing the interests of the sciences. The agreement emphasizes the importance of general education along the lines mentioned above up to 16 and specialization after that stage has been completed. The reports of two committees appointed by the prime minister, the one to consider the position of natural science in educational institutions in Great Britain, and the other to consider the position of modern languages will have great weight in developing public opinion in favor of these two branches of study.

Recent regulations of the board have given concrete effect to these tendencies. In the regulations for 1917 the establishment of advanced courses for pupils who have completed a general course is encouraged. These courses, covering two years' work, are contemplated in science and mathematics, classics, and modern studies. but while specialization may follow any one of these lines, attention must be given in all to English language and literature, to languages in the scientific course, and to science and mathematics in the other courses. To encourage the development of such courses special grants of $2,000 for each course will be paid, in addition to the regular grants which were raised at the same time. It is not expected that every school will develop courses in all the three branches, but opportunities are to be offered in every educational area for the pursuit of all the courses. The result will be a pooling of resources and the transfer of pupils to schools best equipped to give the course desired.

In May, 1917, arrangements were finally concluded for the establishment under the board of education of a secondary school examinations council, whose chief task will be to eliminate the excessive number of school examinations and limit them to a few that are to be administered by the universities severally or jointly. In approving the standards of the examinations of the council it is expected that the syllabus of a school and the suggestions of teachers will be taken into consideration and that the school records of pupils will be taken into account. Only two examinations will be approved—the first at the close of the general course at about 16, the second on the completion of the advanced courses. It is proposed that pupils passing the first examination with a good grade shall be admitted to the universities without further examination and those passing the second examination shall enter the universities with advanced standing. The board will pay the necessary fees for examinations. The aim of the new regulations is to relieve the schools from the pressure of external examinations and to encourage the free development within standards generally accepted for the whole country. The secondary-school examinations council's actions are subject to the approval of the board of education, which acts as an advisory council.

THE EDUCATION ACT.

The past year has seen the culmination of the efforts to secure educational reform in England. The enactment of the Fisher bill in August, 1918, is but one phase of a broader movement for social and economic reconstruction after the war. Many of the changes that have been going on and will no doubt continue to go on in English education are not included in this act. The most significant change, perhaps, has been the new public attitude to education in general. That solidarity that was created by the great crisis has been turned to good effect, and a new stimulus has been given to the movement for educational reform that had already commenced before the war. The dislocation caused by the unexpected outbreak of the war in 1914 seriously affected education, and all thoughts of a reorganization fell into the background. As soon as the necessary adjustment to new conditions had been made, as described in the last Report of the Commissioner of Education, page 75 ff, the necessity of devising plans for reconstruction after the war came to the front. In this movement there were associated not only professional educational associations, but the representatives of labor and employers. In view of the importance of the situation the Times Educational Supplement began in 1916 to be issued weekly instead of monthly as hitherto, and the general press devoted more space to education than ever before in the history of education in England.

Plans and policies were published by educational organizations representing school principals, teachers, administrative officials, and educational committees, and bodies devoted to the interests of different branches of the school work. The workers' educational association conducted conferences and issued a program; the British Labor Party, the Trades Union Congress, and local branches of the trades unions considered the principles that should underlie the future reorganization of education. Finally, the Government addressed itself seriously to the subject as part of the general platform for reconstruction, recognizing that the solid foundation of a settlement of the many problems that confronted the country can only be established in a sound system of education. In 1915 there was inaugurated a committee of the privy council for scientific and industrial research, assisted by an advisory council of specialists; this committee was given the status of a department in 1916. When the ministry of reconstruction was established in 1917 to take the place of an earlier committee on the subject, one of the 15 general branches submitted to its consideration was devoted to education, and of the 87 committees established under the ministry, 8 were assigned to educational topics. These included the reorganization of the University of Wales, salaries for elementary and secondary-school teachers, the position of science and of modern languages in the educational institutions, juvenile employment, juvenile organizations, such as clubs and brigades, and adult education. But most of the other subjects under consideration have their educational implications. The Whitley committee on joint standing industrial councils, for example, considered the promotion of an intelligent attitude to science on the part of employers and the working classes. The Representation of the People Act, passed in 1918, extending the franchise to a larger body of men than hitherto and to about 6,000,000 women, also implies a wider diffusion of education. For a time it was thought that the general subject of educational reorganization would also be intrusted to the ministry of reconstruction, but it became clear that the matter was one of urgency and could not wait upon the delay that such a procedure would have involved.

At the close of 1916 Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, vice chancellor of the University of Sheffield, was appointed president of the board of education, and it was understood that his chief task would be the introduction of an education bill to meet the demands contained in the numerous recommendations and suggestions that had been made during the preceding year. The appointment of Mr. Fisher was greeted with universal approval, and as the first appointment to the position of a man whose claims rested on his knowledge of the subject with which he was to deal rather than on his political serv-

ices, past and prospective, it marks in itself the beginning of a new era in English education. In February, 1917, Mr. Fisher, in an address to the teachers of the country, emphasized the point that "the proclamation of peace and victory in the field will summon us not to complacent repose, but to greater efforts for a more enduring victory. The future welfare of the nation depends upon the schools." Three months later, in April, 1917, when Mr. Fisher introduced the educational estimates demanding an increase of more than $19,000,000 over the estimates of the previous year, Parliament gave an earnest of its new attitude to education by its ready assent. The greater part of this increase was to be devoted to the better payment of teachers, "the first condition of educational advance." The way was now prepared for the introduction of the education bill in August, 1917. This bill, while meeting with universal approval for its purely educational proposals, met with strong opposition from education authorities because of the fear that certain clauses would endanger local independence and establish the bureaucratic control of the board of education. Some opposition was also encountered from employers of labor, who were not yet reconciled to the clause requiring the compulsory part-time attendance at continuation schools of boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 18. The remainder of the year was spent by Mr. Fisher in meeting deputations and considering objections to the administrative provisions of the bill, and in a tour of propaganda in the north of England, where it seemed likely that opposition to the compulsory continuation school measure would prove most serious. In February, 1918, a new bill was substituted for the earlier measure, and it was generally felt that it had now become an "agreed bill." The administrative provisions had been modified, and all suspicion of bureaucratic tendencies had been eliminated. Such opposition as the bill encountered in the course of the debates in Parliament during the summer of 1918 came from those who demanded more than the bill granted, especially the establishment of free secondary education and provisions against the introduction of military training and early vocational specialization in the schools and from a group representing the interests of some employers who continued their opposition to the compulsory feature of the continuation school measure. No difficulty was met in pacifying the first group of opponents; the opposition of the latter was removed by a compromise to which reference will be made below. The act received the royal assent on August 8, 1918, and on that date the greater part of the provisions became operative, the "appointed day" for the remainder being postponed for the present.

The act continues the existing structure of the educational administration established by the Education Act of 1902. The councils of county boroughs and counties are responsible for elementary and

higher education; the councils of noncounty boroughs and urban districts for elementary education only. The position of the board of education remains unchanged, with the exception that it now has the function of approving or rejecting, subject to conference with the local authority concerned and the ultimate decision of Parliament, schemes that must be submitted to it "for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education." In place of the different grants for various objects, a consolidated grant equal to not less than one-half of the local expenditure will be paid from the national funds. The board thus has the power of setting up standards of efficiency as the basis upon which schemes will be approved. The private schools are for the first time brought within the scope of public supervision and will be required to furnish such information as the board may desire; at the same time they may be inspected either by the board or by a local education authority in order to meet the certain standards of efficiency. These measures will thus provide room under the national system for the development of both public and private schools.

The powers of the local authorities are also extended. The limit imposed on the amount that could be raised by local taxation by county councils for higher education has been removed. The administration of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, and the Children Act, 1908, is now intrusted to the education authorities. Further, the organization and provision of extra-curricular activities, such as holiday camps, recreation centers, facilities for physical training and games, school baths and swimming baths, are placed in the hands of the same bodies. The responsibility for the development of local initiative and progress is placed on local education authorities; and, since the grants from the Government will in future be dependent on the acceptability of a scheme of education that is comprehensive for an area as a whole, the board, and in the last analysis Parliament, has an effective weapon for dealing with recalcitrant authorities.

The war has emphasized the importance of physical training and of medical inspection and treatment. The act provides for the establishment of nursery schools for children between the ages of 2 and 6, in which attention will be paid chiefly to "health, nourishment, and physical welfare." Medical inspection of school children will thus begin at these tender years, be carried through the elementary schools, and be extended by the act to both secondary and continuation schools. The organization of adequate measures of medical inspection and treatment will be taken into consideration as a necessary part of a comprehensive scheme of education. The board has already undertaken to pay half the cost of maintaining schools for mothers, in which instruction is given in prenatal care and the care

of infants and nursery schools. The provision for physical training and welfare is further extended by empowering authorities to maintain extra-curricular activities, and the board will make grants equal to half the cost of the salaries of play supervisors and of maintaining evening recreation centers. Child labor, which is one of the greatest menaces to physical well-being, is now placed by the act under the control of education authorities, and no child under 12 years of age will in future be permitted to be employed at all, and children between 12 and 14 may not be employed for more than two hours a day between 6 in the morning and 8 in the evening; street trading and employment in certain occupations are forbidden, while school medical officers may prohibit the employment of individual children in any occupation that may endanger their health.

The act abolishes all exemptions from attendance at school between the ages of 5 and 14, unless a child is attending a nonpublic school subject to public inspection. Pupils will in future be permitted to enter and leave school only at certain times in the year. Where nursery schools are established, a child may attend up to the age of 6 before entering an elementary school. At the other end local authorities may enact by-laws requiring compulsory attendance at public elementary schools up to 15 or even 16. As a result of the extension of the attendance ages, the act permits the organization of advanced work for the older pupils, either in the elementary schools or in central schools and special classes.

Secondary education is only indirectly affected by the act, since the suitable provision of this branch will be required in the comprehensive schemes and will be stimulated by the removal of the tax limit for higher education. The question of the provision of free secondary education came up in the course of debates in the House of Commons, but was shelved; for the present the act requires that "children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees." Opportunities will be increased by the provision of more schools, more scholarships, a greater number of free places, and the granting of maintenance allowances.

It was Mr. Fisher's intention in the original bill to require the compulsory attendance at continuation schools of boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 18 for eight hours a week during 40 weeks in each year between the hours of 7 in the morning and 8 in the evening. This proposal met with considerable opposition from employers on the ground that such a measure would interfere with industry and the labor market. Mr. Fisher pointed out that "there is nothing sacrosanct itself about industry. The real interests of the State do not consist in the maintenance of this or that industry, but

in the maintenance of the welfare of all its citizens." In view, however, of the great difficulties involved in establishing a system of continuation schools for about two and a half million young persons at a time when there were not enough teachers to carry on the regular work of the schools and not enough accommodation in which to conduct it, Mr. Fisher agreed to postpone the full operation of the compulsory provision as it affects young persons over 16 for seven years from the date on which the act becomes operative and for the present to require only seven hours of attendance each week. The provisions for social and physical training and for medical inspection apply to the continuation schools. Their scope is defined as schools" in which suitable courses of study, instruction, and physical training are provided without payment of fees." It seems probable from the discussions on the subject that these schools will pay more attention to general and liberal education than to vocational, although the occupational interests of the students will furnish a necessary starting point.

The act does not provide for a complete reorganization of English education. It does not touch, for example, on university education, or the training of teachers, or on adult education, or technical and vocational education. All these subjects can be treated by means of administrative regulations of the board, which has already greatly affected the future development of medical treatment, physical training, and secondary education by the exercise of this power. The act in large measure accomplishes the chief object that was demanded; it is "the first real attempt ever made in this country (England) to lay broad and deep the foundations of a scheme of education which would be truly national."

FRANCE.

The war has affected the conduct of education in France perhaps more than in either England or Germany. For the first two years the demands at the front tended to subordinate all other thought and activities to the one great purpose. More recently the educational literature of France indicates that the war has had the effect of leading to considerable questioning of and dissatisfaction with the existing systems of education. Radical changes have not yet taken place in educational administration or organization, but the ground is being prepared by discussions and conferences, by public and private commissions of inquiry, by articles in the daily press for the reforms that it is now generally felt must come after the war. The schools will be called upon to play an important part in the restoration of the country and must be improved to meet the new demands.

It was perhaps to be expected that France would be influenced by the close contact with the British and American forces. A widespread movement has begun for the improvement and extension of physical education and games throughout the country, not merely to develop agility and endurance in the individual but to strengthen the nation as a whole. Early in 1917 a commission was appointed to study the reorganization of physical training in the schools. In April, 1918, the ministry of public instruction issued a circular to the rectors of the academies urging the development of physical education and games and athletic sports in secondary, normal, and higher elementary schools. It is pointed out that such training could be organized without encroaching on class work. School principals and teachers are asked to encourage the establishment of clubs under their general supervision and with the assistance of advisory committees representing the public and alumni associations. The French league of school hygiene is actively promoting the introduction of open-air exercise in which teachers should also participate and is advocating the introduction of school medical inspection and the keeping of records of physical development. A *Union des sociétés française de sports athlétiques* has been established to promote the development of school athletic clubs and to secure playing fields. It is suggested in the circular that participation should not be made compulsory and that no boy be allowed to take part without the written consent of his parents, so that the State might be relieved of responsibility for accidents. The union has made advantageous terms with insurance companies to furnish compensation in cases of accident.

The changes brought about by the war in the position of women has made the reorganization of secondary education of girls a question of vital importance. As in other countries, women have taken the places of men in every walk of life and have proved themselves equal to most tasks, but the change in the social tradition has been more revolutionary in France than elsewhere. It is recognized that not only the professions but positions of leadership in commerce and industry must in the future be opened to women on an equal footing with men. Women have been admitted for some time to the practice of law and medicine, and new careers are constantly being made accessible to them. New commercial schools for girls have been established in different parts of the country; the Central School of Arts and Manufacture now receive them, as well as the School for Watchmaking and the School of Physics and Chemistry. These developements have led to a demand for a reform of the system of secondary education which, as organized at present, is adapted chiefly for girls of the wealthy middle classes who do not intend to prepare for any special career. The proposals take the form of a

demand either for secondary education of the same type as that for boys or a new and extended organization of the existing system. The objection to the first suggestion is that the basis of the lycées and collèges for boys is not sufficiently broad and that the majority of girls at present do not desire a preparation that leads only to the universities and professions. The difficulty in the way of the second proposal is the national tradition of privileges, certificates, and examinations as marking the end of a school course. The problem involves, therefore, not so much the reorganization of girls' schools as the nature of the *sanctions* to which it will lead. At the close of 1916 the minister of public instruction appointed a commission to inquire into the modification in the organization of studies and privileges for the secondary education of girls. The commission issued questionnaires to education authorities and parents' associations and subcommittees of the commission drew up a number of recommendations which are being considered by all the members. The chief recommendations are as follows:

1. The education of girls needs a new organization and an appropriate program of studies.
2. The schools shall be organized in two cycles, the first of four years, the second of two. The course shall begin at the age of 12.
3. In the first cycle the school day shall be one of four hours; in the second cycle, of five hours.
4. Fourteen hours a week shall be given to compulsory subjects in the first cycle; 17 hours in the second.
5. An important and compulsory place shall be given to studies appropriate for girls (household arts and hygiene), practical work and physical training.
6. The six years' course shall be brought to a conclusion in an examination on the work of the last year, leading to a *diplôme de fin d'études*, equivalent to the first part of the baccalaureate.
7. As many careers as possible shall be open to girls holding this diploma.

One of the burning questions in the secondary education of girls is whether Latin shall be included in the reorganization. The commission will probably favor its inclusion for those who desire it. It is also proposed that a seventh year be provided in the organization for girls who wish to complete the baccalaureate to enter the universities or to prepare for a professional career.

The secondary education of boys is no less under fire. Several problems are here involved. There are many serious proposals to reorganize the whole system of French education with a common elementary school as the basis. It does not seem probable that such a reform will take place in the near future. A compromise is suggested that better means be provided for the transfer of pupils from the elementary to the secondary school at the age of 11 or 12, with improved articulation between the work of the two schools at this stage. It has already been found that elementary school pupils are not presenting themselves in large numbers for the scholarships to

the secondary schools, and prefer, if they intend to pursue their educational career, to pass on to the higher elementary schools. There are reactionaries who oppose even this concession on the ground that secondary education should be for the selection of the élite, for the training of specialists, and that, therefore, the way should not be made too easy. The functions of the elementary and secondary schools are, according to this group, not the same, and even the elementary section of the secondary school has a different purpose from the general elementary school. The establishment of a common elementary school would only conduce to the undesirable development of a large number of private schools.

More widespread has been the demand for more scientific and technical training in the secondary schools and elsewhere. This utilitarian movement is attracting considerable support and has its center in such a body as La Ligue française. The tendency seems to be in the direction of early specialization through technical education, trades preparatory schools, or apprenticeship adjusted to local needs. It is feared by those who are interested in general education that everything will be subordinated to industry and that Germany, though defeated, will win a great victory in thus securing an acceptance of the materialism that has characterized so much of her education. It is claimed by the advocates of the new movement that the war has been won by the technical sciences, and the years of destruction must be repaired by years of industrial application to make up the losses and compete with other nations. Fortunately, as their opponents argue, the war has also shown that with a general education even the technical foundations for the most complicated and exacting branch of the Army—the Artillery—can be acquired in a short time. Even if it is true that the basis of modern social organization is division of labor, it becomes more essential than ever to prolong that education that gives all citizens a common background of general education and culture that stresses human values. It is conceded that the secondary schools may have neglected the sciences, but that does not establish their claim to absorb the whole of the curriculum. Here, too, it is urged that a compromise is possible, and that no boy or girl should be allowed to complete an education without giving some time to both the sciences and the humanities. To concede the situation entirely to those who demand technical and vocational preparation would involve a betrayal of the ideals for which the world has been fighting to the dangers of barbarism and materialism.

The project for a continuation school law, to which reference was made in the last Report of the Commissioner of Education, has not yet been passed, but seems to be exercising some influence already. At Corbie the local manufacturers have posted notices to the effect

that they would employ young persons leaving the elementary schools with the certificate of studies, and allow them to attend the local higher primary school for three years, providing tuition, books, apparatus, and even maintenance grants. On leaving these schools the pupils would enter the factories as apprentices for two or three years, during which they would continue to attend school three times a week for general and technical instruction during working hours and without loss of pay. The abler among them would be sent on to schools of arts and crafts, receiving maintenance allowances and tuition during their period of study. The parents would be under no obligation to the employers except to permit them to control the educational progress of the young employees, so that they may become active, enterprising, and proud of their country.

MOVEMENTS AND TENDENCIES IN ITALIAN EDUCATION.

The study of Italian education since the entrance of that country into the war in May, 1915, must follow closely the lines necessitated by the urgent problems forced from the first upon all belligerent countries. These lines were predominantly practical and humanitarian. For Italy they took shape at once in the relief and maintenance of the refugees from Venetia, the Province overrun by the Austrians, and, secondarily, throughout the length of the Kingdom, in the assistance rendered needy families of men called to arms. These problems, while for economic and social reasons more immediately pressing upon the destitute urban population, speedily came to bear upon the rural as well, and local relief societies rapidly sprang up in the first few months of the war. Such organizations as the Patronato Scholastico, already existent in every parish, and even before the war of great philanthropic usefulness; the Mutualitá Scholastica Italiana, a financial society for the mutual relief of depositors; the local branches of distinctively educational organizations; and the widely spread Associazione Nazionale dei Parenti, all threw themselves into some practical task of alleviation of need. All such cooperative movements soon came to be essentially educational. The schoolhouses became the centers where individual tasks were assigned, meetings of every description were held, and most of the articles needed were made. Very fittingly, the teachers became the active community leaders. On the strictly educational side, the ministry decreed special provisions for the teachers and children who had refugeed from the portions of Italy overrun by invasion, securing employment for teachers and admitting all pupils to schools of equal grade, and, if they were of Italian nationality coming from Austrian and Hungarian schools, accepting German as a substitute for French as a foreign language.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

In elementary education, while no strictly legal reforms of method or content for studies were made, there were marked changes in the spirit and purposes in which it was imparted. The systematic attempt was made to bring elementary education into vital union with the needs of everyday life, especially in the rural districts. Larger latitude was granted by the ministry of public instruction to the inspectors of the Provinces and even of localities to incorporate in the old courses other useful ones, especially in horticulture, agriculture, and agricultural economics, in accordance with climatic, topographical, and other local conditions. At the same time new regulations provided for more rigorous and frequent inspection of elementary schools of all grades, and better organic linking up of even the most remote schools with the revivified national system.

