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CITY TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS

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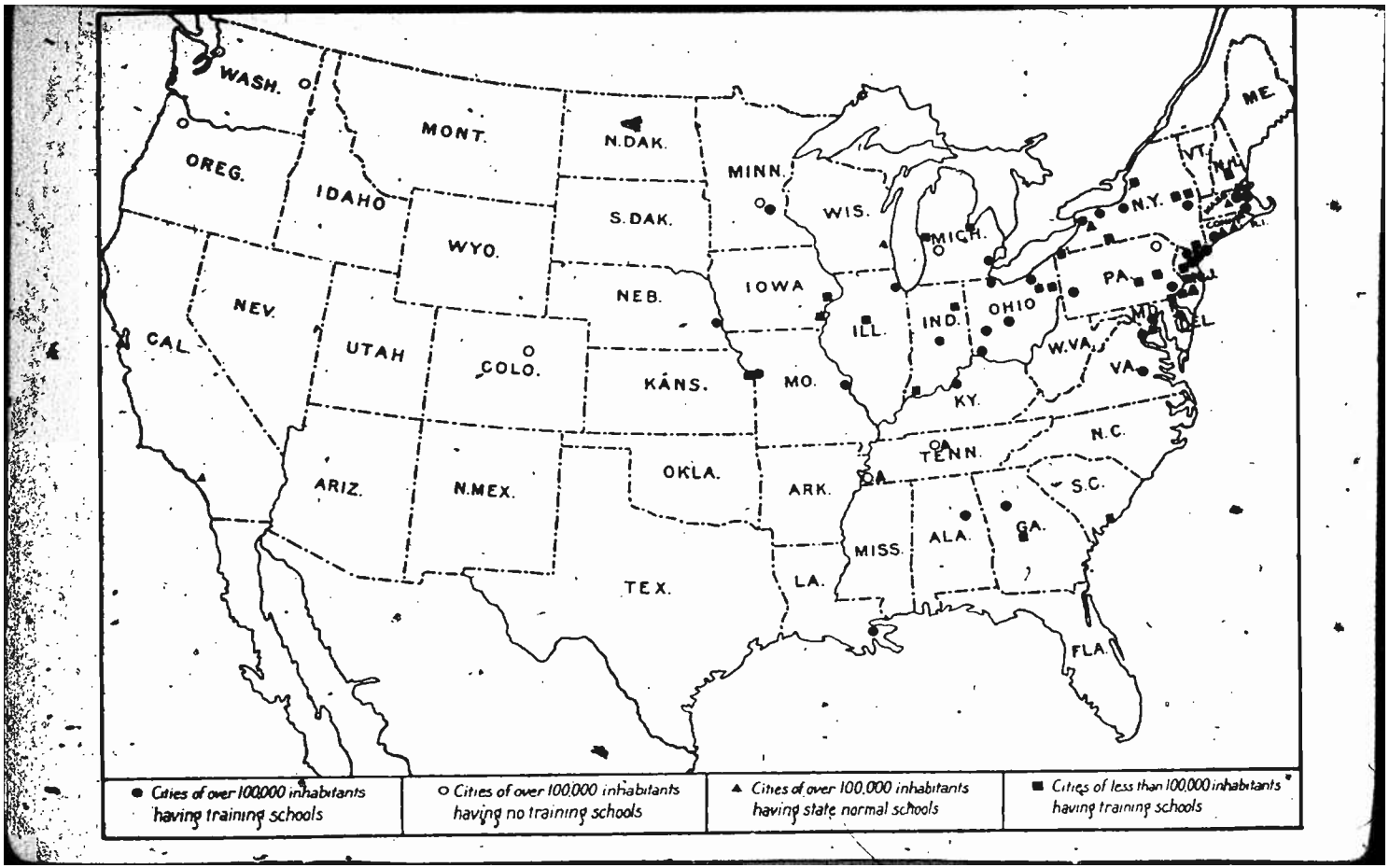
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Cities of over 100,000 inhabitants having training schools
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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, October 31, 1914.

SIR: For city schools, as for village and country schools, though perhaps to a less degree for the former than for the latter, the character, education, professional knowledge, and skill of individual teachers must be counted as the most important factors for efficiency and success. The agencies and methods through and by which teachers for city schools are prepared are second in importance only to the agencies and methods for the preparation of teachers for rural and village schools. Although all the States maintain normal schools or schools of education in connection with State colleges for the preparation of teachers, and although most of the graduates of these find places as teachers in city schools, still all cities but one with a population of 300,000 or more, and four-fifths of those having a population of more than 100,000, maintain normal or training schools as a part of their public-school system. The annual enrollment in these schools is more than 7,000 and the number of graduates each year about 3,000. Most of the new teachers in the schools of these cities are taken from the ranks of these graduates. The character of these city normal or training schools therefore determines to a very large extent the character of the schools in which the children of the cities are taught. Recognizing the need of a comprehensive account of the organization, management, and work of the city normal or training schools, I gladly accepted the offer of Dr. Frank A. Manny, principal of the Baltimore City Training School and a special collaborator in the Bureau of Education, to make a careful study of them and to prepare a report of the results obtained. This report is transmitted herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education for distribution among school officers in the larger cities, among principals of State and city normal schools, and professors and students of education.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

PREFATORY NOTE.

In organizing the material of this report it has been difficult to determine what method of treatment would lead to the better service. While there are many topics that are obscure, there are still sufficient data to justify certain positions which seem to the writer to need emphasis at the present time. The chief function of what has been brought together seems, however, to afford a basis for further study and for the formulation of specific programs in particular localities.