All these concentrated efforts of the Government and the school authorities to keep before the Italian people the vital importance of the school in the national life have been rewarded with extraordinary success. Despite the convulsions of the war, the enrollment in elementary education, according to figures of January 1, 1916, surpassed by more than 500,000 that for 1914 and on an estimated gain of barely 1,000,000 in population. In the far-reaching benefits accruing from this awakened interest in elementary education, the infant schools, kindergartens, and auxiliary schools, both public and private, and parents' associations have shared, and their scope has been widened by private initiative and governmental encouragement.

In this connection it is intersting to note that the Montessori system of training for very young children, which aroused great hopes when it first became known in the United States about eight years ago, is now considered by expert Italian critics to be distinctly disappointing as a contribution to practical pedagogy. The schools have remained static in numbers, and are practically confined to the city of Rome. It is felt that the needs of children having muscular or nervous defects, for whom the Montessori system came into being, have largely been met by the widened scope of the elementary schools, with the scientific and pedagogical changes they have undergone during the past two years. The Montessori schools may, however, still maintain themselves, ministering to urban children.

SCUOLE POPOLARE.

The establishment of the so-called *scuole popolare* has been the furthest-reaching step taken in Italian education in many years, even if it is not, as their ardent champions affirm, the most epochal ever taken. The very history of the move by which the scuole popolare were initiated was unique in the annals of educational legislation. The bill

finally passed by the Italian Parliament was a combination of the plan submitted by Signore De Nava, Minister of Industry, Commerce, and Labor (December, 1916), and that submitted by Signore Ruffini, Minister of Public Instruction (February, 1917).

These scuole popolare are essentially rural, of a predominantly scientific nature, allowing great freedom in courses and hours, adapted to intensive training in the needs and possibilities arising from local climate and environment. On the financial and administrative sides they are autonomous and supported by the commune in cooperation with the State, with the encouragement of local and private benefactions. Children who have had three years in elementary schools are admitted to them, and they are planned to appeal primarily to the children of those classes to whom, through economic stress, further continuation in school has hitherto been denied.

Unusual care will be exercised in the selection of teachers for these schools, only those being chosen who have shown real aptitude in teaching the subjects there stressed. Special duties of oversight and conference will be assigned patrons and local auxiliary bodies, whose interest will be enlisted in all possible ways. It is confidently expected this will, in turn, work toward the diminution of adult illiteracy. These schools have, by the law, just been put in operation (September, 1918), and the practical results from them will be watched by students in all countries with the keenest interest.

FIGHT AGAINST ILLITERACY.

The war has caused no slackening in Italy's serious grapple with the chief menace to her national life, adult illiteracy. Though every census since 1871 has shown a gratifying steady decrease in this respect, from 68.8 per cent of total population to 41.8 in June 1911 (the most recent figures available), yet school authorities and the press are not content. Night and holiday schools for adults, already in operation, have had their defects exposed and have been substantially reinforced in various ways. The military authorities, in conjunction with the ministry of public instruction, have instituted compulsory schools in posts and cantonments for illiterates under arms, both veterans and recruits.

SCHOOLS FOR WOUNDED SOLDIERS.

In this connection perhaps the most inspiring of all educational activities is the work of the schools for wounded soldiers, annexed to the hospitals in the larger cities of northern Italy. These schools are not primarily for physical rehabilitation, nor for training in trades and crafts, though these subsidiary lines are kept in view. They are expressly for teaching book subjects. The results obtained and recorded in a representative one, that maintained at the *Ospe-*

dale della Guastalla, near Milan, are so encouraging as to be almost revolutionary in the field of teaching illiterates. For students of practical pedagogy the comparison afforded between the progress made by such adults and that by the normal child in the specific subjects of instruction is most valuable and illuminating.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

The growing dissatisfaction with old forms of education has not spared even the middle schools of Italy, though these, by their very nature, appealed only to the select few. Beginning with the school year of 1917–18, new courses of study and schedules, formulated by the ministerial council, went into effect. While the classical Ginnasio-Liceo of the traditional type, with its eight years of prevailingly cultural studies, had the hours in Greek and Latin slightly increased, mathematics and history were reinforced, and the study of physics and chemistry and physical education was made compulsory.

The Ginnasio-Liceo Moderno, the counterpart of our scientific type of high school and elementary technical school, increased the hours of Latin teaching to 41 per week, the largest number assigned any subject, laid additional emphasis upon the modern languages, gave English and German as alternates, and reinforced the hours in mathematics, the combined study of history and geography, natural science, and physical education. More time and greater latitude in the combinations of examinations were allowed. In view of the imperative demand in other fields that the number of hours of weekly recitation be diminished, the conservative basis of the Ginnasii-Licei of both branches is shown by the fact that it was left untouched in them, ranging from 22 hours for the first year to 27 or 28 hours for the last.

NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The reform of the normal school in Italy, discussed more or less lukewarmly for several years before the war, rapidly gathered momentum as it came to be seen, with increasing clearness, both by the people and by professional educators, that all other educational reform waited upon reforms in this central domain. Here Minister Berenini, perhaps the most aggressive of the many devoted men that have held that portfolio, had more intense hostility to combat and more diverse sentiment to harmonize than in any other field. Combining the best in the sentiment of professional bodies most interested and that of local groups of teachers of 17 cities, whose study of it had been requested, his bill called for the merging of the old normal schools into teachers' institutes, under the following terms and conditions:

1. That the teachers' institutes consist of a general course of five years with related graduation certificate, and of an additional pedagogical course of two years.

2. That the list of courses and arrangements of classes be determined with regard to a fair balance of the realistic and humanistic studies, assuring a fair importance to the latter, continuing the study of Italian in the sixth year, and embracing the elementary study of psychology and logic without establishing a special chair for them.

3. That the outline of the pedagogical courses have greater professional consistency, making the teachers' apprenticeship one or two years, with unity of direction under the professor of pedagogy, assisted by the professors of drawing, manual arts, and sciences. It includes school legislation, to be taught by the professor of pedagogy.

4. That enrollment of new students in the second pedagogic year be forbidden, requiring for the first year the leaving diploma of the five-year course and the usual entrance examination.

5. That the teachers' institute be regularly for men and for women, and only in special cases mixed.

6. That, on completion of the course, women pupils who have obtained the diploma of fitness for elementary teaching may also obtain further specialized equipment by passing special tests of fitness according to regulations to be established by law.

7. That greater attention be paid to the study of hygiene, to singing, and physical education, and, according to locality, to increase of agricultural teaching, for which experimental farms shall be provided.

8. That, in consequence of the new requirements for the teachers' institutes, special attention be directed toward the careful reform of all the schools that prepare teachers therefor.

Points of detail which are regarded as making great advance over provisions of the old laws are: The three-group arrangement of (1) letters, history, and geography, (2) mathematics and sciences, and (3) drawing and manual arts; the diminution of hours; the progressive development of subjects by difficulty and correlation; simple programs; more compact and convenient arrangement of examinations; the increase in the material equipment of museums, libraries, and laboratories; the organic integration of teacher training with the scientific courses rather than, as almost exclusively hitherto, with the historico-literary ones. The subjects taught in the first six years of the new teachers' institutes are as follows: The Italian language and literature; history and geography; general pedagogy and ethics; French; mathematics and the physical sciences; manual arts, drawing, and penmanship; singing; and physical training. In the seventh year, distinctively for professional training, are taught: Pedagogy, its methodology and history, hygiene,

agriculture, singing, physical training, and education, with practice teaching in the annexed elementary school, and, for women, in the kindergarten.

EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

The reforms in both the middle schools and the normal schools carried distinct recognition of the claims of education for women. In 1916 a new normal school for women was established at Naples, conforming rather closely to the lines actually embodied nearly two years later in the new teachers' institutes. In the same year the ancient University of Bologna, for the first time in the history of Italian education, conferred the full teacher's diploma upon a woman. A congress of women held in Rome in October, 1917, was largely attended, and, among the many creative measures considered for closer articulation of women's activities with the war needs of the nation, vigorous expression was given the demand for more useful and universal education of girls. Much was anticipated by various speakers from the provisions in the system of the scuole popolare, which concerned the training of country women.

UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

No other single intellectual influence has been so potent as that of the universities of Italy in disseminating throughout the nation a just appreciation of the historical and ethical reasons for Italy's share in the war, in arousing and maintaining sentiments of patriotism and consecration to duty.

By permission of the ministry individual universities granted, as valid for the period of the war, to candidates for degrees under arms and engaged in recognized war work, the degree applied for upon presentation and satisfactory defense of the required dissertation, and upon the satisfactory passing of the prescribed examination. A beautiful sentiment also was the permission to confer the *Laurea di Guerra* (war diploma) upon students of the last year's course fallen in the service.

By later decree the council of ministers allowed all students, of whatever grade at the outbreak of the war, in the faculties of jurisprudence, medicine, surgery, mathematics, physical and natural sciences, letters and philosophy, and pharmacy, if called to arms, to be enrolled for 1915–16 in the courses named.

KINDRED INTELLECTUAL LINES.

Outside of Italy's successful struggle to keep unimpaired her pedagogical system, it has been most encouraging to note the many signs of her uninterrupted intellectual life. There has been no ces-

sation of the meetings in the large centers of her literary, scientific, and pedagogical societies. Within the past two years the following societies, representing the organized intellectual leadership of the nation, have held their regular meetings and maintained unbroken their mutual helpfulness: The National Association of University Professors, the National Association of Heads of Institutes, the Federation of Instructors in Middle Schools, the National Association of Docehti, the National Teachers Union, the National Association Nicolo Tommaseo, the National Association of School Inspectors and Vice Inspectors, the Italian Federation of Ginnasei-Lycei, the Italian Society for the Advancement of Science, the Royal Academy della Crusca, the Italian Union for Popular Education, the Italian Federation of Popular Librarians, the National Institute Minerva. They have been attended by people of all professions and walks of life, by civil and military authorities, magistrates, men of letters, academicians, in all a signal proof of the Italian national spirit. Prizes have been conferred for essays on literary and scientific themes. The work of the national committee appointed before the war upon the History of the Risorgimento (Struggle for Italian Independence, 1830–1870), has gone steadily forward to the culmination of its labors in a permanent memorial in the halls of the monument to Victor Emanuel. In short, the patriatic, intellectual, and educational forces of Italy show but little disturbance of their serene confidence in the ultimate triumph of forces and movements by which alone men and nations live.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATION IN THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

These three countries are grouped about the Baltic and the arms of the North Sea in northern Europe. They comprise approximately an area of something over 200,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 10,000,000. The people belong to the same race; their languages, though presenting considerable differences, have a common origin in the same Norse parent tongue. In religion and government, as well as in the tendencies and organization of their schools, they have many characteristics in common.

The schools of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark have an unbroken development from the time of the Reformation to the present day. Some traditional tendencies have been strong from the earliest times. The secondary schools for boys, early established, were intended to prepare young men for the ministry and the other learned professions; they were also intended to train them for official positions and to give the wealthy classes an education befitting their rank in society.

More recent demands for equal education of both sexes have resulted in establishing a number of secondary schools for girls in the

three countries. These were begun as private institutions, but were later taken over, placed under State supervision, and given financial aid by the State.

Sweden has two universities; Norway and Denmark one each; and all three countries have professional and technical schools of high renown.

The administration of all classes of schools, from the primary to the university, is in the hands of the church and the State with administrative power vested in a central board of control, presided over by the minister of education and ecclesiastical affairs. This board directs the changes in school regulations and prepares bills on school matters to come before the legislative bodies.

The work and the problems of all the Scandinavian schools are, in many respects, alike; in other respects the development in one country shows a marked departure from the common trend, resulting in characteristics and problems greatly unlike those of the other two.

In religion the instruction has been largely identical; the attempt to break away from the traditional form has brought on the most acute conflict in Sweden.

In Norway the schools have been active in advancing the trades, mechanical technique, the productive arts, and commerce. But here a special problem arises from the two languages sanctioned in the school work—the book language and the provincial vernacular.

In Denmark the schools have rendered great service to agriculture and commerce; they have taken in hand pupils physically and psychically defective. In Copenhagen the School for Cripples has shown what can be done for this class of unfortunates. The people's high schools of this country, besides training their pupils in the productive arts, have been no less efficient in imbuing them with high moral ideals and love of country.

Sweden has, ever since the time of Ling, made physical training and gymnastics an essential part of education, and she has also made sloyd, manual training, and all kinds of handicraft a conspicuous part of her school system. So far as the organization of her elementary and secondary schools are concerned, she has developed a system so articulated that it is well adapted both to the pupil who must conclude his schooling with a certain course and to the one for whom the same course is a preparation for further studies.

With the purpose of bringing together the teachers of the northern countries in their common work, the Teachers' Association of the North was organized. Its thirtieth anniversary, held in Stockholm in 1910, gave a program calculated to strengthen the bond of union that they felt already existed. On account of the war the annual meeting was suspended in 1916, with the understanding that no further session was likely to be held until after the war.

In 1917 the quadricentennial of the Reformation was observed throughout the northern counties by the schools, as well as by the churches. On the programs the work of Luther was reviewed in the light of his influence on education. It was claimed that—

> The public school is the child of the Reformation; the spiritual freedom which the Reformation served is regrettably abused at the present time; the religion it fostered is about to be supplanted by nonconfessional instruction or nonreligious morality; the schools will do well to take their bearings again and take note of what the Reformation did for them.

These countries, too, have been touched by the war in virtually the same way. In reviewing such reports as have appeared in the educational journals, the following are some of the phases brought before the schools by the war:

1. Some redistribution of the vacation period in conformity with demands for the teachers' and pupils' labor on the farms.
2. Appeals for the training of teachers to take charge of school work of a productive kind.
3. New direction imparted to the discussions of school curricula.
4. The rearrangement of the time scheme to find room for subjects having productiveness as their chief aim.
5. Attempts to give the established subjects greater practical application.
6. School organization of work groups to be sent to farms where help is needed.
7. Providing meals for needy pupils of the cities.
8. Establishing of school kitchens.
9. More extensive use of possibilities in school gardens.
10. Shortage of teachers—more general use of student teachers.
11. Hardships of teachers on account of insufficient salaries to meet increased expense—resulting in campaign for advance in salaries.
12. Efforts on the part of some thinkers and educators to counteract the disastrous effects which familiarity with war and its cruelties tend to leave on the child's mind. Prof. P. Nortorp, G. Wynecken, and others have addressed an appeal to parents and guardians to cooperate in counteracting these influences.

In the opinion of Prof. A. J. Helseth the chief causes that have advanced and improved the elementary schools of the three countries are:

1. The work of the school men to relieve the common schools by transferring less gifted or handicapped pupils to special schools.
2. Improved articulation between the elementary instruction and the continuation schools, so that pupils pursuing further studies are not hampered by insufficient preparation.

TEACHERS' SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

In the Scandinavian countries the salaries of teachers and the eventual pensions are regulated by law, so that a position means a certain salary after a fixed number of years of service, an increment, and on attaining the age limit a retiring allowance. No doubt a scheme of remuneration like this induces a teacher to look upon his calling not as a stepping stone to something more desirable, but as a life work. He is also relieved, in a measure, from petty annoyances of having to negotiate with local boards from time to time. The basis on which a teacher's salary is calculated is the needs and comforts which a person in the position of a teacher may reasonably expect.

In a general way, the remuneration is rather higher in Sweden than in the other two countries. In all three there is over and above the yearly pay free home, garden plat, and fuel, or the money equivalent of these.

The pending salary alterations in Denmark include details not so fully specified in the corresponding laws of the other countries. In the country elementary school a specified salary of 1,200 crowns is to be paid; in the city 1,400 crowns. Additions for length of service are to be made after 2, 5, 8, 12, and 16 years, each increment amounting to 250 crowns. A married teacher receives 200 crowns in addition, counted from the date of his marriage. For each child under 18 he receives 200 crowns. The salaries are to be computed on the basis of a year of normal prices with a consequent increase in the ratio of advance in expenses. The proposition specifies the rooms, kitchen, and other apartments, also the area of the adjoining garden plat. Any deficiency is made good in money according to a definite schedule of rates.

Since the outbreak of the war prices have gone up enormously, and while the Governments have provided some relief by special war bonus and high-expense bonus, the incomes of teachers have not kept pace with the outlay. The remuneration has been so nicely calculated that teachers have not had much laid up to meet emergency conditions. It must be said, however, that the Governments of all the countries are preparing measures of permanent relief as fast as parliamentary procedure will permit.

SCHOOL GARDENS IN NORWAY.

When gardens for productive purposes first came into existence in connection with schools they were left to be cultivated by children whose parents were poor. Since the outbreak of the war they have

attained a much greater significance. Experts are instructing the teachers, who, in turn, direct the pupils how to make the most of the square feet of ground allotted to them. Among the children's gardens is the teacher's own, supposed to be a model for the others and expected to show how much a little patch of ground can produce.

They have a procedure, called "intercultivation," by means of which several crops are raised simultaneously on the same lot. Between the potato rows they plant a species of beans which thrives without interfering with the potatoes. Among the strawberries they plant certain kinds of kale. Under the fruit trees and in other shaded places certain other kinds of the cabbage variety will grow. To get an early crop of potatoes the seed potatoes are planted in boxes, where they may form long shoots by the time the season permits transplanting in the open.

Seeds and plants are furnished the children free of charge; for their labor and care they get the crops they raise. It has been found that the interest displayed by the children reacts upon the parents so that they come to see the significance of the school gardens. The procedures here described are well known and to some extent practiced in all the Scandinavian countries.

EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

The revolution of March, 1917, uprooted the entire educational system in Russia. The Provisional Government, headed by Kerenski, realized the full importance of the new situation and quickly revolutionized the schools, from the universities downward. The dictatorship from above, so characteristic of prerevolutionary Russia, gave way to a new order of things, "the democratization of education." This was accomplished in various ways. All grades of schools, and particularly the higher educational institutions, were thrown open to those willing to take advantage of them. All discriminations between pupils on religious grounds were abolished. Freedom of private instruction was assured, and church schools, the stronghold of reaction, were taken over by the ministry and secularized.

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS.

Instead of the complicated machinery headed by the curators and their assistants, the directors and inspectors of schools, a simple administrative system was introduced. The schools were placed under the control of the local self-governing bodies, the zemstvos (rural councils) or the municipalities, as the case may be. The pedagogical council became the controlling body for schools above the primary grades. The council comprised members of the teaching personnel,

representatives of the local self-government, and of the parents' organization, which play an important rôle in the school life of Russia. The council has the right to elect the teaching staff from the list of candidates submitted to it by the director of the school. The election of the head of an institution is reserved, however, to the local boards.

THE EDUCATIONAL LADDER.

A marked departure from the ordinary type of school was the splitting of the former gymnasium, an institution with a cultural bias, into a higher elementary (classes 1–4) and a secondary school proper (classes 5–8, inclusive). The former was intended to finish the cycle of elementary education, and the latter to serve as a stepping stone for those who intend to enter the university. Vocational schools were graded accordingly and are to run in a parallel line. This elasticity of division was expected to be of great benefit to students, who were enabled thereby to change courses at will from the cultural to a vocational, or vice versa.

THE REFORM IN SPELLING.

The school authorities eliminated from the Russian alphabet four letters. Three of them were identical in pronunciation with three other letters, and the fourth was not sounded at all. All of them were sources of great difficulty in the schools. The most troublesome of the four was used so irregularly that children could learn its use only by memorizing long columns of words which contained the treacherous letter. The time which was formerly so spent may now be used for more substantial studies.

NEW TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS.

Revision of books that inculcated in the minds of the young generation the supremacy of the Czar of all the Russias was undertaken by a special committee appointed by the minister of education. The Soviet authorities, succeeding the Provisional Government, went a step farther. A. Lunacharski, the commissary of public instruction,[1] formulated a bill which enables the Government to confiscate all literary productions for the period of five years and issue them in popular editions for the benefit of the people. This can be done, however, only after the fifteenth anniversary of the author's death.

TEACHERS' TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

The reorganization of the elementary and high school education led directly to the reorganization of teachers' training institutions.

[1] Under the Bolshevik régime the ministries were changed to commissariates, the post of the minister being superseded by a "people's commissary."

All such institutions were defined and classified into two main groups: Normal schools and teachers' institutes. The former were to serve as feeders of teachers for the lower elementary schools, the latter to prepare candidates for the teaching profession in the higher elementary schools. License of teacher in a higher elementary school is granted only to candidates who had experience in teaching for not less than two years.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

Russian universities, previously under strict control of the State, were granted practical autonomy by a decree of the Provisional Government issued in June, 1917. The university council became an important factor in the life of the university; and the system of election, until now limited to the rector, the dean, and the secretaries of the various faculties, has been extended to include also university professors. Because of the scarcity of persons capable of filling university chairs, the requirements for candidates have been somewhat relaxed. According to a new project worked out by the commission of the reorganization of higher education, Russian scientists, distinguished by their pedagogical activities and possessing doctors' degrees in philosophy conferred on them by foreign universities, may be eligible to a professorship.

Admission of students to higher educational institutions has undergone a sweeping change since the publication of the ministerial circular of June 13, 1917. All restrictions hitherto imposed upon various nationalities, denominations, and creeds have been abolished. This regulation affects primarily the Jews, who had been admitted to higher educational institutions in very limited numbers only. Their admission to universities within the so-called Jewish pale—that is, roughly speaking, Poland and southwestern Russia—was limited to 10 per cent, in other provincial universities to 5 per cent, and in Petrograd and Moscow to 2 per cent of the total enrollment of students.

Another feature of the new law was freedom in selection of a university institution. This repealed the law of 1899 by which students were restricted in their choice of a higher institution to their own educational district.

NEW UNIVERSITIES AND FACULTIES.

Plans to open new universities and faculties, long a dream of prerevolutionary authorities, materialized in the early days of new Russia. Among the most important measures one must note the change of the Demidov Lyceum of Law in Yaroslav into the Yaroslav University, with the faculty of law, and the Perm branch of

the Petrograd University into an independent institution. Further, the Saratov and Tomsk Universities, created shortly before the revolution, were enlarged by additional faculties. These additions compensated in a way for the loss of two universities which had fallen into the hands of the enemy—the Yuryev University, in the Baltic Provinces, recently reconstructed by the Germans, and the Warsaw University, in Poland, controlled at present by the Poles.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Technical education was given a great deal of attention. The elementary and secondary institutions were graded and given a definite program. Their aim was not only to prepare skilled mechanics but also technicians capable to execute work designed by an engineer. Successful practice in a given field for at least three years entitles the practitioner to promotion. In addition to regular technical schools, the provisional authorities opened courses in the various branches of industry. In order to bring the instructors of technical institutions in touch with the industrial world, provision was made to assign them every three years to factories and industrial plants. To cover the expenses entailed by this act the Provisional Government assigned 3,000,000 rubles (1 ruble equals 51 cents), in addition to the amount named for the same purpose by the prerevolutionary authorities.

In line with the reforms pertaining to technical education of the lower and intermediary grades is the progress made last year in the field of higher technical education.

Among the new institutions opened recently should be mentioned the polytechnic institutes in Tiflis and in Nizhni-Novgorod. The latter was created in place of the Warsaw Polytechnic School, which at the beginning of the German occupation of Poland was transferred farther east to Nizhni-Novgorod, and later turned into a Russian institution.

ADULT EDUCATION.

The need of education for the adults was at no time so poignantly felt as in the days following the overthrow of czardom. The masses, awakened to the importance of the movement, realized their ignorance, and demanded from the new authorities what was so long denied them by the czarist régime. Schools for adults were opened everywhere, and the intelligent circles, eager to assist the Government, proffered their help by instituting many primary schools and courses in agriculture, rural economy, and industrial and economic cooperation suited particularly to the needs of the rural population.

PRESENT CONDITIONS.

Unfortunately, no information is available relating to present educational conditions in Russia. It is not possible to state, therefore, what changes in this respect have occurred since the overthrow of the Kerenski régime in November, 1917, nor to what extent the plans described herein have been continued.

GERMANY.

The development of education in Germany during the past two years must necessarily remain obscure until the sources of direct information are again opened up. From extracts and references here and there the educational situation does not appear to have been very happy, and, if reports such as the following may be trusted, the educational machinery so carefully built up seems to have failed at the crisis. Writing in the Vossische Zeitung of January 23, 1918, Dr. Paul Hildebrandt contrasts the early enthusiasm manifested by the German school children and their war activities with the situation at the beginning of the present year:

> The sixth-grade pupils of 1914 are now about to be promoted to the upper third. They have become accustomed to the war. Who can wonder, then, that now in the fourth year of war our children exhibit signs of change? Too many of the restraints have been removed which should shape their development—the loosening of family ties, the father at the front, the mother employed away from home, and in the lower ranks of society doing the work of men; the relaxation of school discipline. Of the teachers of the Berlin public schools, for instance, two-thirds have gone into the army. The remainder are overworked. Dropping class periods or combining classes together are the order of the day. In the higher schools half of the teachers are in the army. Furthermore, standards in the higher institutions of learning have gradually been lowered until the final examination has been pushed back fully two classes. All these conditions have influenced our students and have weakened their persistence, since they see that they can attain a scholastic standing without effort that formerly demanded the severest application.
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> Young people follow the law of their nature. They are guided by the impressions of the moment, and they can not permanently resist them. In addition, as time went on, especially in case of the students of higher institutions, and particularly in the towns, the hardship of inadequate nourishment appeared. It is the unanimous judgment of medical specialists that the children of the middle classes suffered most in this respect. General attention was attracted to the fact that the children were less sensitive to reproof, that they paid no more attention to threats, because the school authorities had directed that they should be treated with every leniency, and since promotions no longer represented any definite standard of accomplishment. This special consideration for the children was most obvious in the schools of the large cities. Was not harvest work and the country vacation necessary to maintain the health of the coming generation, and was it not necessary for a great many to be set back in their studies so that they required repeated concessions to maintain their rank and thereby continually lower scholastic standards of their classes?

That spirit of voluntary service which at the beginning of the war revealed itself in its fairest aspect has now disappeared. Everywhere we hear lamentations over the increasing distaste shown for military service. Pupils collect articles now for the reward, not from patriotism, and the older pupils have their struggles. Shall they take advantage of the opportunity to leave school with a half-completed education, or shall they avoid placing themselves in a position where they will have to enlist for their country? What an unhappy indecision even for the best of them, those who really think about the matter.

Furthermore, in those ranks of society which are less influenced by tradition, discipline, and education we find increasing violations of the law. At the first this manifested itself merely in an increase of theft. More recently it has taken a decided turn toward personal assaults. It is true the latter are still negligible in proportion to the total number of juvenile offenses, but they are increasing every year. Already the number of violent crimes committed by youths in the city of Berlin is more than three times the number reported in 1914.

Thus dark shadows are falling over the brilliant picture of 1914. Every disciplinary influence, every effort of the still fundamentally sound German Nation, must be exerted to oppose this tendency and to lead the children back to the path of rectitude.

Another picture, but one also indicating the difficulties that attend the conduct of the schools, is given in the Leipziger Volkszeitung for February 8, 1918:

The Saxon minister of education recently drew attention in the Saxon Diet to the injurious effects produced by the war on the elementary schools of the Kingdom. In addition to the shortage of fuel, which last year frequently necessitated the closing of schools and this year has required the removal and amalgamation of the whole schools, the unsatisfactory health of the teachers has had an undesirable effect.

War conditions, according to the minister, have caused great emaciation and premature aging, and have diminished the capacity for work (alike physical and intellectual) and the sharpness of the senses. This state of things is attributed not only to the food supply situation, but also to the increased difficulty and extent of the professional work falling upon teachers (only 8,965 elementary-school teachers were at work in Saxony on Oct. 1, 1917, as compared with 14,800 before the war), and to the large amount of auxiliary service imposed upon teachers in connection with war economic measures.

These accounts hardly seem to be in keeping with the eulogies heaped on the German school system during the first two years of the war in the daily press, in professional magazines, and by the Government. It was then felt very universally that the elementary school, the training ground of the discipline and physical strength and comprehensive culture that characterize the German soldier, had triumphed signally over the illiterate Russians and Italians, as well as the decadent French and treacherous English. It was the elementary schools that produced the patriotic, loyal, thorough soldier whom the consciousness of a good cause carried to victory. This unguarded flattery of the elementary schools and their teachers

helped somewhat to give a new impetus to a movement to which attention had been redirected just before the war. At an educational conference which met at Kiel in June, 1914, and was attended by representatives of all branches of education, it was urged with much enthusiasm that higher education be made accessible to as many classes in society as possible, so that intelligence might be recruited wherever it was found. Opportunity for ability could best be furnished through the establishment of the Einheitsschule or common-school systems. The idea of Einheitsschule has a long history in Germany; it has always been advocated by the leaders of progressive politics and thoughtful educators. When last agitated in the eighties Profs. Rein and J. Tews, now the *doyen* of the elementary-school teachers, were associated with the movement as they now are with its revival. The principle underlying the system of the Einheitsschule is that all pupils between the ages of 6 and 12 shall have a common foundation, to be followed by educational opportunities thereafter suited to their abilities. This implies the elimination of the Vorschule or special fee-paying school, which prepares pupils from the ages of 6 until their entrance into the secondary school at about the age of 9. It is a distinctly class school. The further implication of the Einheitsschule is the postponement of the beginning of secondary education to 12, a change that has much to commend it on grounds other than the provision of democratic opportunities, and is at least a better age at which a correct choice of a course and a career can be made than 9.

A new stimulus was given to the movement in the early days of the war, when politics were adjourned, when enthusiasm and victory had welded the nation together as one, and when Hindenburg was claimed to be superior to Hannibal and the captain of the *Emden* to Leonidas. The commercial and industrial classes had, it was generally felt, proved themselves equal to the demands of the hour. The greatest failure had appeared among the political and diplomatic leaders. The demand was at once renewed for the establishment of a common school from which pupils of promise in all classes of society might be recruited to place their intellectual abilities at the service of the state and to furnish an intellectual and spiritual reserve to make up for the physical and intellectual losses incurred during the war. It was no longer a question of providing an easy path (*Bahn leicht*) for ability but an unobstructed path (*Bahn frei*). The war changed the aspects of the problem; the need of the hour was a German national school for all, with opportunity for all to cooperate in promoting the great aims of the German cultural state. National unity could only be advanced by a national common school, which, according to the progressives, including the Deutsche Lehrerverein and the social democrats, must be established as a free, undenominational, and nationally uni-

form institution, placing gifted children of the poorer classes on the same footing for promotion to higher education as the children of the richer classes. Cultural and social equality must be established for the working classes who were anxious to play their proper part in the development of common national aims. They desired not so much to reach the top, but that their abler members should have opportunities opened to them suited to their ability, without reference to school privileges and certificates. For the worker the question is not so much "How can I raise my son socially through education?" as "How can I secure for my class, or rather its abler members, appropriate influence on the administration of the state and of the community in industry, commerce, transport; and how can I put an end to the influences of privilege that are socially detrimental?" Selection for educational advantages must in the future be based, in the opinion of the advocates of the movement, not on privilege but on the common right of all classes. The proposals for the Einheitsschule are well summarized in a resolution passed in June by the Association of Prussian Women Teachers' meeting at Hannover:

> National unity, returning stronger than ever after the war, will demand a unified school system for all Germany. The reconstruction of the whole system will have to be made with a single compulsory elementary school as its foundation. Reasons for this are of different kinds; reasons of social justice, that every gifted child shall be able to advance to a higher education; national and economic reasons, that the state shall be able to make use of all native talent in the most suitable place, and shall be able to economize on the heavy and useless expenses which are incurred by the presence of poorly endowed scholars in the secondary schools.

Karl Muthesius, long a leader in educational affairs, is opposed to class barriers and restrictions on intellectual development merely because of poverty. The elementary school up to 12 must be the national school, offering a common foundation for all; beyond this opportunities must be created for differentiation according to the needs of the individual and of the nation. The common school must be free from clerical control and permitted to be self-directing. He expresses his opposition to the classical tradition in days when German culture is fully developed to furnish a sound basis for education. Prof. Rein, in a work edited by Fr. Thimme,[1] in which are collected the opinions of leading Germans on the subject under discussion, declares himself most emphatically, as might be expected, in favor of the common school, whose establishment would make a real and effectual contribution to the development of national feeling in the hearts of all children. Such an organization would give inner unity to the whole system of moral culture in Germany.

Opposition to these claims was immediately aroused and came from the secondary schools, teachers of traditional subjects, school

[1] Thimme, Fr. Vom inneren Frieden des deutschen Volkes. Leipzig, 1916.

inspectors, administrative officials, and the clerical and conservative elements in politics. The secondary-school teachers in general feared overcrowding of their schools. The specialists were alarmed at the thought of the postponement of the beginning of secondary education from the age of 9 to 12 and the consequent lowering of standards. The inspectors and administrative officials produced arguments against a radical change based on considerations of the good of the lower classes; higher education would only lead to unrest and discontent, to dissatisfaction with the social position of parents, and ambitions for higher positions that are limited in number; pupils from poorer homes and humbler environments do not enjoy the same advantages and opportunities that are possessed by the children of the upper classes, a condition that in itself might be fraught with danger consequent on the sudden transfer from a humble to a higher status. In any case the work of the elementary schools furnishes no criterion for the selection of pupils for advancement to higher education, so that early selection would be surrounded with risk for the aspiring pupil, while no account would be taken or provision made for late development. It would also be unjust to the elementary-school teachers to deprive them of the pick of their product, and the promotion of gifted pupils would mean the withdrawal of an ever-present incentive to the less well endowed. If the views of the radicals were realized and the selection of able pupils for advancement to secondary schools were made by the schools, the rights of parents would be outraged; at the most, all that the schools should do would be to advise parents and allow them to act if they choose. The fear was also expressed by no less an authority than Rudolf Eucken that the realization of the common-school proposal would endanger traditional values in school, lower standards, compromise the precious things of German culture, and in the last analysis lead to the establishment of private schools and the perpetuation of a social class to preserve these heritages. Curt Fritzsche,[1] in a work on the Einheitsschule, claims to see the purport of the whole movement in the reception accorded at the Kiel congress of 1914 to the declaration of two French delegates that it represented the international ideal common to all Europe—clearly the aims and tendencies of the movement are internationalism, democratization, radicalism, antireligious secularization, egoism, and social feuds.

Early in 1916 the subject came within the realm of practical politics, when the educational estimates for 1916–17 were brought up for debate in the Prussian House of Representatives (Abgeordnetenhaus). The social democrats and the progressive volksparten came forward with a demand for the abolition of the vorschule and the

[1] Fritzsche, C. Die Einheitsschule in Bibliothek für Volks- und Weltwirtschaft, No. 21. Dresden, 1916.

throwing open of opportunities for ability in whatever grade of society it might appear. The vorschule is merely a school for those privileged by class who made no other use of their educational opportunity than to advance as far as the einjährigenzeugnis. If the principle of the einheitsschule were adopted the best pupils would pass on completion of their elementary school course to the secondary school and in five or six years obtain the reifezengnis, or certificate of maturity, that would admit them to the universities. Both proposals met with opposition from the conservatives and the clericals, who feared that the common-school movement would involve secularization. They were prepared to grant one concession—that the transfer of pupils from the elementary to the secondary schools should be made as easy as that from the vorschule. On behalf of the Government the minister of education admitted the need of establishing facilities for transferring able pupils from the elementary to the secondary schools and suggested the organization of a mittelschule for this purpose. He referred to an experiment that had already been conducted in Berlin whereby pupils from elementary schools were transferred to the quarta class, or third year of the realschule, and in four years attained to the einjährigenzeugnis. Such pupils could then move on to the oberrealschule and at 19 or 20 be ready to pass on to the universities.

In the middle of 1916 announcements appeared in the press that the ministry of education was preparing regulations to enable fit and selected pupils after three years in an elementary school to be transferred without further examination to a secondary school, thus enjoying practically the same privilege as the pupils of the Vorschule with the difference that, if found deficient, they could be returned to the elementary grades. This proposal met with a storm of opposition; it was feared that the secondary schools would be invaded and that the teachers and principals of these schools would not have the power to turn pupils back to the elementary schools. The result was that the ministry denied that it was even considering such a suggestion, and stated that it was merely planning to codify the regulations for the entrance examinations to secondary schools which had remained unchanged since 1837. When the new regulations were issued in August it was found that they benefited the Vorschule rather than the elementary schools.

The question of the Einheitsschule again came up in the course of the debate on the estimates for 1917–18, and the Government was now compelled to act. The position of the minister of education showed clearly that the ground had been shifted. From the consideration of the Einheitsschule and of plans for facilitating the transition from the elementary to the secondary school, the problem had

been narrowed down to that of selecting gifted elementary school pupils for advancement to higher education. The minister announced that he had, early in 1917, addressed the following questions to all district inspectors:

(*a*) In what elementary school organizations can a good pupil pass into Sexta of a secondary school without necessitating special arrangements or alterations in the school program?

(*b*) If such organizations do not exist, what changes would have to be made in the program to render these transfers possible?

(*c*) Can such changes be made without disadvantage to the other students? If not, suggestions should be made for special arrangements to meet the needs of the gifted pupil.

It was announced that an experiment was being conducted by the Government at Königsberg, and plans were in progress for dealing with the needs of gifted children in Berlin, Frankfort, Breslau, Mannheim, and Hamburg.

The new movement for the selection of gifted and exceptional children seems to have had the effect of checking completely any further demands for the Einheitsschule. In the school systems to which reference is made above Begabtenschulen have been or are in process of being established, and it is not improbable that this compromise will be accepted by both sides. Nowhere has a common school been put into operation, and teachers' associations appear to have been active in promoting the new experiments, which are limited to facilitating access to middle and secondary schools to gifted and exceptional (*Begabten and Hochbegabten*) pupils in elementary schools.

In Berlin such an experiment was introduced on the suggestion of Geheimer Justizrat Cassel, a member of the Progressive Volkspartei, who urged in the Prussian Abgeordnetenhaus in 1916 the establishment of facilities in each Province to enable pupils on finishing the elementary schools to continue to a higher school and reach the Reifezeugnis or maturity certificate in five or six years. Such a plan, he stated, would be of advantage to children of poor parents in larger cities as well as to children in small towns and rural areas who could enjoy the blessings of home influences up to 14. Dr. Reimann, the director of education for Berlin, adopted the suggestion and the Begabtenschule was established in 1917 for the admission of exceptional and studious pupils who have completed the first seven years of the elementary school course. The work of the Begabtenschule begins with that of Untertertia of a secondary school; during the first year the pupils are under probation and, if they fail to meet the standards, may be discharged—that is, at the age at which they would ordinarily have reached the close of the compulsory attendance period. After two years—that is, after Untersekunda—a choice is open between the course of a gymnasium

or of a realgymnasium. The schools do not grant the privilege of one year of military service but after six years lead to the maturity certificate which admits to the university. The Begabtenschule is open to able pupils of all classes; fees are remitted for poor pupils, and books and, in case of need, maintenance grants up to 300 marks ($75) a year are granted. The pupils must be recommended by their schools and are selected on the basis of psychological intelligence tests. The first tests were conducted by W. Moede and C. Piorkowski, psychologists who had met with success in selecting motor transport drivers for the army by tests which were used in all sections of this branch of the service. This selection is based on tests of attention and concentration, memory, combinations, wealth of ideas, judgment, intention, and observation. The authors of these tests declare that "reviewing the precise results of the analytical and systematic tests, the professional psychologist can not refuse to accept the responsibility for his decisions based on good scientific principles." Dr. Reimann plans to test pupils with artistic or technical bent and select them at 13 or 14 for higher trade schools to train as painters, jewelers, designers, embroiderers, cabinetmakers, lithographers, and other crafts. Dr. H. Rebhuhn has prepared an observation sheet which was presented by the Association for Exact Pedagogy to the city school board to be used by teachers as soon as pupils commence to show marked ability, and so serve as a record from the second year up.

A similar plan was inaugurated at Leipzig for boys and provision will be made for girls. Special classes were established at a reform school and an Oberrealshule closely coordinated with the elementary schools. The course begins in Untertertia with intensive study of French for three-quarters of a year, when English or Latin are taken up. After another year the pupils are ready to take their place in the normal class of the school (Untersekunda). Tuition, books, and maintenance allowances are granted in case of need. Since the number of selected pupils is restricted to 20 each year, they are the very exceptional only (*hervorragend Begabten*). In order not to flood the academic and professional careers, similar experiments will be attempted in other schools, e. g., school of commerce, technical school, and trade schools.

A somewhat different plan has been adopted at Hamburg, where it was originally intended to establish a transition or special class to coordinate the elementary secondary schools. In place of this, owing to the insistence of the teachers and the House of Burgesses, a type of school is organized that avoids such half measures. At 10 years of age—that is, on completing the fourth school year—pupils are especially selected for the new schools, of which 22 have been established (14 for boys and 8 for girls), to provide either a four-year

German course or a five-year course with foreign languages. These schools are similar to the Prussian middle schools and carry the privilege of admission to certain higher trade schools and to the State examination for the one-year military privilege. The pupil who completes the courses of such schools can, by way of the Oberrealschule or the Realygymnasium, pass on to the universities. The selection of the gifted pupils is based partly on the psychological observations by the teachers and psychological tests by an expert, for both of which Dr. W. Stern, of the Psychological Institute, is responsible. The psychological observations are recorded in a specially prepared folder indicating the home conditions and school record of the pupil, his adaptability, attentiveness, susceptibility to fatigue, powers of observation and comprehension, memory, imagination, thought, language, industry, disposition and will power, special interests, and abilities. The psychological tests include the logical arrangement of ideas, explanation of concepts, completion test, building of sentences on the basis of key words, the derivation of the moral of a story, the discovery of illogicalities, the finding of a legend for a series of pictures, and test of attentiveness. Stern claims that the cooperation of the teachers makes the Hamburg system superior to the Berlin plan of selecting on the basis of tests alone; it should also be mentioned that the selection in Hamburg is under the supervision of a committee of the superintendent, inspectors, principals, teachers, and psychologists. For pupils who develop at a later stage than those for whom these arrangements are made, transition has been established in two Realschulen, in which after one year they can pass on to the last year of the school and qualify for the one-year military privilege.

Breslau has established special classes for boys and girls of great ability (hochbegabten) selected at about the age of 12 by a psychological expert on the basis of intelligence tests similar to those used in Hamburg. Pupils who succeed in these schools will be encouraged by the city to proceed along suitable lines. The city will look after the education of selected pupils who may thus be under the observation of the psychologist until they pass into their chosen vocation. Facilities have been instituted in Charlottenburg to enable gifted pupils to advance more rapidly in the elementary schools and complete the work of a middle school. At Frankfort gifted pupils, on leaving the elementary schools, may be prepared in one year to enter Untersekunda of an Oberrealschule, and in four years to attain the Reifezeugnis. The Mannheim [1] system is well known in this country.

The experiment is thus confined to the larger towns, and complaints are already heard that the State should take over the further development of such plans to bring them within the reach of all. In the

[1] See Auxiliary Schools of Germany. U. S. Bureau of Education, 1907, Bulletin No. 3.

meantime critics even of this precipitate of the more ambitious and more democratic movement for the Einheitsschule are not wanting. There are those who express concern lest the gifted pupils become spoiled and conceited; that selection in itself would set up class distinctions; that school ability is not necessarily a guarantee of ability in after life; that pupils should not be selected on the basis of school marks but on the basis of character, pronounced bent, and moral force. Further, the plans involve the danger of robbing the lower classes of their intelligent members, of depriving industry of its abler workmen, and of overcrowding academic and professional careers. Finally, faute de mieux, psychological tests are not yet sufficiently developed to serve as a basis of sound and scientific diagnosis, and are inadequate until they have found a more extensive place in the schools. It is clear that the mind of the German reactionary follows the same kind of logic in domestic as in foreign affairs.

III.

ACTIVITIES OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

THE CAMPAIGN FOR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The whole strength of the Bureau of Education has been directed without cessation during the past year to the effort to maintain the schools of the country at full efficiency during the war.

There was need of the effort. The declaration of war came in the midst of the second semester of the school year, 1916–17. The attendant excitement threatened to demoralize the entire work of instruction even before the real effects of war measures began to be felt. During the summer vacation of 1917 large numbers of students and of teachers volunteered for military or naval service. The enrollment at the beginning of the new term was, as a whole, larger than had been expected, but the numbers soon began to decline, as the voluntary enlistments increased and as young men and boys left their books to accept employment in the industries at wages that were high beyond all precedent.

Professors and instructors in colleges and high schools were in demand for scientific work for the Army, Navy, and Government departments, and for responsible positions in commercial and manufacturing establishments. Women teachers discovered that they could earn a great deal more as clerks than as teachers, and many of them resigned their positions without hesitation. The cost of all supplies and materials advanced rapidly, making it impossible with a fixed income fully to provide for the needs of the schools. All these difficulties increased as the months passed, and the number of men called to military service increased, for each man called left one more place to be filled in the productive industries.

The most earnest efforts of school officers of every degree were required to save the schools from serious deterioration. The Commissioner of Education foresaw the results that would follow the unfavorable occurrences that were taking place, and threw all his energy into a campaign to nullify them. Appeal after appeal was made to all those who were concerned in the situation and to those who seemed able to exercise any influence in overcoming the conditions that militated against the welfare of the schools. Parents

were urged not to take their children prematurely from school, in order that they might not be deprived of the advantage justly due them; high school and college boys were urged to continue their attendance until the completion of their courses, in order that they might serve their country as trained leaders rather than as common soldiers or unskilled workmen; teachers were urged to remain at their posts developing the intellect of growing children rather than to desert them for tasks which might as well be done by others; chairmen of school boards were urged to increase the salaries of teachers in order that they might not be led into less important callings because of the lack of compensation sufficient for decent and suitable living; high Government officers were urged to make arrangements for the draft and other demands upon the services of men which would avoid injury to the schools; and clergymen, editors of all classes of journals, labor leaders, parent-teacher associations, women's clubs, as well as school superintendents and heads of all educational institutions, were urged to exert all the powers that in them lay to induce parents, students, teachers, school boards, and public officers to strive to the utmost to maintain the normal school attendance and the normal standard of instruction.

The Secretary of the Interior and the President of the United States have cordially supported the Commissioner of Education in this campaign. The President has written two characteristic letters in its behalf which were reproduced and distributed far and wide by the Bureau of Education.

They were as follows:

THE WHITE HOUSE,
Washington, 20 July, 1917.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY: The question which you have brought to my attention is of the very greatest moment. It would, as you suggest, seriously impair America's prospects of success in this war if the supply of highly trained men were unnecessarily diminished. There will be need for a larger number of persons expert in the various fields of applied science than ever before. Such persons will be needed both during the war and after its close. I therefore have no hesitation in urging colleges and technical schools to endeavor to maintain their courses as far as possible on the usual basis. There will be many young men from these institutions who will serve in the armed forces of the country. Those who fall below the age of selective conscription and who do not enlist may feel that by pursuing their courses with earnestness and diligence they also are preparing themselves for valuable service to the Nation. I would particularly urge upon the young people who are leaving our high schools that as many of them as can do so avail themselves this year of the opportunities offered by the colleges and technical schools, to the end that the country may not lack an adequate supply of trained men and women.

Cordially and sincerely, yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

HON. FRANKLIN K. LANE,
Secretary of the Interior.

THE WHITE HOUSE,
Washington, 31 July, 1918.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY: I am pleased to know that despite the unusual burdens imposed upon our people by the war they have maintained their schools and other agencies of education so nearly at their normal efficiency. That this should be continued throughout the war and that, in so far as the draft law will permit, there should be no falling off in attendance in elementary schools, high schools, or colleges is a matter of the very greatest importance, affecting both our strength in war and our national welfare and efficiency when the war is over. So long as the war continues there will be constant need of very large numbers of men and women of the highest and most thorough training for war service in many lines. After the war there will be urgent need not only for trained leadership in all lines of industrial, commercial, social, and civic life, but for a very high average of intelligence and preparation on the part of all the people. I would therefore urge that the people continue to give generous support to their schools of all grades and that the schools adjust themselves as wisely as possible to the new conditions to the end that no boy or girl shall have less opportunity for education because of the war and that the Nation may be strengthened as it can only be through the right education of all its people. I approve most heartily your plans for making through the Bureau of Education a comprehensive campaign for the support of the schools and for the maintenance of attendance upon them, and trust that you may have the cooperation in this work of the American Council of Education.

Cordially and sincerely, yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

Hon FRANKLIN K. LANE,
Secretary of the Interior.

The interest of the Secretary of the Interior has been repeatedly manifested in the campaign for the maintenance of the schools at normal efficiency. In February, 1918, he called a conference of representatives of the War Department, Navy Department, Department of the Interior, Department of Agriculture, Department of Labor, and the Civil Service Commission for the purpose of considering the needs of the several departments in relation to the schools. After several conferences the following statement was prepared and formally approved by the heads of all the departments concerned:

THE NEED IN AGRICULTURE.

Before the opening of the war there were in the United States about 6,000,000 farmers, and about an equal number of farm laborers. There are farm labor difficulties to be overcome in many parts of the Union. In some sections the situation is acute.

Aside from casual work, chores, and the like, which might be done outside of school hours, the labor of boys under 14 years of age is not a vital factor on the farm. City boys, without farm experience, are not generally useful under 16 years of age. In some lines of farm work unskilled boys can be used in part, under skilled direction. In some lines of work a bright, strong boy can step in, without previous experience, and be of use almost from the first day. There are, of course, some kinds of farm work that a boy without farm experience can not be expected to do without training. In any case, intelligence, good health, and good physical development are essential for useful service on the farm.

One of the urgent needs on the farm to-day is for capable women to help with the housework. Without such help many farms could not take on additional farm laborers, even if they were available, because of the added labor involved in providing meals and lodging.

THE NEED IN THE ARMY AND NAVY.

The Army and Navy do not want, and can not use, boys under 18 years of age, nor boys nor men of any age who are not strong and well-developed physically. So far as the Army and Navy are concerned, there is nothing more important that the schools can do than to keep going at full capacity, and at the same time to emphasize in every possible way their work in physical education. High school boys will render the best service of which they are capable by remaining in school until completion of the high school course.

As soon as the Army is able to announce definitely its need of men possessing certain technical and trade qualifications, it will be necessary for large numbers of young men 18 years of age and over to respond by taking the training courses that may be provided to prepare them in the shortest possible time. But, in the meantime, nothing can possibly be gained by boys doing otherwise than to continue in school, laying the very best possible foundation for such subsequent training. If they are wanted, they will be called.

If the schools will carefully select boys having suitable physical development and other necessary qualifications, prepare them for the various branches of agricultural work, and send them out to service on the farms under proper auspices during the approaching vacation, they will undoubtedly be offering greater relief in the present emergency than would be possible by attempting to carry on any work immediately under the Army or Navy.

Vigorous physical training under discipline furnishes excellent preparation for civil or military usefulness later on. Such value as formal military drill in the high schools may have, however, is more likely to be through keeping the boys satisfied to remain in school than as a contribution to the immediate military strength of the country.

THE NEED IN CIVIL SERVICE.

There is a strong demand for clerks, stenographers, and typewriters, but the places can not be filled by boys and girls under 18 years of age. No advantage would accrue to the civil service in any way by shutting down the schools or by curtailing school facilities.

Many civil service positions have been filled by drawing workers from commercial and industrial houses, and also by drawing teachers from the schools. All of the positions thus made vacant must be filled from some source. Therefore, schools could undoubtedly render a much-needed service by organizing classes to train stenographers, typewriters, clerks, and secretaries.

THE NEED IN INDUSTRY.

Many industries and commercial establishments could use capable boys and girls for various kinds of service, but Government officials maintain that no emergency exists which justifies proposing any relaxation of the laws safeguarding the working condition of young people.

Still more serious labor shortages in industry are anticipated, but boys and girls under 18 years of age should not be used to make up these shortages any more than can possibly be helped. It is easier to provide approved working conditions on the farm than in the mill or factory.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. Conditions in different sections of the country are so diverse that no detailed policy will be uniformly applicable. Only general policies and principles may be adopted for the country as a whole.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

2. There appears to be nothing in the present or prospective war emergency to justify curtailment in any respect of the sessions of the elementary school, or of the education of boys and girls under 14 years of age, and nothing which should serve as an excuse for interference with the progressive development of the school system. Teachers and pupils may be encouraged to find ways of performing in the schools some service having war value, such as activities connected with the Junior Red Cross, war-garden work, Boy Scouts, war-thrift work, and the like. Opportunities should be found to introduce into the school activities having real educational value, which at the same time connect the public schools with the ideals of service and self-sacrifice actuating our people, and bring home to the consciousness of teachers, pupils, and parents the essential unity of the Nation in this great crisis.

3. In view of the progress that has been made in this country in the enactment of compulsory education legislation, it is assumed at the outset that there is no question that in the country and villages all girls under 14 years of age, and all boys under 12, might well continue in school through the summer, wherever the condition of the school funds makes this at all possible.

4. In the cities there would be no interference with the supply of needed labor if all children under 14 continue in school to the end of the regular session, and through the summer as well, and there would be but little interference if all children under 16 continue in school. With reference to boys and girls over these ages, the recommendations which follow indicate certain directions in which it is believed the school program may be modified when necessary to meet emergencies.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

5. One of the places in which there appears to be immediate demand for modification of the high-school program is in respect to the need for agricultural labor. Much valuable service can be rendered by carefully selecting and training boys to assist in meeting this demand. It can not be too strongly urged, however, that each pupil's case be considered individually, and no pupil should be excused from school for this purpose except with the written consent of the parents, to accept specified employment for a definite term, under responsible supervision by the school or by other approved agencies of the conditions of employment.

6. It would be helpful in cities, and especially in industrial communities, if, for boys and girls over 14 years of age in or out of school, certain definite courses could be introduced looking toward a cooperative half-time plan of school attendance and employment throughout the year.

IN GENERAL.

7. In general, it is believed that, wherever school boards can find the means, the present emergency is an opportune time for readjusting the schools on an all-year-round basis, with a school of 48 weeks, divided into four quarters of 12 weeks each. The schools would then be in continuous operation, but individual teachers and pupils would have the option of taking one-quarter off at prearranged periods for needed change.

8. If it is not practicable for the schools to change at once to the all-year-round program, a much-needed service can be rendered in many localities by organizing special summer and evening classes to train young people for the civil service, and to train stenographers, typewriters, clerks, and secretaries for the commercial world. In many communities numbers of adult women will be found who are free to avail themselves of special training to fit themselves for various kinds of positions in office and clerical work, taking temporarily the places of men called to the colors or to other employment.

9. Some schools should consider the possibility of arranging a schedule for certain groups of students having a definite prospect of service, in accordance with which the summer months would be spent in school, leaving the students free to work on the farms during planting time in the spring and again during harvest time in the fall. In still other cases, particularly in the smaller communities, time may be secured for farm work by omitting the usual spring vacation, by holding school on Saturdays, and otherwise speeding up, and thus completing the term's studies some weeks in advance of the usual date for closing the school.

10. Special programs of the type suggested in the preceding paragraph should be reserved in general for individual students or specially selected groups of students who have definite plans for proper use of the time thus taken from the school. In no case can justification be found for the general shortening of the school term in the expectation that *some* students *may* find places of useful service.

11. In response to definite requests from Government agencies, schools should be used from time to time for specific preparation of individuals for immediate service.

12. Boys and girls should be urged, as a patriotic duty, to remain in school to the completion of the high-school course, and in increasing numbers to enter upon college and university courses, especially in technical and scientific lines, and normal school courses, to meet the great need for trained men and women.

APPROVED.

For the War Department,
NEWTON D. BAKER, *Secretary.*
For the Navy Department,
JOSEPHUS DANIELS, *Secretary.*
For the Department of the Interior,
FRANKLIN K. LANE, *Secretary.*
P. P. CLAXTON, *Commissioner of Education.*
For the Department of Agriculture,
DAVID F. HOUSTON, *Secretary.*
For the Department of Labor,
WILLIAM B. WILSON, *Secretary.*
For the U. S. Civil Service Commission,
JOHN A. MCILHENNY, *Chairman.*

The interest of the Secretary of the Interior led him further to instruct the Commissioner of Education on May 15, 1918, to invite a conference of a few men of high standing in order that they might advise the Department of the Interior what course to pursue in urging young men and women to continue their college courses. The result is shown in the following report of the conference with

the accompanying letter from Secretary Lane to the Commissioner of Education:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, June 28, 1918.

SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING IN THE WAR EMERGENCY.

Statement of the problem.—The time has come when we must place before the country in definite and unmistakable terms the task which confronts us in providing men and women with the needed scientific, technical, mechanical, and agricultural knowledge and skill requisite for winning the war, and bring such pressure to bear that immediate and salutary action will result.

1. Regardless of the duration of the war, it will be followed inevitably by a period of reconstruction which will make demands no less exacting for an indefinite period thereafter.

2. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of engineering knowledge and skill, in the broadest sense, not only directly in the conduct of military operations, but indirectly in the essential war industries. A high type of agriculture, to insure an unfailing food supply, is equally indispensable.

3. The engineering problems confronting the United States are indefinitely greater than those of any other of the great nations. For an average distance of more than 4,500 miles, across the continents and the seas, we must transport all of the men, munitions, and supplies which are to represent us in this great struggle. Furthermore, the Central Powers prepared themselves for this conflict over a long period of years, and by this means determined its character to their own advantage in large measure.

4. The loss by our allies of men of highly specialized training in the early stages of the war, and the difficulties in the way of recovery, leave this Nation in the position of trustee of the principal remaining sources of supply.

5. For the period of reconstruction there will be urgent need of large numbers of men and women trained in commerce, economics, and social and political science, in addition to those mentioned above.

6. To accomplish these ends an adequate supply of trained teachers in scientific and technical subjects is absolutely indispensable.

Action by the War Department.—These problems have received consideration by the proper officials of the War Department, and plans have been perfected for the organization of a Students' Enlisted Corps, which will develop as a military asset the body of young men in the colleges, while at the same time preventing the unnecessary and wasteful depletion of the college through indiscriminate volunteering, by offering to the students a definite and immediate military status.

Conference as to procedure.—In recognition of the importance of this matter Secretary Lane directed the Commissioner of Education to invite a small group of representative citizens to meet and advise with him in regard to what policy the Department of the Interior should pursue as to urging upon our young men and women the taking up or continuing of college and university courses during the war.

Invitations were sent to the following persons to meet in the office of the Secretary of the Interior on Friday, May 31, 1918:

Mr. Fuller E. Callaway, director, sales and finances, Callaway Development Co., La Grange, Ga.

Mr. Samuel M. Felton, president Chicago Great Western Railway; director general of Military Railways, War Department.

Mr. Edwin A. Alderman, president University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.

Mr. Alderman was unable to attend the first conference, at which time he was represented by Mr. William M. Thornton, dean of the College of Engineering, University of Virginia.

As the result of a series of conferences the Department of the Interior was urged:

1. To use all its influence to maintain at the highest possible standard of efficiency all of the processes of higher education, but especially those having to do with the future supply of men and women trained in scientific and technical subjects, including teachers in these fields.

2. To endeavor to secure, for this memorandum, including the recommendations which follow, the indorsement and support of those departments of the Government which are especially interested.

3. To secure early and widespread publicity for the conclusions of this series of conferences.

Conclusions and recommendations.—1. The people of the United States should recognize that the maintenance of the war strength of the Nation in its full power demands the utmost efforts of all existing well-organized and adequately equipped colleges, universities, and technical schools. This means ever-increasing and more devoted bodies of students as well as faculties.

2. Young people having the requisite qualifications should heed this urgent call of their country, and apply themselves diligently, enthusiastically, and in increasing numbers to the task of preparing for the highest service of which they are capable. Wherever practicable young men should at the same time join the Students' Enlisted Reserve and prepare for military service, in order to be ready for that call also when it comes.

3. Institutions of higher education should adjust their courses, so far as possible, to immediate war needs and to the demands which must inevitably come with the establishment of peace, and should develop especially those scientific and practical branches of study which are essential to the winning of the war, to the development of our industries and commerce, and to the accomplishment of the tasks of the civic and political life of the Nation.

4. Educational institutions should use every effort to make the opportunities and privileges of training for public service accessible to all suitably prepared men and women of college age. In the cases of many worthy young men and women this will require some pro-

vision for assistance in meeting payments for tuition and laboratory fees and other necessary expenses of higher technical training.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, July 30, 1918.

DEAR DOCTOR CLAXTON: The recommendations of the commission invited by you in accordance with my instructions of May 15 to advise this department in regard to what policy it should pursue as to urging upon our young men and women the taking up or continuing of college and university courses during the war have my hearty approval. This is a matter of the greatest importance for our strength in war and for the future welfare of the country. You will, therefore, do all you can through the Bureau of Education and in cooperation with all other available agencies for the promotion of the policy recommended.

Cordially, yours,

FRANKLIN K. LANE.

DR. P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner of Education.

It is unnecessary to describe in detail all the appeals which the commissioner has made, or to reproduce all the different letters he has written. The following, which were sent respectively to 120,000 clergymen, to the heads of all teacher-training institutions, and to boards of education, will serve as specimens:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, August 15, 1918.

DEAR SIR: I am inclosing a copy of a letter from the President of the United States to the Secretary of the Interior, and am appealing to you and other ministers throughout the country to assist us in this campaign for maintaining, at their normal efficiency at least, all schools of all kinds and grades during the war. The policy stated in the President's letter has been the policy of the Administration, including both the Department of War and the Department of the Navy, from the time we entered the war, and the events of the year have served to emphasize its importance.

Not only is it necessary for the welfare of the country and the safety of our democracy when the war is over; it is equally important for the strength of our country while the war continues. We would all hope that the war may end soon, but it may be very long, and in war a people must prepare for every possibility. If the war should be long, there will be great need in all the allied countries for large numbers of men and women of the best college and university training for service both in the Army and in the industries directly or indirectly connected with the war, and the colleges and universities of the United States must supply this need to a large extent for all the allied countries. In some fields, as chemistry and the various forms of civil and industrial engineering, the demand for trained men and women is already much greater than the supply. It is therefore a patriotic duty for young men and women who are prepared to enter college to do so and for those now in college to remain until their courses are completed, unless they are called for some service which can not be rendered so effectively by others. They should be encouraged to exercise that high form of self-restraint which will keep them at their studies despite all temptations for more immediate service until they are prepared for the expert work without which the devotion and efforts of millions will be of little value.

When the war is over and the days of reconstruction come, the call upon this country for men and women of the highest and best training for help in rebuilding the world will be large and insistent. For our own good and for the good of the world we should be able to respond generously. Conditions in this country and our position among the peoples of the world will require of us a higher level of intelligence and civic righteousness than we or any other people have ever yet attained. This must be insured largely through the education of our schools.

Parents should be encouraged to make all sacrifice necessary to keep their sons and daughters in school. Because of the increased cost of living this will not always be easy. Teachers should be encouraged to remain at their posts despite temptations of larger pay elsewhere. Men and women who have had successful experience as teachers and are not now in the schools should, wherever possible, be induced to take the places made vacant by teachers who have been drafted into the Army, or who have for other reasons left the schools. The people should be shown the necessity of increasing their appropriations for the support of the schools to meet, to some extent at least, the great decrease in the purchasing power of money. We must see to it that "no boy or girl shall have less opportunity for education because of the war."

There are before us now as a people just two tasks: To win the war for freedom and democracy and, let us hope, for a righteous and permanent peace; and to fit ourselves and our children for life and citizenship in the new era which the war is bringing in. Both these tasks must be accomplished thoroughly and well, at whatever cost of money and effort and at whatever sacrifice of ease and comfort may be necessary. All other interests for the present should yield to these.

Probably you will be willing to make this matter the subject of a discourse within the next week or two. It is important that it be brought to the attention of the people as effectively as possible before the time of the opening of the schools.

Yours, sincerely,

P. P. CLAXTON, *Commissioner.*

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, August 17, 1918.

DEAR SIR: In a recent letter to the Secretary of the Interior the President of the United States expressed his pleasure that the schools and other agencies of education have been maintained so nearly at their normal efficiency since our entrance into the war and stated that this policy should be continued throughout the war as a matter of the very greatest importance, affecting both our strength in war and our national welfare and efficiency when the war is over.

I feel quite sure all thoughtful men and women will agree with the President in this matter and will do all they can to assist in carrying out this policy. But it must be remembered that for effective work the schools must have competent teachers, teachers having adequate education and professional training. On the character and ability of the teachers everything depends.

However, in most, if not in all the States, there has never been an adequate supply of educated and trained teachers for all the schools; and, for many reasons, the supply is less adequate now than it has been for many years. Thousands of men have been drafted or have volunteered for service in the Army. Other thousands of men and many thousands of women have quit the work of teaching for employment in industries, commerce, civil service, and clerical positions where they are paid better than for teaching. As the war con-

tinues and as the cost of living increases, and the demand for services of the kind teachers can render grows larger, the numbers of teachers leaving the schools for other employment will become still greater, and this tendency is likely to continue long after the war is over unless the salaries of teachers should be increased far beyond the present average. How are their places to be filled? By trained or by untrained teachers?

Unless the attendance at the normal schools and in departments of education in colleges and universities is much increased, most of these places must be filled by men and women without professional knowledge and with no special training for their work. In this case the character of the schools will inevitably deteriorate and the time of the children and the money appropriated for education will be to a large extent wasted.

It is, therefore, very important that for next year and for many years to come there should be more students in these schools for the preparation of teachers than there have ever been. Thousands of boys and girls who have finished their high school work might and should render their country a high type of patriotic service by entering these schools next fall, winter, or spring to prepare themselves for the work of teaching in the elementary and secondary schools, and I wish to urge as many to do so as can.

Yours, sincerely,

P. P. CLAXTON,
United States Commissioner of Education.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, March 4, 1918.

DEAR SIR: The cost of living has increased nearly 50 per cent since 1913 and approximately one-third since 1916.

Since 1913 wholesale prices have increased as follows: Food, 85 per cent; clothing, 106 per cent; fuel, 53 per cent; drugs, 130 per cent; home furnishing goods, 75 per cent.

If the war continues it may be expected that the cost of living will be higher next year and higher still the next. Prices for both skilled and unskilled labor have also increased, and large numbers of the better teachers of our public schools in many cities and States have already resigned to enter other occupations at salaries or wages amounting to from 50 to 200 per cent more than they were paid as teachers.

As a result, standards of efficiency in the schools are being lowered at a time when it is more important than ever before that they should not only not be lowered but should, on the contrary, be raised as rapidly as possible. Conditions which will follow the war will demand a higher standard of general intelligence, industrial efficiency, and civic knowledge and virtue than we have yet attained; and this can be had only through better education.

The country as a whole is interested in this matter no less than the States and local communities. The safety of the Nation and the welfare of the people are involved. I am therefore taking the liberty to write to you at this time urging that you will give this matter the most careful consideration now and that you will take such steps as may be necessary to maintain the schools under your control at their full efficiency, and to improve and readjust their work to meet the new and larger demands made upon them. To do this it will no doubt be necessary to increase the salaries of teachers in proportion to the increase in the cost of living and to wages paid for other kinds of work.

This will mean increase in taxes; but it should be remembered that there are now just two things of supreme importance for us as a people; to win the war

for freedom and democracy and to prepare our children for life and citizenship in the new era which the war is bringing on. Let us spare no effort to accomplish both fully and well.

Yours, sincerely,

P. P. CLAXTON, *Commissioner.*

TO STATE, COUNTY, CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

EDITORIAL.

The Bureau of Education must disseminate information chiefly through the printed page. The act which established it in 1867 included a provision that the Commissioner of Education should present annually to Congress a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as would subserve the purposes for which the department was established, namely, the collection and diffusion of educational information.

No mention was made in the act of any other method of diffusing information. The commissioner would naturally be expected to devise means of his own for doing so, and the only requirement that the framers of the act thought it necessary to make was that of the Annual Report. For many years a bulky volume under that title was the principal means by which the bureau communicated with the educational world.

Occasional "special reports" and "circulars of information" were issued, but they were few in number, limited in circulation, and not usually of the kind to appeal to the rank and file of the teaching profession, even if larger editions had been possible.

A notable departure was made in 1887 when Commissioner N. H. R. Dawson began the publication of an excellent series of histories of education in the several States which were prepared under the direction of Prof. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University. Under Commissioner Harris the character of the Annual Report was greatly improved, and he introduced the practice of incorporating in it comprehensive monographs upon special topics, written by men of high standing. Furthermore, he increased the usefulness of the reports a hundredfold by splitting up the formidable volumes and sending each of the many chapters as a "separate" to those who were especially interested in that particular chapter. The entire report had previously been sent to correspondents as long as the supply lasted, although few could possibly be expected to read any considerable part of such a book.

Commissioner Brown followed the practices of Dr. Harris, whom he succeeded, in relation to the report, and in addition began in 1906 the publication of a series of pamphlets which he called the "Bulletin of the Bureau of Education." These documents are specially recog-

nized by law, and apparently they are a permanent part of the scheme of the bureau's publications.

Within recent years the activities of the bureau have expanded remarkably, and its publications have increased in number, scope, circulation, and influence, perhaps far beyond the dreams of the early commissioners.

Repeated changes of plan have been necessary to provide for the growing demand for the bureau's literature, and new devices have been adopted from time to time to extend the limited appropriations better to solve the increasing need. The ponderous volumes of the report were the greatest drain upon the printing appropriation, and its preparation required the undivided time of a large part of the personnel of the office. The differences from year to year in the statistical tables, which filled the whole of one of the two volumes, were not sufficient to justify their collection and publication every year. Every consideration of the most worth, therefore, demands that the annual report be reduced to bounds commensurate with its usefulness.

It is not intended to neglect the preparation of the statistics, which are perhaps the most valuable single contribution which the bureau makes to the fund of educational knowledge; but that material will be collected and printed every alternate year only. The same is true of the comprehensive discussions of the several forms of education which for several years past have comprised Volume I of the annual report. The two volumes will be published regularly as the "Biennial Survey of Education." The first of the series under this title is in preparation, and publication may be expected within a reasonable time. The several parts or chapters will be issued separately and distributed principally to those in the line of work discussed in the several chapters. Bound volumes will be issued later, in smaller numbers than heretofore, and distributed chiefly to libraries.

The method by which this bureau will communicate most frequently with the educational public will be, according to present plans, through a type of publications which is of recent growth, namely, "leaflets" and "circulars." These are always brief, and each is addressed to a special class of readers, containing suggestions or information which is expected to be valuable and useful to the recipients.

Information which it is desired to impart at once, without waiting for the slower process of printing, is frequently communicated by mimeographed letters or circulars. This method is especially favored when the information at hand is not entirely complete but sufficiently so to be useful. The substance of mimeographed circulars is usually issued later in printed documents.

Miscellaneous publications are issued upon occasion to serve special purposes and without regard to regular classification. These embrace such documents as those issued in behalf of the United States School Garden Army and like projects. This division of the bureau issues general leaflets describing the aim, methods for organization, and other facts regarding the army work. Besides these, leaflets are issued to the various sections of the United States that deal with the technical problems of garden cultivation. The United States School Garden Army also furnishes service flags, posters, and insignia without cost to those who have become members of the army. A Course of Study in Gardening for normal schools and a Manual of Fall Gardening for the young student-gardeners have already been issued. A Spring Manual will be published early in 1919.

To supplement all these classes of publications and to afford means of furnishing educational information with regularity, a semimonthly periodical called "School Life" has recently been established. This is at present a 16-page magazine. It will be issued during 10 months every year and will be sent gratuitously to administrative officials within the limits of the edition which the funds of the bureau permit. Others may subscribe through the Superintendent of Documents at the rate of 50 cents per year, which represents the cost of the mechanical work involved.

It issues also twice a month the Americanization Bulletin, devoted to the subject of giving to foreign persons in the United States instruction in the English language, the geography and history and ideals of the country, and other subjects necessary for intelligent and happy living among us.

It will readily appear from the foregoing that the whole theory underlying the publications has undergone a marked change during recent years. Formerly our documents were addressed principally, if not exclusively, to the administrative officers of school systems and educational institutions. Now they are still of a sort which is of use to those officers, but also to the classroom teacher as well. Some recent publications, in fact, were designed especially for classroom use, and one very important series, namely, the Lessons in Community and National Life, was written for the use of pupils themselves. This marks the most important development in the work of the bureau within recent years, and it is one of the radical changes brought about by the war.

Even the necessities of war, however, could not have caused such a change were it not for the fact that the law now permits the sale of public documents to schools and libraries at the cost of publication. It would be impossible, of course, for this office to undertake to supply the 750,000 teachers of the United States with any document, no matter how small; it would be all the more out of the question to supply

eighteen or twenty million children with literature. With the possibility of such a demand we could not print schoolroom material of any sort, but the situation is wholly different when we are called upon to enable the teachers or the children of the country to obtain at cost a document which the good of the Nation demands that they should have.

The documents issued between July 1, 1917, and June 30, 1918, were as follows:

The Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1917. 2 volumes.

BULLETIN.

1916, No. 23. Open-air schools.
1916, No. 49. Medical inspection in Great Britain.
1917, No. 2. Reorganization of English in secondary schools.
1917, No. 8. Current practice in city school administration.
1917, No. 9. Department-store education.
1917, No. 10. Development of arithmetic as a school subject.
1917, No. 11. Higher technical education in foreign countries.
1917, No. 15. Studies in higher education in Ireland and Wales.
1917, No. 16. Studies in higher education in England and Scotland.
1917, No. 17. Accredited higher institutions.
1917, No. 18. History of public school education in Delaware.
1917, No. 19. Report of a survey of the University of Nevada.
1917, No. 22. Money value of education.
1917, No. 23. Three short courses in home making.
1917, No. 25. Military training of youths of school age in foreign countries.
1917, No. 26. Garden clubs in the schools of Englewood, N. J.
1917, No. 29. Practice teaching for secondary school teachers.
1917, No. 30. School extension statistics, 1915–16.
1917, No. 31. Rural-teacher preparation in county training schools and high schools.
1917, No. 32. Work of the Bureau of Education for the natives of Alaska, 1915–16.
1917, No. 33. A comparison of the salaries of rural and urban superintendents of schools.
1917, No. 34. Institutions in the United States giving instruction in agriculture.
1917, No. 35. The township and community high-school movement in Illinois.
1917, No. 36. Demand for vocational education in the countries at war.
1917, No. 37. The conference on training for foreign service.
1917, No. 38. Vocational teachers for secondary schools.
1917, No. 39. Teaching English to aliens.
1917, No. 40. Monthly record of current educational publications, September, 1917.
1917, No. 41. Library books for high schools.
1917, No. 42. Monthly record of current educational publications, October, 1917.
1917, No. 43. Educational directory, 1917–18.
1917, No. 44. Educational conditions in Arizona.
1917, No. 45. Summer sessions in city schools.
1917, No. 46. The public school system of San Francisco, Cal.
1917, No. 47. The preparation and preservation of vegetables.
1917, No. 48. Monthly record of current educational publications, November, 1917.

1917, No. 49. Music in secondary schools.
1917, No. 50. Physical education in secondary schools.
1917, No. 51. Moral values in secondary education.
1917, No. 52. Monthly record of current educational publications, December, 1917.
1917, No. 53. The conifers of the Northern Rockies.
1917, No. 54. Training in courtesy.
1917, No. 55. Statistics of State universities and State colleges, 1917.
1918, No. 1. Monthly record of current educational publications, January, 1918.
1918, No. 2. Agricultural instruction in the high schools of six eastern States.
1918, No. 4. Monthly record of current educational publications, February, 1918.
1918, No. 5. Work of the Bureau of Education for the natives of Alaska, 1916–17.
1918, No. 7. The bureau of extension of the University of North Carolina.
1918, No. 8. Monthly record of current educational publications, March, 1918.
1918, No. 9. Union list of mathematical periodicals.
1918, No. 11. A community center—what it is and how to organize it.
1918, No. 12. Monthly record of current educational publications, April, 1918.
1918, No. 13. The land grant of 1862 and the land-grant colleges.
1918, No. 14. Monthly record of current educational publications, May, 1918.

Teachers Leaflets:
- No. 1. Opportunities for history teachers.
- No. 2. Education in patriotism.
- No. 3. Government policies involving schools in war time.
- No. 4. Outline of an emergency course of instruction on the war.
- No. 5. Certain defects in American education.

Reading Courses (Home Education Division):
- No. 1. World's great literary Bibles.
- No. 2. World's great literature.
- No. 3. Reading course for parents.
- No. 4. Reading course for boys.
- No. 5. Reading course for girls.
- No. 6. Thirty books of fiction.
- No. 7. Thirty world heroes.
- No. 8. American literature.
- No. 9. Thirty American heroes.
- No. 10. American history.

Home Economics Circulars:
- No. 2. Current problems in home economics.
- No. 3. Home economics teaching in small high schools.
- No. 4. Principles and policies in home economics education.
- No. 5. Government publications of interest to home economics teachers and students.
- No. 6. A course in food economics for the housekeeper.

Community Leaflets Nos. 1 to 24. Lessons in community and national life.

Higher Educational Circulars:
- No. 6. Contributions of higher institutions to national service.
- No. 7. The importance of technical training in military service.
- No. 8. Administrative organization of the college of agriculture.
- No. 9. Effect of the war on student enrollment.
- No. 10. Effect of the war on college budgets.
- No. 11. The Bureau of Education and the educational survey movement.

Sanitation Leaflet No. 1. The story of a boy who did not grow up.
Secondary School Circulars:
No. 1. The secondary schools and the war.
No. 2. Organization of high schools in war time.

The following numbers of the bulletin were in the hands of the printer at the close of the year:

Training of Teachers of Mathematics.
Guide to United States Government Publications.
Curriculum of the Woman's College.
Public School Classes for Crippled Children.
Educational Survey of Elyria, Ohio.
Facilidades Ofrecidas a Los Estudiantes Extranjeros.
History of Public School Education in Arizona.
Americanization as a War Measure.
Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education.
Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications, June, 1918.
Instruction in Journalism in Institutions of Higher Education.
Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications: Index, February, 1917, to January, 1918.
State Laws Relating to Education.
Vocational Guidance in the Public Schools.
Industrial Education in Wilmington, Delaware.
The National Council of Primary Education.
Rural-Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools.
The Public Schools of Columbia, South Carolina.
American Agricultural Colleges.
Resources and Standards of Colleges of Arts and Sciences.
Educational System of South Dakota.
Teaching American Ideals through Literature.

LESSONS IN COMMUNITY AND NATIONAL LIFE.

The war is bringing to the minds of our people a new appreciation of the problems of national life and a deeper understanding of the meaning and aims of democracy. Matters which heretofore have seemed commonplace and trivial are seen in a truer light. The urgent demand for the production and proper distribution of food and other national resources has made us aware of the close dependence of individual on individual and nation on nation. The effort to keep up social and industrial organizations in spite of the withdrawal of men for the Army has revealed the extent to which modern life has become complex and specialized.

These and other lessons of the war must be learned quickly if we are intelligently and successfully to defend our institutions. When the war is over we must apply the wisdom which we have acquired in purging and ennobling the life of the world.

In these vital tasks of acquiring a broader view of human possibilities the common school must have a large part.—*President Wilson.*

These considerations led the President in August, 1917, to direct the Food Administration and the Bureau of Education to organize the proper agencies for the preparation and distribution of suitable lessons for elementary grades and for the high-school classes. The President expressed the conviction that:

Lessons thus suggested will serve the double purpose of illustrating in a concrete way what can be undertaken in the schools and of stimulating teachers in all parts of the country to formulate new and appropriate materials drawn directly from the communities in which they live.

The instructions thus given involved a radical departure from all previous practices and traditions of the Bureau of Education. It meant nothing less than the preparation of a series of texts for the direct use of pupils and arrangements for their distribution through the only possible channel, namely, sale at cost through the Superintendent of Documents. No other officer is authorized under the law to sell any publication of the Government; free distribution was out of the question, for the printing required was far beyond the limit of the funds available to the bureau.

The plans finally perfected provided for the preparation of the text under the direction of Dr. Charles H. Judd and Dr. Leon C. Marshall, of the University of Chicago; the cost of preparation was borne by the Food Administration; the first edition, involving payment for composition, stereograph plates, etc., was borne by the Bureau of Education; the correspondence and all business arrangements were handled by the Editor of the Bureau of Education; the clerical force required was provided in part by the Bureau of Education and in part by the Food Administration; the actual distribution of the documents was conducted by the Superintendent of Documents, and all money received in payment of the lessons was transmitted to him.

The lessons furnished by Dr. Judd and Dr. Marshall were excellent. The purposes and principles of these lessons were thus described by Dr. Judd:

The Lessons in Community and National Life are intended first of all to lay the foundations for an intelligent enthusiasm for the United States. Our schools have lacked that emphasis on nationalism which has been characteristic of European schools. Even our history courses have been meager and have for the most part treated of periods so remote that pupils in the schools have not cultivated a true idea of the unique characteristics of our national civilization. Though we have a continuous system of free education and a broad view regarding the training of girls, though we have universal franchise and freedom of organization, though our democracy has developed beyond that of any previous historical period, our pupils have been left without knowledge of the fact that these are unique possessions shared only in part by other progressive nations. The lessons are accordingly filled with concrete descriptions of American institutions, and the significance of these institutions is made as clear as exposition and explanation can make it.

In the second place, the Lessons in Community and National Life aim to bring industry into the schools in a way which will appeal to the intelligence of pupils and will intellectualize all later contact with practical affairs. There is a very legitimate demand urged on the schools at this time that they prepare for industry. If the schools meet this demand only by furnishing the same kind of training in skill that industrial establishments might give, there will be little or no gain to society. If, on the other hand, the schools by ap-

propriate recognition of industry as the expression of human genius and human cooperation can give pupils ideas as well as skill to guide them in later practical life, then the schools will have made a genuine and positive contribution to industrial training. The lessons are accordingly filled with accounts of how industries originated and how they have evolved, so that the pupil may see that industry is a part of man's intellectual conquest of the world.

In the third place, the lessons are intended to create a sense of personal responsibility, which can result only when the pupil is shown how his life is interdependent with the life of other members of society. The child's first experiences with social life are those of a dependent and a consumer. There is little sense of responsibility until one begins to think of himself as obligated to consume wisely and to contribute to production. In these days when every individual in the Nation must conserve and when the responsibility for wise use of everything is a national duty, there are a unique demand and a unique opportunity to give pupils training in civic responsibility.

The method of securing these three ends is to present in the form of short sketches certain descriptions of the facts of national and community life. Each lesson is a unit intended to be read and studied by the pupil. The lesson is carefully prepared by a specialist and is filled with information which will reward the pupil for his reading. Each lesson is also part of a series in which the different lessons approach the same central theme from various angles. The lessons do not exhaust the theme which they illustrate. At the bottom of each page series of questions are set down in the hope of stimulating the pupils as well as the teachers to carry the methods of the lessons further. Especially is it hoped that the lessons will lead to studies of the local institutions which are around the school. A genuine study of community life must take up the familiar environment at the door of the schoolroom. The laboratory for these lessons is in the home environment and the industrial environment of the pupil.

It is hoped that the lessons will lead teachers and school officers to new efforts in the direction of a vital study of community life and that they will encourage publishers to bring together in available textbook form much material of a similar type.

The immediate purpose which gave rise to the lessons should also be kept in view. The Nation has need of the help of every child within its borders. The food supply of the world is running low. Our allies are in want. Our children must learn to save. It is believed that a free people can be appealed to effectively if the case is clearly laid before them. American children are not to be ordered to deprive themselves of familiar luxuries; they are to be told how urgent the need is. The lesson of civic responsibility, if learned in this rational way, will effect the saving that the Nation needs.

There are three grades of lessons, namely, section A, for the upper classes of the high school; section B, for the upper grades of the elementary school and the first class of the high school; and section C, for the intermediate grades of the elementary school. One number, or leaflet, of each section appeared each month for eight months, beginning October 1, 1917. Each leaflet contains from two to four lessons and fills 32 printed pages.

The reception accorded to the lessons by school men was most gratifying. Orders were unexpectedly heavy, and it was difficult to supply the demand. The total sales have amounted to nearly 3,500,000 copies of the 32-page leaflets.

A new edition of the lessons has been issued in which all the lessons of each of the three sections are bound together in pamphlet form. The pamphlets are sold at the flat price of 15 cents each.

The demand continues and a large sale is expected during the coming year, though naturally it will probably not reach the proportions of 1917–18.

STATISTICS.

The bureau has definitely undertaken the task of coordinating its own statistical work with that of the several State departments of education with the hope of increasing the value of both its own statistical reports and those of the chief school officers of the States and at the same time of relieving school officers of the burden of making two reports, one to the States and the other to the United States in different form. For the promotion of this work of coordination a director of statistics has been appointed who will have the assistance of a committee of State school officers appointed by the national association of State superintendents.

In accordance with the decision to collect detailed educational statistics biennially, no statistics for the school year ended June 30, 1917, were gathered. Consequently the members of the staff of the statistical division were able to assist in the preparation of statistical material needed in the preparation of reports of educational surveys and other special investigations. Among the projects on which this division was engaged were the following: Tabulating courses of study in summer schools; questionnaire on agricultural instruction in public high schools; relative enrollment in elementary and high schools in 1916 and 1917; questionnaires on enrollment in universities, colleges, and secondary schools, increase in salaries of teachers, courses of study in agricultural and mechanical colleges; material for survey of educational conditions in Tennessee; and four questionnaires on commercial education; revising educational directory; collecting and compiling statistics of all free public libraries in the United States.

Probably the largest and most important piece of work was the securing of the names and post-office addresses of individual schoolhouses in the United States and making a mailing list of such schoolhouses on addressograph plates. The list now contains about 182,000 names and should be completed at an early date. Considerable difficulty has been experienced in securing the necessary data from some of the superintendents of schools. This list is useful not only to the Bureau of Education in enabling it to reach directly teachers, school boards, and school communities, but also to many other departments and bureaus of the Government. It is especially helpful in wartime in getting messages directly to the people.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

The work of the division has been mainly in connection with the participation of higher institutions in the war. It has consisted in the personal service of the specialist in higher education as executive secretary of the committee on education of the advisory commission of the Council of National Defense, and as a member of the advisory board of the committee on education and special training of the War Department; in the preparation of circulars and multigraphed letters bearing on the effects of the war on colleges and universities; in the conduct of a voluminous correspondence; in the preparation of statistics and documents for the use of the committees of the Council of National Defense and of the War Department; and in attendance at meetings and addresses by the specialist in higher education on the educational work of the War Department, of the Council of National Defense, and on the activities of the Bureau of Education.

Seven circulars on the "Work of American Colleges and Universities During the War;" two Higher Education Letters, on "The Four-Quarter System" and on the "Canadian Soldiers' College;" Teachers' Leaflet No. 2, on "Education in Patriotism," and two secondary school circulars have been issued by the division. As executive secretary of the subcommittee of the Council of National Defense on the Relation of Engineering Schools to the National Government, the specialist in higher education prepared a report on the work of the committee. At the request of the Secretary of the Interior the division prepared and sent out an elaborate questionnaire to all engineering schools, asking for detailed information concerning their facilities for offering technical instruction. The returns were tabulated and have since been used by the committee on education and special training in the selection of institutions for the technical training of drafted men.

The specialist in higher education also served on a committee of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education for the furloughing of engineering students, and with councils of the National Engineering Societies in deciding recommendations to be made to the War Department regarding the treatment of engineering students.

Two bulletins have been completed and put through the press: "Statistics of State Universities and State Colleges," and "Accredited Higher Institutions." The first report of the committee on higher educational statistics, on standards and resources of colleges of liberal arts, was prepared by the specialist in higher education, as secretary of the committee, and has been transmitted for publication. Further work on the study of correspondence schools, which was begun the previous year, was carried on and Part I of the study completed.

The reports of the land-grant colleges have been audited and tabulated and are ready for the press.

The specialist in higher education has visited and inspected the facilities for technical training of 10 institutions in connection with his work on the committee on education and special training.

At the request of the Adjutant General of the Army the division passed upon the eligibility for accrediting by the United States Military Academy of 536 institutions.

RURAL EDUCATION.

The Division of Rural Education has devoted renewed efforts to amplifying the work begun the preceding year through inaugurating a ten-year general campaign for the advancement of rural schools. This object has inspired the work of the various specialists of the division in conducting educational propaganda, has guided the trend of investigations made in the division and modified the conduct of the general office routine. Several definite projects have been initiated or completed, among which, of greatest importance, are surveys of rural conditions in the States of South Dakota and Tennessee.

Surveys of Walker and Falls Counties, Texas, have been completed. In these surveys six of the specialists of this division were engaged, all of whom spent from three to six months in the field work and in compiling data and writing the reports.

Investigations are under way embracing a nation-wide study of village and small-town schools, their organization and management; a study of rural high schools in the United States, their enrollment, courses of study and teaching facilities with special reference to the junior high-school organization and its adaptation to the needs of rural communities; a special study of consolidated schools and rural high schools in the 48 States, including intensive study of 15 typical counties; an investigation of the qualifications demanded for and the methods of certification of teachers in the several States, and a study of rural teaching in Nebraska.

Work has been continued on the rural-school course of study by the specialists of the division, working in cooperation with a corps of educators representing the different sections of the country. This work is now taking a definite form in preparing subject material for the reorganization of the course of study. The background of the course resting on health and home sanitation is completed.

The campaign for the improvement of rural-school conditions was continued during the year. Besides addresses delivered before State and sectional teachers' associations and conferences throughout the country, important sectional conferences were held by specialists of the rural division at St. Paul, Minn., August 27 to September 3,

1917; at Hot Springs, Ark., November 12 to 14, 1917; Denver, Colo., November 22 to 24, 1917; at Butte, Mont., November 26 to 28, 1917; and at Chico, Cal., December 3 to 5, 1917. These were followed by a national conference on rural education and country life held at Washington, D. C., February 19 to 24, 1918.

Assistance has been rendered State school officials in formulating school legislation in several States, particularly New Mexico, Arkansas, and West Virginia. Much of the field work has been carried on without expense to the bureau.

The 1916–1918 series of the National Rural Teachers' Reading Circle was completed in September of the present year. Forty-six members from 34 different States have completed the work of the course and have received the Reading Circle Certificate issued by the Commissioner of Education, and 119 other members are due to receive this certificate before the close of the calendar year. The value of the reading circle work has been attested to by many State and county school officials throughout the country.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

Three studies have been carried to completion by this division:

1. Study of organization and administrative relationship of the colleges of agriculture.

This study was conducted mainly by the questionnaire method, but much information was obtained through the several inspectors of the States' Relations Service. From the information obtained a statement of the findings and 14 recommendations were presented to the committee on college organization and policy of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations. The recommendations were approved and incorporated into the committee's report, which was adopted by the association. These recommendations in elaborated form have been published as Higher Education Circular No. 8, 1918.

2. Investigation of the work of the land-grant colleges in the training of teachers for vocation subjects.

This inquiry consisted in sending a questionnaire to each college and a careful examination of the college catalogues, from which a statement concerning each institution was prepared. These statements formed the basis of several tabulations and summaries. The report on this investigation has been presented and published as Bulletin, 1917, No. 38.

3. Study of the organization for instruction and the requirements for admission and graduation of the several agricultural colleges.

Progress has been made in the preparation of a reading course in agriculture and country life.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS.

Industrial education.—During the year the bureau continued its work of aiding States and communities to introduce and develop programs for education in trades and industries. These activities included the following: Outlining plans for the training of special teachers of manual training and industrial subjects, holding conferences of specialists to consider methods and practice, carrying on educational surveys and studying local industrial conditions and needs as the basis for recommendations as to vocational education programs, compiling a directory of vocational education, and publishing information concerning notable developments in the field.

The bureau has been able to render definite service in the war emergency in a number of ways. One specialist was detailed for a short period to assist the committee on education and special training of the War Department in perfecting its organization for dealing with the industrial training of soldiers, and in preparing outlines of courses of instruction for the guidance of educational institutions engaged in this work. He also assisted in holding a series of important conferences on Government policies involving the schools in war time, and the needed reorganization of instruction in science and manual training in secondary schools to meet war emergency conditions. The bureau also prepared an inventory of facilities for technical and industrial training in the schools of the country for the use of Government agencies.

Upon request of the trustees a careful study of the facilities and field of work of the Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill., was made by representatives of the bureau, and plans were formulated by which that institution may render an increasing service to its community and State. The bureau has taken the initiative in organizing a committee representing the Department of the Interior, the American Federation of Labor, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Corporation Schools, for the purpose of making a cooperative study of the proper relation between commerce, industry, and the public schools.

The bureau has done its work to a certain extent through conferences and the distribution of reports of conclusions reached, and by means of mimeographed circulars dealing with various phases of vocational education. These publications deal with such important topics as: "Report of conference on emergency plans for vocational education;" "Continuation school organization in Reading, Pa.;" "Continuation school classes in Chicago;" "The cooperative school plan adapted to shipbuilding;" "Federal aid under the Smith-Hughes Act for the preparation of teachers of trade and industrial subjects;" "Examination and certification of industrial teachers;" "Science

and industrial arts in secondary schools in the war emergency." A representative of the bureau also cooperated with the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, of the National Education Association, in the drafting of the report of the subcommittee on industrial arts.

In January, 1918, the bureau issued a "War Service Call to Manual Training Classes," outlining a plan for the construction of game tables for the Army Young Men's Christian Association. Up to June 30, 1918, 2,523 of these tables were constructed and donated by public school pupils in 291 cities, scattered throughout all the States except 3; and the tables were distributed among 39 camps, cantonments, and naval training stations, located in 23 States.

The following bulletins published by the bureau during the fiscal year deal with phases of the problem of vocational education: Bulletin, 1917, No. 36, "Demand for vocational education in the countries at war;" Bulletin, 1917, No. 38, "Vocational teachers for secondary schools;" Bulletin, 1917, No. 46, "The public school system of San Francisco, Cal.," chapters on "Manual training," and "Vocational education."

Home economics.—During the past year the bureau has kept in touch with the home economics teachers in the elementary and secondary schools through correspondence, conferences, and personal visits. The number of high schools offering courses has shown the normal rate of increase, and there has been an extension of the teaching of home making through the lower grades. The instruction given in cooking, sewing, and household management has shown a tendency to grow into a unified course in home making. Better elementary teaching has been preparing the way for advanced high school work. Colleges and universities have been able to advance their entrance requirements and to build their courses on broader and more scientific lines. Because of the new standards established for high school work, teachers with a college preparation are demanded, so normal schools are giving their attention almost wholly to the preparation of teachers for the elementary and rural schools. The instruction in food conservation that has been given to the entire student body in some of the normal schools has been so successful that several schools report that a general course in food study is to be permanently required of all students in the normal school, men and women alike. Thus a greater number of students is given instruction relative to the place of home economics in general education and a wider interest is created in the home economics teaching in the public schools of the country.

The increased number of State and county supervisors that have been appointed is resulting in better organized work in all the schools. The majority of these appointments have come as a result of the organization of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

In some cases the instruction is for the Smith-Hughes schools only, but in other States all home economics departments in public schools will receive this assistance. Adjustments to meet the requirements of the Federal board have been made during the year.

The educational surveys made during the year in South Dakota, Tennessee, and Columbia, S. C., have made possible an intimate study of problems in the common schools. Food and clothing conditions have necessarily effected marked changes in subject matter treated in the courses. Members of the bureau have been asked to cooperate with the Food Administration in the preparation of courses of study that have been sent to the schools. These have served to base the school work on live problems and have helped the teachers to meet the needs of the hour.

In lectures given throughout the country by members of the bureau staff the new responsibilities of home economics teachers have been emphasized. The necessity of adjusting courses in food, clothing, and household economy to meet war conditions has been presented. In conferences and through correspondence, details for new courses have been worked out.

Correlation has made possible the introduction of food study into other classes and even where a school has had no special home economics teacher some effective work has been done. New life has been given to long established courses, the work has been intensified, and the amount has been increased, and more than ever before the home economics departments have become a vital influence in the life of the communities. Instruction has not been limited to the classroom but has been carried into the homes. Special classes outside of school hours have been organized to take up the questions of food study and conservation. Both teachers and students have given lectures and demonstrations, planned exhibits, and written articles for publication.

Conferences of home economics teachers called in New York City and Chicago by the Commissioner of Education have offered opportunity for concerted action in the teaching of food and clothing conservation. The increased extension work carried on by the Department of Agriculture has also served to stimulate home economics courses. The State colleges have been especially active in this service.

The series of mimeographed home economics letters that are published by the bureau from time to time has been supplemented by printed home economics circulars designed to be permanent in form. The character of these circulars is suggested by their titles given below:

Home Economics Circular No. 1. Teaching home economics under present economic conditions.

Home Economics Circular No. 2. Current problems in home economics.

Home Economics Circular No. 3. Home economics in small high schools.
Home Economics Circular No. 4. Principles and policies in home economics education.
Home Economics Circular No. 5. Government publications of interest to home economics teachers and students.
Home Economics Circular No. 6. A course in food economies for the housekeeper.

In addition to these circulars a bulletin has been published for the use of home economics teachers who are cooperating with the home and school garden work. (Bull., 1917, No. 47. The Preparation and Preservation of Vegetables.) A chapter entitled "Home Economics Education" was included in Bulletin No. 46, the Public School System of San Francisco, Cal.

UNITED STATES SCHOOL GARDEN ARMY.

In 1914 this bureau began the promotion of home gardening under school direction in the cities and towns of the United States with a view to furnishing profitable and educative employment to school children during out of school hours and during the vacation periods. Owing to the small amounts of funds available for this work, it was necessary to limit it to a comparatively small section of the country. For the past three years two persons have been employed in this work by the bureau, and while approximately 100 cities in all parts of the country were constantly receiving help from them, most of their time has been given to intensive work in the cities of a few of the Southern States, namely, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee. In some of the cities of these States the work has been placed on a firm basis, and the results achieved are most encouraging. Large quantities of food products were raised by the school children in their home gardens, back and side yards, and vacant lots.

According to reports received at the bureau 488 cities throughout the United States had school-directed home gardens in 1917, with a total enrollment of 355,715 children, and the total cash value of vegetables raised by the children in 215 of the cities was $1,810,729.33. The total cost of home gardening, including salaries, in those 215 cities was $143,842.88, leaving a net profit of $1,666,886.45.

The war has brought home to our people the urgent necessity for increased food production and for the conservation of man power and transportation facilities. The success of home gardening under school direction already achieved was convincing proof that a general adoption of the plan in all cities and towns of the country would materially assist the food problem. With this end in view the President of the United States in February, 1918, allotted to the Department of the Interior for use by this bureau the sum of $50,000 from the appropriation for the National Security and Defense, to be used in

the promotion of home gardening under school direction during the following six months.

On February 25, 1918, the President wrote the following letter to Secretary Lane:

25 FEBRUARY, 1918.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY: I sincerely hope that you may be successful through the Bureau of Education in arousing the interest of teachers and children in the schools of the United States in the cultivation of home gardens. Every boy and girl who really sees what the home garden may mean will, I am sure, enter into the purpose with high spirits, because I am sure they would all like to feel that they are in fact fighting in France by joining the home garden army. They know that America has undertaken to send meat and flour and wheat and other foods for the support of the soldiers who are doing the fighting, for the men and women who are making the munitions, and for the boys and girls of western Europe, and that we must also feed ourselves while we are carrying on this war. The movement to establish gardens, therefore, and to have the children work in them is just as real and patriotic an effort as the building of ships or the firing of cannon. I hope that this spring every school will have a regiment in the Volunteer War Garden Army.

Cordially and sincerely, yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

HON. FRANKLIN K. LANE,
Secretary of the Interior.

Two main purposes prompted the planning of the United States School Garden Army: (*a*) Increased food production and (*b*) training of school children in thrift, industry, service, patriotism, and responsibility.

The necessity for man power was felt. This was especially true in agricultural pursuits. Not alone were the drafted young men going from the farm, but great numbers of farm employees were being attracted to the cities by higher wages offered in other industries. If the millions of city boys and girls could be induced to give their leisure time to cultivating the thousands of acres of untilled land in front and back yards and vacant lots of our cities, towns, and villages, it would result in a substantial increase in food production and an improvement in the quality of our coming citizenship.

The Bureau of Education undertook to accomplish this through the organization of the United States School Garden Army. The field has not been seriously entered by any other organization. It is an educational problem and can be solved with economy and efficiency only by the schools.

The plan of organization involved (*a*) a general director, who is responsible for organization, propaganda, and administration; (*b*) regional directors who are charged with the responsibility of writing instructions upon gardening that will enable supervisors and teachers to take a garden company successfully through a season, even though not expert gardeners. These instructions have been put out in leaflet form and sent from the central office to all who

applied for them. In a general way each regional director is considered responsible for the work in his territory.

The army plan of organization was adopted and has proved to be very popular and efficient. Simplicity of organization was desired, however, and but few of the divisions of the army were paralleled in the garden army plan.

A company consists of 150 garden soldiers as a maximum number. This number should be, and usually is, much smaller. Each company is entitled to a captain and first and second lieutenant. A garden teacher is required for the company. The officers have been used to great advantage by many teachers in helping them on their reports, inspecting gardens, encouraging members of their company to do their full duty as true soldiers, and in arranging for exhibits, pageants, plays, etc.

To become an enlisted soldier in this army a pupil needs only to sign the enlistment sheet, which pledges him to do something that will help increase food production. No definite amount is specified, but each is expected to do his part in helping fight the battles of democracy and freedom.

A bronze bar with the letters, "U. S. S. G.," upon it is given to each enlisted soldier. This is his badge of recognition by the Government at Washington. The badge of the captain has three small stars in the border, that of first lieutenant, two, and of the second lieutenant, one. These little bars have greatly stimulated the interest children have taken in the work.

As this is fundamentally a school problem, the work should be provided for by superintendents and boards of education and financed by them from school funds. Not only is this as legitimate and as necessary for a well-organized and administered school system as the teaching of any other branch, but to care for it at this time has become a patriotic duty. To lead boards of education to see it thus was the most important problem to be met. Success attained was very gratifying and promises for next year encouraging. Some cities have done remarkable garden work this season, and most cities are coming to see that the schools must assume full control of and responsibility for it to insure its full success and permanency.

Teachers prepared to teach gardening were difficult to find. Normal schools and colleges, with few exceptions, had not offered the work to those preparing to teach. It was necessary, therefore, to encourage the forming of special classes in gardening and to outline courses for them to pursue. Interest, however, was keen, and the promise for next year is much better.

Through the generosity of Mr. Julius Rosenwald, of Chicago, who offered to provide one-half the salaries paid negro garden teachers in Southern States a considerable number of southern

cities were enabled to provide good supervision for the work of the colored children.

Rather than enrich and adjust the work of our schools, we close them during the summer months. This makes supervision of garden work in summer difficult, and without supervision it will fail. The spirit of work to win the war has been strong, however, and probably by the time we have finished the war we shall have learned that school work, as other work, is as profitable in summer as in winter.

One million five hundred thousand boys and girls have responded to the call of the President and enlisted in the United States School Garden Army.

Twenty thousand acres of unproductive home and vacant lots have been converted into productive land. This will release an equal acreage now used in truck gardening for the production of other foodstuffs more important for war purposes. It will also relieve transportation congestion through home consumption of home produced foodstuffs.

Fifty thousand teachers have received valuable instruction in gardening through the garden leaflets written by experts in this office and distributed from here. One million five hundred thousand leaflets have been sent out.

Boards of education and other civic organizations have been influenced to give financial and moral support to the school and home garden movement and to pay extra salaries for supervision and teaching.

Hundreds of thousands of parents have become interested in the garden movement and are working with their children in home gardens. In Salt Lake City alone 5,200 mothers, representing 62 parental associations, are actively supporting food production through the schools.

Thousands of civic, commercial, and patriotic organizations have become interested in the movement and are giving it hearty support.

One and one-half million children have been given something to do this summer, something that will help carry the burden of their country in this struggle for freedom, something that will help them to build character and something that will appeal to and develop their patriotism.

Home and vacant lot gardening in cities, towns, and villages has been dignified and made popular to a degree that practically insures it a prominent place in the school system of our country. It would be difficult to estimate the educational and material value of such results. No other movement in history promises so much in aiding the "Back to the soil" movement as this.

The work accomplished during the first few months has been so successful that the President has allotted the sum of $200,000 for

the continuation of this work through the fiscal year ending June 30, 1919. Plans have been made whereby a much larger force of trained supervisors will be employed in the several regions into which the United States has been divided.

AMERICANIZATION.

The principal work of the division of immigrant education has been to place Americanization before the country as a measure related to the war. The first step was to secure through the National Committee of One Hundred, an advisory council on Americanization to the Bureau of Education appointed by the Commissioner of Education on September 1, 1916, a resolution from the Council of National Defense indorsing the Federal program of Americanization as being worked out by the bureau. This was done December 13, 1917. On February 12, 1918, the Council of National Defense joined with the bureau in putting forth a national plan of Americanization.

This plan requested all State councils of defense to engage in Americanization work and to appoint Americanization committees and State directors of Americanization. Under this plan about 30 States were organized during the remainder of the fiscal year.

Under the joint plan the work of State and local agencies is being correlated and coordinated under the Americanization committees of State and local councils of defense. The object is to avoid duplication of work and to effect the greatest unity of action possible. Every State council of defense and a large number of local and community councils have been supplied with the national plan and with all the special schedules of operation and circulars of information published by the bureau.

To assist in placing Americanization before the country as a war measure, the Secretary of the Interior called a conference on April 3 of all the governors, chairmen of State defense councils, and presidents of industrial corporations and chambers of commerce. About 300 persons attended this conference. Resolutions were adopted calling upon Congress to appropriate adequate funds to the respective Federal departments doing Americanization work, indorsing the principle of Federal aid in Americanization to States and communities, urging industrial and commercial organizations to cooperate with Federal and State authorities in a Nation-wide plan, and recommending that all elementary instruction in all schools be conducted in the English language.

The clearing-house service has been considerably extended during the year. The variety of publications distributed covers a greater range. Over 100,000 circulars, news letters, schedules of operation, and schedules of standards and methods were sent out. Over 100,000

individual enrollment blanks were disseminated for the signature of individuals who desire to enroll in the Americanization campaign. About 25,000 bulletins, pamphlets, and other printed material were distributed, together with a large quantity of "America First" and flag posters.

The National Committee of One Hundred has expanded its representation to include a greater number of industrial men and foreign leaders. Its principal activity during the past year has been the formulation of two bills, one working out the principle of Federal aid to the States for Americanization work and the other calling for funds to carry out the war Americanization plan. The legislative committee also was instrumental in drafting and securing the passage of three bills in New York State providing for compulsory attendance of non-English-speaking persons between 16 and 21 years of age and providing for compulsory maintenance of educational facilities for their instruction and also for the training of teachers. A model bill for compulsory attendance has been drafted and furnished to several State school authorities and legislatures. The committee now has headquarters in New York City.

Special effort has been placed on the coordination and correlation of the varied activities of unofficial agencies, such as patriotic organizations, women's clubs, civic associations, fraternal orders, councils of defense and Americanization committees. Special cooperative plans have been worked out with the American Bankers' Association, Scottish Rites, Pennsylvania State Department of Labor and Industry, National Committee of Patriotic Societies, Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, and a great many other local chambers, with a large number of industrial corporations, with the New York State Department of Education and local superintendents of schools, and with about 25 patriotic societies and civic associations. The activities of many of these have been correlated with the national plan of Americanization as put out through the Council of National Defense.

Other activities include the preparation of over 15 new circulars of information and schedules of operation for official and unofficial agencies, and research into the educational activities of industrial corporations and chambers of commerce.

On May 2, 1918, the Secretary of the Interior accepted a proposition from the National Americanization Committee of New York for the extension of the bureau's work in Americanization with a special view to promoting the work of education among the foreign-born population of the United States in order to give them a knowledge of the industrial requirements in this country, of the history and resources of the country, of our manners and customs, and of our social, civic, economic, and political ideals, and through cooperation with loyal leaders of racial groups to win the full loyalty of these

people for the United States and their hearty cooperation in the war for freedom and democracy. Under the plan of cooperation adopted the National Americanization Committee bears the additional expense for salaries and travel of specialists, assistants, clerks, and other employees, as well as the necessary expenses for office equipment. All employees are selected by the Commissioner of Education and appointed by the Secretary of the Interior. Some of the immediate objects of this new work are the following:

1. To give the immigrant better opportunities and facilities to learn of America and to understand his duties to America.

2. To unite in service for America the different factions among the several racial groups and to minimize in each race the antagonism due to old-country conditions.

3. To cement the friendships and discourage the enmities existing among races and to bring them together for America.

4. To bring native and foreign-born Americans together in more intimate and friendly relations.

5. To give native-born Americans a better understanding of foreign-born Americans.

6. To develop among employers a more kindly and patriotic feeling toward foreign-born workmen.

7. To encourage the foreign-born Americans to assist in the work of Americanization and to develop a more patriotic feeling toward the work in which they are engaged.

8. To develop the school as the center for Americanization work for all alike.

The division of immigrant education has been enlarged by the addition of a war work extension service section with offices both in Washington and New York City. A semimonthly publication is planned under the title of "Americanization Bulletin."

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION.

The conduct of the war has led to the discovery, on the part of many governmental agencies and the Nation as a whole, that the spiritual and material resources of the people can be mobilized effectively only when the people act in community units. This discovery has given a marked impetus to the community organization movement and presented an open door of opportunity to this division of the bureau's work, which it has entered, so far as its limited working force permitted.

The devision is operated by two men, one of whom is engaged chiefly in research work, and the other chiefly in field work.

At the request of the Council of National Defense, the community organization division cooperated in a national campaign to stimulate the organization of local communities as a means of national defense.

This involved work covering a period of six months. A 52-page bulletin (No. 11, 1918: "A community center, what it is and how to organize it") was prepared and distributed by the bureau to State and county superintendents, and distributed by the Council of Defense to State and county councils.

A national conference on community organization was arranged and conducted by the bureau in cooperation with State councils of defense, State superintendents of public instruction, the National Education Association, and the National Community Center Association.

A permanent endowment fund of $25,000 was secured and a board of trustees incorporated to administer it. The proceeds are used to help the work of community organization in cooperation with the Bureau of Education. It has established two lectureships on community organization, one at Cornell University, the other at the University of North Carolina. The bureau's field agent has been requested to give the first series of these two courses of lectures.

During the year the field agent has delivered courses of from 3 to 12 lectures at Pennsylvania State College, Georgia Normal and Industrial College, and the Normal and Industrial Institute, Asheville, N. C. He has delivered 25 single lectures at city and State conventions, and 14 addresses in the City of Washington at the request of its board of education. He has assisted in the organization of community activities in Boston and New York.

Through the efforts of the specialist in research work, a post-office station was established in a schoolhouse in Washington, D. C., with the approval and cordial support of the school board and the Post Office Department. The community secretary was made postmaster. This is a pioneer piece of work, the possible value of which is very great not only in decreasing needless expenditure of money, but in increasing the community use of the schoolhouse.

With the assistance of this division, eight districts in Washington, D. C., have been permanently organized as community centers, with regularly employed community secretaries supported at public expense.

The community activities now conducted in many parts of the country are large in number and varied in character. Data concerning them ought to be gathered and distributed so that communities may help each other by pooling their experience. The bureau at present is not manned or equipped to render this needed service.

The entire country appears to be profoundly conscious of the importance of community organization, not only to meet the Nation's present needs, but also the equally important needs of the reconstruction days immediately ahead. The need is great. The people are willing to meet it. They are looking to the Bureau of Educa-

tion for suggestion and guidance. The country is now requesting of this division a service many times larger than it is equipped to render. The Nation's awakened need and desire for help in community organization is a ground of hope for our common welfare and for the success of our experiment in democracy.

SCHOOL HYGIENE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Since February of the present year the bureau has had the full time service of one specialist in educational hygiene. Prior to that time in the current year, and for a series of years in the past, it had had part time service of two men. Of these, one has devoted his time exclusively to assisting school authorities in the preparation of plans for school buildings; the other, to reviewing progress in educational hygiene and answering the more important of the numerous inquiries that came to the bureau upon the varied phases of this diversified subject. The volume and variety of such inquiries and the volume and variety of activities in the field of educational hygiene have increased enormously since the entrance of the country into the war. How great and diversified is the task of keeping up with the inquiries alone is shown by the following partial list of topics upon which information and advice was given by this division in one month of the present year: Physical education in elementary, secondary, and normal schools, and in the colleges; plans for health supervision of schools in rural communities, small towns, and cities; physical examination of children for working papers; administration of medical inspection; school clinics; malnutrition of school children; State laws for physical education; State laws for medical inspection; plans for school buildings; ventilation of school buildings; cleaning of school buildings; training of janitors in school sanitation; educational procedure for improvement of speech defects; methods for backward and defective children.

All possible effort has been made to cooperate effectively with governmental agencies and with voluntary organizations in the promotion of investigations, in the organization of health instruction and physical education in the schools, and in the work of arousing and directing public interest in physical upbuilding as a fundamental educational object.

The specialist in school hygiene and sanitation cooperated with the committee on venereal diseases of the medical section of the Council of National Defense in the preparation of a pamphlet entitled "Keeping Fit," for high-school boys, which was issued under the joint auspices of the Council of National Defense and this bureau. The pamphlet includes information in regard to the principal causes for rejection of drafted men and a clear statement of sex hygiene

and sex morality. He has prepared a plan for a thoroughgoing program of physical education in the high school and an analytical summary of State laws for physical education. He also prepared a schematic plan for physical education in colleges as an integral part of the military training program for the use of the advisory board of the Committee on Education and Special Training of the War Department. This covered plan of examination, classification for training and treatment, time factor, classification and graduation of physical training exercises. With the cooperation of a committee of the American Public Health Association, an investigation of "School closing as a means of combating epidemics" has been begun.

The services of the special agent in school-house construction and sanitation are frequently sought by school boards to assist them in planning school buildings. For this purpose he visited during the year the cities of Memphis, Tenn., Montgomery, Ala., Richmond, Ky., and Little Rock, Ark. In other cases advice was given through correspondence.

A conference on physical education was held at Atlantic City, N. J., under the auspices of the bureau on February 26, 1918, which resulted in the adoption of a program calling for Federal legislation for the promotion of physical education.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

With the cooperation of the Association of Urban Universities, the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, and local committees in the selected cities, arrangements have been made for an investigation as to the need for trained service in the conduct of foreign trade and to determine how the schools and colleges can best meet that need. This investigation will cover the cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Rochester, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Akron, Cincinnati, New Orleans, St. Louis, Chicago, Seattle, Portland, and San Francisco. Plans are now being made to carry on a similar investigation of all cities in the United States having more than 25,000 inhabitants.

There were prepared and distributed courses of study in commercial education for use in elementary schools, high schools, colleges, universities, and private business schools.

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

The principal work accomplished in the field of general school administration, aside from surveys, consisted of a bulletin on summer sessions in city schools, a digest of State laws relating to libraries, and a digest of educational legislation enacted in 1916 and 1917. The history of education in Arizona was completed and issued as Bulletin,

1918, No. 17. Projects under way include a bulletin on reading, the preparation of a course of study for the first grade, an investigation of the causes which lead to failures and nonpromotion in the first grade, and an investigation of the extent of the use of activities in the primary school.

SURVEYS.

Thirteen different surveys of educational systems and institutions were carried on by members of the bureau during the year. Of this number eight were begun during preceding years.

The final report of the survey of the public schools of Webster Groves, Mo., was completed during the year and submitted to the Commissioner of Education. This survey was made by the chief of the division of school administration, assisted by Dr. W. W. Charters, of the University of Wisconsin, and Mr. Henry J. Gerling, of St. Louis, Mo.

The final report of the survey of the public school system of San Francisco, Cal., was issued as Bulletin, 1917, No. 46.

Work on the educational survey of the State of Delaware, with special reference to industrial education in the city of Wilmington, was continued by the specialist in industrial education.

The survey of the rural schools of Walker and Falls Counties, Tex., was completed and a final report thereon was made.

The report of the survey of the public school system of Elyria, Ohio, was completed during the year and will be issued as Bulletin, 1918, No. 15.

Work was continued on the educational survey of the State of Tennessee, and the field work has been completed. This survey was made by the specialist in rural school administration, two specialists in rural education, and one of the specialists in home economics. The report has been completed, but not yet published.

The report of the survey of the Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill., requested by the administration of that institution, was completed by the specialist in higher education and the specialist in industrial education.

The final report of the survey of the educational system of the State of Arizona, excepting the report on the State university, was completed and issued as Bulletin, 1917, No. 44. A preliminary report on the survey of the State university has been submitted to the officers of that institution.

Because of lack of clerical help and labor-saving devices in the statistical division, the bureau has been unable to complete the report of the educational survey of the mountain counties of the Southern States, the collecting of material for which was completed more than a year ago. It is hoped that this report may be ready within the next few months.

In accordance with the provisions of an act of the Legislature of South Dakota, this bureau has made a survey of the entire educational system of that State, including all schools and educational institutions supported by public funds. The survey was made under the direction of the specialist in rural school practice, assisted by the specialist in higher education, the specialist in agricultural education, specialist in home economics, assistant in rural education, and by Dr. William F. Russell, dean of the school of education of the University of Iowa, Dr. Henry B. Wilson, superintendent of schools of Topeka, Kans., and Dr. Alexander J. Inglis, professor of secondary education in Harvard University. The preliminary report of the survey was transmitted to the survey commission of the State on June 14, 1918, and the recommendations made therein were accepted by the survey commission. The final report is now in press.

At the request of the board of education of the city of Columbia, S. C., this bureau undertook a survey of the school system of that city. The survey was made under the immediate direction of the specialist in city school systems, assisted by the chief clerk of the bureau, one of the specialists in home economics, specialist in school and home gardening, and Dr. Carleton B. Gibson, superintendent of city schools, Savannah, Ga. The preliminary report of the survey has been submitted to the board of education of Columbia, and the final report is now in press.

With the cooperation of the Department of Labor this bureau has made a study of industrial conditions in the city of Richmond, Va., with a view to the establishment of cooperative half-time classes for young people of high-school age. The work on the part of the bureau was done by the specialist in industrial education and the specialist in city school systems.

The specialist in rural school practice was granted leave of absence without pay for the purpose of making for the provincial government of the Province of Saskatchewan, Canada, a survey of education in that Province. The report has been completed and issued as a public document by the government of the Province.

At the request of the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools, a survey was made of the member schools of that association located in the cities of Pittsburgh, Pa., Jamestown, N. Y., Rochester, N. Y., Trenton, N. J., Philadelphia, Pa., and Wilmington, Del. The survey was made by the specialist in commercial education of this bureau.

NEGRO EDUCATION.

Assistance has been given to the War Department in the selection of the training schools for the drafted negro men. Both the War Department and the Department of Labor have requested and re-

ceived special information as to persons fitted for responsible positions. Other war agencies that have been aided are the American Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, the War Camp Community Service, the General War Time Commission of the Churches, the Committee on Public Information, the War Work Council of the National Board of Young Women's Christian Association, and the general committee on Army and Navy chaplains of the Federal Council of Churches. Probably the most valuable service this division has rendered in connection with the war has been the investigation of conditions among the negro troops in and about the various cantonments. There is now available definite information as to the needs of the negro soldiers both in the camps and in the communities near the camps. The facts thus assembled are now used by practically every agency working for the soldiers.

Other work during the year for negro education may be summarized as follows: Development of cooperation between public and private agencies; cooperation of State, county, and city officials, north and south, in all movements to promote the education of the negro; furnishing information on the educational phases of the race problem; influencing northern donors to give money only to worthy schools; exposing fraudulent negro schools; bringing to the attention of the public the inadequate provision made for negro education; assisting the negro schools in the matter of curriculum, accounts, and buildings. One member of the division who is trained in accounting and business management gives all his time to the improvement of accounts and records in the schools. The systematic help planned for the schools will not only effect important economies, but also greatly increase and improve the educational efforts of these schools.

In August, 1917, an important conference on negro education was held in the auditorium of the Interior Department building in Washington. In accordance with resolutions adopted by the conference the Commissioner of Education appointed a committee on negro education, consisting of representatives of church boards of various denominations that maintain schools for negroes, the public school systems of the Southern States, the independent schools not connected with any church board and unaided by the State, the State agricultural and mechanical colleges for negroes, and the educational funds for negro education. One meeting of the committee and three meetings of subcommittees have been held. These subcommittees have prepared reports on educational standards, financial aid, and cooperation of private agencies. Other subcommittees are considering questions of increased support for the public schools and the cooperation of public and private agencies.

ALASKA.

During the year the field force of the Bureau of Education in Alaska consisted of 5 superintendents, 1 assistant superintendent, 116 teachers, 9 physicians, and 11 nurses; 69 schools were maintained, with an enrollment of 3,700.

School buildings were erected at White Mountain, whither the Eskimos had migrated from Council; at Elim, within a tract on Norton Sound which had been reserved by Executive Order for the use of the Eskimos formerly inhabiting the village of Golovin; at Fort Yukon, to replace the school building which the erosion of the river bank had rendered unsafe; and at Tyonek, where the small log building hitherto used for school purposes had proved inadequate. At Metlakatla a residence was erected for occupancy by the principal teacher.

The wisdom of the policy of setting aside selected tracts within which the natives can readily obtain fish and game and advantageously conduct their own enterprises has again been demonstrated by the success of the colony at Noorvik, in Arctic Alaska. With their advancement in civilization, the Eskimos living at Deering, on the bleak seacoast, craved a new home. Lack of timber compelled them to live in the semiunderground hovels of their ancestors, while the killing off of the game animals made it increasingly difficult for them to obtain food. An uninhabited tract on the bank of the Kobuk River, 15 miles square, abounding in game, fish, and timber, was reserved by Executive Order for these Eskimos, and thither they migrated with their household goods and herds of reindeer. On this tract in the Arctic wilderness the colonists, under the leadership of teachers, have built a village with well-laid-out streets, neat single-family houses, gardens, a mercantile company, a saw mill, an electric-light plant, and a wireless telegraph station which keeps them in touch with the outside world.

Affairs at Metlakatla, on Annette Island, have made satisfactory progress. The legality of the Annette Island fishery reserve having been reaffirmed by the circuit court of appeals, definite plans for the development of the colony have been carried into effect. By a lease dated April 30, 1917, the Secretary of the Interior, on behalf of the Metlakatlans, granted to the Annette Island Packing Co., of Seattle, fish-trapping privileges within the reserved waters adjacent to Annette Island and permission to erect and operate a cannery on Annette Island. For these privileges the lessee guaranteed the payment of not less than $4,000 during the season of 1917 and of not less than $6,000 per annum for five years beginning with 1918. It is expected that the revenues accruing from this lease will enable the Secretary

of the Interior to take over, for the Metlakatlans, the property of the lessee within the reserve and to arrange for the operation of the cannery by the natives themselves.

During the summer of 1917 the Annette Island Packing Co. expended $7,657.14 in the construction of cannery buildings; the royalties amounted to $4,801.95, leaving a balance of $2,855.19 to the credit of the company at the close of the season.

In May, 1916, representatives of the Bureau of Education succeeded in organizing among the natives the Metlakatla Commercial Co., with a capital of $2,255 and 30 shareholders, to conduct the mercantile business of the settlement. The auditing of the affairs of the company in January, 1918, showed a capital of $14,985 at that date and a net profit of $4,033.30 for the year. The number of stockholders had increased to 110. In addition, the company had rehabilitated and operated the sawmill and had furnished lumber for the cannery buildings and for other buildings in the village.

The income and wages resulting from the cannery lease, guaranteed through five successive years, and the prosperity of its commercial company assure the economic restoration of the Metlakatla colony.

Economic conditions among the natives of Alaska have been greatly affected by the war. While the prices received by the natives for their furs have fallen below normal, the cost of food, clothing, and manufactured articles imported from the States has increased as much as 300 per cent. The Bureau of Education has, therefore, through the agency of its teachers, urged the natives to live, as much as possible, independently of imported articles and to depend upon native products, not only for their own benefit, but also for the assistance they can thereby render to the country in conserving its food supply. New impetus has been given to the endeavor of the Bureau of Education to train the natives in the raising of vegetables for their own use and for sale. Efforts in this direction have produced encouraging results, especially in the upper Yukon, Kuskokwim, and Kotzebue Sound regions.

In widely separated parts of Alaska the natives have shown their gratitude to the Government, which has done so much for them, by zealously cooperating in activities which will help to win the war; they have willingly complied with the requests of the Territorial food administrator, liberally purchased Liberty bonds and war savings stamps, organized branches of the Red Cross, formed knitting and sewing societies in many villages, and contributed toward the support of the "Alaska bed" in one of the American hospitals in France.

Congress appropriated $62,500 for the support of the medical work of the bureau among the natives of Alaska during the fiscal year

1917–18. Nine physicians and eleven nurses were employed; hospitals were in operation at Juneau, Nulato, and Kanakanak; as heretofore, medical supplies were sent to teachers remote from a hospital, physician, or nurse, for use in relieving minor ailments.

During the year the building at Kanakanak, erected as a school building in 1909, was enlarged and remodeled for hospital purposes; the hospital building at Akiak, begun in 1917, was completed.

At the Juneau hospital the policy was inaugurated of receiving native girls for theoretical and practical training as nurses. This action will result in the training of a considerable number of girls who will render effective service in improving the health and in raising the standard of living in the native villages to which they return.

As the natives of Alaska advance in wealth and independence, it is natural that they should wish to assume part of the expense of their medical service. The honor of taking the first step in this direction belongs to the natives of Hoonah, who during the latter part of the year paid the salary of a physician and started a fund for the erection of a hospital in their village.

Pending the time when the congressional appropriations will permit the bureau to assume the entire expense of the medical care of the natives in southeast Alaska, the Commissioner of Education entered into an agreement with the woman's board of home missions of the Presbyterian Church, by which the board assumed the entire responsibility for the medical work in the villages of Klawock and Hydaburg and agreed to rent to the bureau its hospital building at Haines for use as a tuberculosis sanitarium, the board also assisting in the maintenance of the sanitarium during the first year.

The reports from the reindeer stations for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1917, the latest complete information received, show a total of 98,582 reindeer distributed among 98 herds. Of the 98,582 reindeer, 67,448, or 69 per cent, were owned by 1,568 natives; 3,046, or 3 per cent, were owned by the United States; 4,645 or 5 per cent, were owned by missions; and 23,443, or 23 per cent, were owned by Lapps and other whites. The total income of the natives from the reindeer industry during the fiscal year was $97,515. The total number of reindeer, 98,582, is a net increase of 20 per cent during the year, notwithstanding the fact that 13,144 reindeer were killed for meat and skins or were lost.

Reindeer fairs or conventions were held during the winter at Igloo, on Seward Peninsula; at Unalakleet, in the Norton Sound region; at Noatak, in the Kotzebue Sound district, and at Noorvik, on the Kobuk River. These annual fairs have become a recognized feature of the reindeer industry; they bring together Eskimos from a large extent of country who spend a week together thinking about

and discussing not only subjects relating to the reindeer industry, but also matters of importance affecting the Eskimos as a race. The competitions and exhibits promote interest in the various phases of the work; comparison of methods results in increased efficiency; personal intercourse makes for good fellowship and develops leaders who are recognized as such by the Eskimos themselves. An important result of the fairs was the organizing in northwestern Alaska of the Eskimo Reindeer Men's Association, the object of which is to awaken the natives to their own responsibilities and to secure united sentiment and action in important matters affecting the Eskimo race.

KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION.

An appropriation recently granted by Congress for the investigation of kindergarten education enables the Bureau of Education to look forward to extending its usefulness in this part of its educational service.

During the past year a series of articles on training little children in the home has been widely distributed through the medium of over 2,000 newspapers and magazines whose aggregate circulation amounts to 33,000,000. Individual copies also of the articles have been sent on request to 15,000 mothers living in isolated districts, 1,000 presidents of women's clubs, and 1,500 home demonstration agents. The practical value of these articles is intensified by reason of their authorship; they were prepared by mothers who were formerly kindergarten teachers.

A timely circular sent to 10,000 kindergartners contained excellent suggestions concerning the social guardianship of young children during the war. That responsibilities in this matter have been shouldered is evidenced by the number of kindergarten teachers who have participated in activities connected with the weighing and measuring of babies; the maintaining of fresh-air funds, of nurses for congested city districts, and of ice and milk stations; supervising summer kindergartens, playgrounds, and war gardens; organizing neighborhood circles in cooperation with agencies for Americanization and holding doorstep meetings for mothers of foreign districts.

More and better kindergartens in the United States as one means of protecting the "second line of defense," the children, has been quite generally recognized. Campaigns for extension have been planned in Texas, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and other States where laws favorable to the establishment of public kindergartens are in operation. Several new kindergarten training schools have been organized in various parts of the country.

A significant event of the year has been the organization of a unit of American kindergartners to go to the devastated regions of France. Kindergartners are peculiarly fitted to assist in the task of

human reclamation, and the International Kindergarten Union has raised funds to support a group of teachers in France. Miss Fanniebelle Curtis, supervisor of kindergartens in New York City, is director of the work.

In response to a recognized need, a presentation of the minimum essentials of a kindergarten curriculum has been prepared for publication. A study of the status of kindergarten supervision (Bulletin, 1918, No. 38) has made apparent the fact that many kindergarten teachers are working entirely without the aid of a supervisor. To meet the needs of such teachers, as well as to show the continuity of education from kindergarten through the grades, the kindergarten curriculum has been presented in terms and terminology of present-day school practice. Other studies in progress relate to the laws and practices in the several States concerning the certification of kindergarten teachers.

The reading course for kindergarten teachers announced by the Bureau of Education is arranged under these headings: Educational classics, appreciation of child life, principles and methods of education, kindergarten education, sociological aspects of education, appreciation of nature and hygiene, religious and moral education. In all 31 books are recommended and the reading of 15 is required.

HOME EDUCATION.

Education in the home and the cooperation of the family group with other social organizations outside the home, especially the school, during the past year have been stimulated by the encouragement given by Federal, State, and local agencies.

Organization of parent-teacher associations, which has been urged by the Bureau of Education since 1913, has increased in every State. Through the cooperation of the National Council of Defense woman's committee the bureau has made a list of over 8,000 organizations. Two States, Michigan and Kentucky, have effected State organizations during the past year.

The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations has for five years cooperated with the Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior in promoting home education. Through this arrangement more than a half million homes have been reached with some kind of educational material to assist mothers in the care and training of their little children before they are of school age, to help them to further their own education, and to help the boys and girls who have left school but are still living at home to further their education.

The cooperation of 75,000 women in rural districts made it possible to reach mothers of children under 3 years of age in 2,100 counties with literature on the care and training of little children.

The demand for selected courses of reading necessitated the formation of the National Reading Circle, which has a membership of about 8,000 readers. Ten courses have been prepared, with the cooperation of specialists in the various subjects. Reading circles have been formed; among them the Glendale (Cal.) circle has continued for about three years and has a total attendance of 150 mothers. Two new courses have been issued during the year, "Thirty World Heroes" and "Thirty American Heroes."

Cooperation of State libraries has been given by 31 States. These States will see that readers who can not get the books otherwise are provided with them upon application. Several local libraries have presented plans for active cooperation in carrying on the reading circle.

The Bureau of Education has issued 55 press letters on the Training of Little Children, which are very useful to mothers in home training.

Other Federal departments which have contributed publications for home education are: Labor, Treasury, Agriculture, and Commerce.

State aid to home education has been furnished during the past year by California, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, South Dakota, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin.

CIVIC EDUCATION.

The work of the bureau in the department of civic education is not confined to any one division. One of its important aspects, for example, is in the care of the division of immigrant education which is concerned with the preparation of our immigrant population for American citizenship.

The division of community organization has another important phase of the work in charge. It "is endeavoring to stimulate an interest in civic organization for the adults of the community, with especial reference to community use of public schoolhouses." Its especial interest, in other words, is in the organization of communities both for public discussion and for community action, the latter often being more educative than the former from a civic standpoint.

There are other divisions of the bureau whose work has direct civic-educational value. Such, for example, is the division of home and school gardening, which this year has conducted a widespread war gardening campaign. Among the many values of this work not the least is the training it affords in habits of good citizenship.

During the past year the bureau has prepared, or has cooperated with other agencies in preparing, a number of pamphlets and leaflets

relating to, or growing out of, the war situation. One of the earliest of these was a leaflet on "Opportunities for history teachers; the lessons of the great war in the classroom," prepared by the National Board for Historical Service and published by the bureau. The most conspicuous publication of this sort is the series of "community leaflets" containing an extended series of "Lessons in community and national life." These leaflets were issued by the bureau in cooperation with the Food Administration and under the editorship of Profs. Charles H. Judd and Leon C. Marshall, of the University of Chicago. While these lessons take their point of departure from the war, they are by no means limited to war facts, but provide materials of permanent value for a broad range of civic instruction.

In addition to these phases of civic education which fall under the jurisdiction of various divisions of the bureau, special attention has also been given to the forms and methods of civic training in the public elementary and high schools. This phase of the work has been in charge of a special agent in civic education. The work of the special agent has been chiefly (1) to keep in as close touch as possible with the work the schools of the country are actually doing in training for citizenship; (2) to disseminate suggestions regarding plans and methods of civic training; (3) to consider especially the content and methods of civic training in their adaptation to particular group needs, as for rural schools, immigrant groups, youth who have left school but who are not yet 21 years of age, etc. In this connection the special agent cooperates with the various divisions of the bureau; and (4) to act as adviser to local and State school authorities who desire help in organizing civic education in their schools.

During the past year the special agent was lent to the State Board of Education of Massachusetts for a period of three months, to assist it in putting into effect the new law of that State requiring "training in the duties of citizenship" in all the schools of the State. During the three months he—

1. Prepared two bulletins which were issued by the State board and placed in the hands of every teacher in the State. One was on "Training in the Duties of Citizenship" and the other on "Instruction and Practice in the Duties of Citizenship."

2. Held conferences in every part of the State with elementary and high school teachers, principals and superintendents, and principals and teachers of the State normal schools.

3. Conducted two training courses for teachers and principals; one in Boston attended by nearly 200 teachers and principals from eastern Massachusetts, weekly for six weeks; the other for the same duration of time in Springfield, attended by about 75 teachers and principals from that part of the State.

4. Met regularly with committees appointed by the State school authorities to reorganize the courses of study with especial reference to emphasis upon civic training.

5. Visited city and rural schools in every part of the State to ascertain conditions and to suggest plans of reorganization.

One of the recommendations made to the State commissioner of education was for the establishment of at least two demonstration centers, or experiment centers, for—

> the installation, in such schools and grades as may be decided upon, of a carefully worked out plan of civic instruction and training; the continuous supervision of the installation and development of the plan during a considerable period of time by an experienced supervisor in this field of education; and the holding of frequent conferences with the principals and teachers in charge for the discussion of plans and methods, and of the results as they develop. * * *
>
> (1) One in a city of the type of Lawrence. A city of this type presents (*a*) the general urban situation, (*b*) a characteristic industrial situation, and (*c*) a typical foreign problem.
>
> (2) A second center in a community * * * presenting the rural and the village, or small city, problems.

Since this recommendation was made there has been inaugurated in Lawrence "The Lawrence Plan for Education in Citizenship." A school has been selected, the entire work of which, including course of study and activities, is being reorganized with training for citizenship as the central idea. The work is being done with the cooperation of the city school authorities, the State department of education, the staff of the State normal school at Lowell, and the National Security League. It is under the immediate direction of a committee of which the superintendent of the Lawrence schools is chairman, the principal of the Lowell State Normal School secretary, and Profs. Hanus and Hart, of Harvard, members. An advisory committee consists of Henry H. Chamberlain, of the Massachusetts Division of the National Security League, Robert M. McElroy, educational director of the National Security League, and Payson Smith, State commissioner of education.

The special agent has spent considerable time during the past year away from the bureau in work with other localities and groups. As for his work while in the bureau, it has been diverted largely from its normal course by the necessities of the war. Much of his time has been spent in cooperation with others in preparing materials relating to the war for use in the schools. In this connection it may not be out of place to make a brief general statement regarding the effect of the war upon the development of civic education in this country. It is too early to know what permanent effects upon our program of civic education the experiences of the war will have; but if the lessons that they bring are thoroughly learned, the year just passed will have been one of tremendous progress in this field.

"We are making citizens of our soldiers, while we are making soldiers of our citizens," is the comment of one who describes the painstaking care with which an officer explained to his new recruits the meaning of the salute. "The salute is going to be rigidly enforced in this Army, and I want you boys to get the right idea of it." "I want you to know what you salute and why." "When you salute me, you are simply rendering respect to the power I represent; and the power I represent is you. Now let me explain," etc.

But the President has said, "It is not an army that we must shape and train for war * * * it is a nation." The mobilization of the Nation for war has unquestionably been a civic-educational process. But further than this, it has awakened a consciousness of the need for continuous, organized training for citizenship as one of the measures of preparedness to meet national emergencies whether in peace or in war. It has led the President to urge more universal and more definite study of our community and national life. It has already stimulated the schools and other agencies to unprecedented effort to provide civic training.

Evidence of this is abundant, though it has not yet been systematically collected and organized. For instance, reports received from the departments of education of most of the States attest a marked intensification of interest in civic education during the last year, an interest which has found expression in the press, in legislation in a number of States, in the revision of courses of study to make citizenship a more conspicuous aim, and in efforts to give to the war activities of the schools an enduring civic value. It is seen in the increased attention to the problems of Americanization, and in the stimulus given to community organization for educational purposes and for united action.

The increased effort in such directions has been inspired primarily as a war measure, without consciousness, in all cases, of its ultimate significance in terms of fundamental aims and methods of civic training. But, taken as a whole, the war situation and the activities resulting from it have been of distinct civic-educational value, and have given a marked impetus to the movement for more universal and more effective civic training. While we are pouring out our life blood and our treasure for the principles of democracy, the truth has been borne in upon us that those principles are safe only when put into practice, and that the practice of democracy can be achieved only by the slower processes of evolution and of education, and especially of education.

LIBRARY.

As aids in the study of conditions arising from the war, the library prepared and circulated bibliographies on various topics, in-

cluding the following: Education as affected in general by the war, both in the United States and Europe; teaching of German in the public schools; education of illiterates; Americanization of aliens; civic education; education in patriotism; military education; and re-education of crippled soldiers. Further assistance was given to special students of education and the war by the loan of books from the library. The division also suggested topics connected with the war for essays and orations for high-school graduates, and supplied references to sources of information on some of these subjects. A select list for public-school pupils was also compiled of books containing personal experiences of soldiers in the war, poetry of the war, and standard patriotic prose and poetry. This list was requested for inclusion in one of a series of lessons projected by the bureau.

Upon request of the library war service, the division prepared lists of school and college textbooks in various subjects suitable for the use of soldiers desiring to study these subjects in cantonments or military posts. The library war service undertakes to supply these books in its camp libraries, and reports that it has found the lists extremely useful in this connection. During the year, special attention has also been given in the monthly record of current educational publications to listing and annotating the literature of education in relation to the war.

Ten monthly numbers of the record of educational publications were issued during the year, together with an index number to the 1917 series. The lantern slides of public and school libraries and the school library exhibit have continued to be used to some extent by borrowers outside of Washington.

Statistics of business transacted by the library during the year show the following: Volumes and pamphlets added by gift, by exchange, and by purchase, 2,340; by copyright transfer from the Library of Congress, 691; serial numbers accessioned, 8,801; periodical numbers, 8,913; volumes received from the bindery, 1,043. The number of volumes catalogued and classified was 4,114; bibliographies compiled, 144. Volumes loaned to borrowers outside the office amounted to 2,380, and 3,113 letters requesting books or information were answered, many of them by supplying copies of the library's bibliographies on the subjects to which the inquiries referred.

MEETINGS AND ADDRESSES.

While the greater part of the bureau's contribution to the progress of American education must be given through the medium of the printed page, the small travel expense fund has made it possible for the bureau to comply with a very limited number of the requests that

have come to it for addresses on educational subjects. In a considerable number of cases associations and institutions desiring the services of specialists were able to defray the expenses incurred by specialists and thus made it possible for the bureau to comply with their requests for addresses. A much larger appropriation for traveling expenses is absolutely necessary to enable the bureau to serve the entire country without partiality.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The report of the mails and files division at Washington shows for the year ending June 30, 1918:

Letters received	162,479
Library publications received	34,780
Statistical reports received	43,578
Documents distributed	802,835
Mimeographed letters sent out	626,621
United States School Garden Army leaflets sent out	1,343,100

The offices and stations of the bureau outside of Washington report for the same period:

Letters received	29,070
Statistical reports received	6,922
Printed and mimeographed material sent out	956,479

These figures show that the correspondence of the bureau is growing rapidly. The number of pieces of first-class mail received is almost 25,000 in excess of the number received during the preceding year.

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