There are usually some errors in work done under the most favorable conditions, and when a study is made in the marginal moments of one's daily work it is hardly to be hoped that even much care has prevented many slips and falls. Several hundred people have contributed material to this report, representing mainly the principals of the city training schools and the superintendents of the city schools. Enough cases of conflicting reports have been cleared up to indicate that there are probably others that have escaped detection.

Grateful acknowledgment is due to those who have contributed material to this report; the compiler owes much to their cooperation and suggestions.

FRANK A. MANNY.

CITY TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS.

PRESENT PROBLEMS.

In the training of teachers there is need of the mass work which, on the whole, is done well by many schools in the country. Too little attention, however, is given in many cases to the need of selecting individuals who will make good use of further opportunities for growth and training. The problem is social, and the selecting and directing care is needed on the part of those who have a margin of time for this aspect of the work. We can not get along without machine-made work, but best results require as well careful hand-work to set standards and to keep and develop high art levels. In many respects the city offers superior opportunities for developing this machinery and for providing for that selection which is so essential to progress.

The city training school has grown up under difficult conditions, and there has been little opportunity for those most seriously concerned in it to do more than attempt to meet the very urgent demands made upon it.[1] At a conference of principals of training schools and colleges held at St. Louis in February, 1912, the secretary of the group agreed to prepare a report upon the "Present status of city training schools." This was presented in a preliminary form at the conference held in Philadelphia in February, 1913. The United States Bureau of Education gave its support to the inquiry, and the present report is the outcome of what has been done.

The following list of problems has been selected from the many that have arisen in connection with the report for consideration by the committee in charge of the national conference of training-school teachers:

NEEDS AND POSSIBILITIES TO BE STUDIED AND REPORTED UPON.

1. Publication of a list by the United States Bureau of Education of standard-grade normal and training schools, following the precedent established in the case of universities and colleges. This list to be used as a basis for accrediting

[1] "The agencies in the control of this board for the training of teachers were not studied by the inquiry committee of the board of estimate. I recommend an inquiry into our facilities for training teachers at public expense, the number and arrangement of studies in the training schools, the relation of these studies to the work done by the graduates, the time allotment of the various studies, and the relative value of the subjects. Is there subject matter outside the course of more vital benefit to the students than that now in the course? Has the service of the normal and city colleges been fully utilized by this board in securing service for the general system of public high and elementary schools? These and allied questions should be taken up with intent to improve the method of securing high-class teachers for the schools." (Rep. of Pres. Bd. of Ed. N. Y. City, Jan. 28, 1914.)

certificates in various States and cities, also for articulation of courses with degree-giving institutions. (See the "accredited" list of secondary schools issued in 1913 by the Bureau of Education.[1])

2. Agreement between authorities of city, State, and the United States Bureau of Education as to standard forms of reports for normal and training schools, including rules for determining proportion of salaries of special-subject teachers, teachers of practice, etc.; also standard means of determining per capita cost; the reporting of libraries so as to distinguish textbooks and classroom sets from reference books, etc.

3. Separate listing in State and National reports of State, county, and city training schools and classes connected with high schools.

4. Encouragement of printed announcements and curricula of city training schools for purposes of interchange and mutual criticism.

5. Formation of circuits of training schools of similar scope, to members of which each school belonging will send printed and mimeographed syllabi, outlines, blanks, forms, etc.

6. Statement of the function of a training-school corps in a city system (p. 10).

7. Actual requirements of practice teaching (pp. 60–66).

8. The relation of the high-school course to the preparation of teachers (pp. 17–23).

9. The best means of passing from the training school into the city service (pp. 66–69).

10. Substituting in the city schools (pp. 69–73).

11. A series of tests similar in purpose to the Courtis arithmetic and English tests, the Hillegas composition scale, and the Thorndike and Ayres penmanship scales, in order to secure material for a comparative report upon the qualifications of students entering upon training work. Possibly this could be extended to include a comparison of the students with others in the senior classes of the various high schools.

12. The possibilities of advanced work for selected students in higher institutions, as is done in England.

13. The interchange of training-school students as recommended by Supt. Phillips, of Birmingham, Ala.

14. The establishment of funds similar to the Gregg Fund in Indianapolis (p. 81), to be used as incentives for strong students to enter upon teaching.

15. The interchange among training and normal schools of members of the faculties for a semester's residence.

16. The encouragement of the publication in annual reports of the titles, books, editings, researches, etc., by members of the corps, as has been done for some years in Boston.

17. More adequate means of securing and circulating material upon the training of teachers in America and elsewhere. There is need of an educational journal whose major concern is the training of teachers.

18. A comparison of the cost and results of small training schools and of the maintenance of scholarships in larger city and State schools (pp. 145–149).

19. The relationship of the State to the training of teachers for service in cities (pp. 94–100).

20. The special problems involved in the training of teachers for grades VII and VIII and their relations to the training of secondary school teachers.

21. The relationship of the training of teachers to that of other municipal employees (pp. 89–94).

[1] Education bulletin, 1913, No. 29.

To the State has fallen the chief care of public higher education. The only section of schooling beyond the secondary period which any considerable number of municipalities has entered is that of the training of teachers. In so far as this has been done, it has been due largely to the necessities of the case. Teachers must be provided in large numbers for city schools, and any influences which lead to higher standards in qualifications are felt first in cities. Naturally, under the circumstances, the development of these schools has been opportunistic. They have had a more definite program than that required of State normal schools, and, what has been of even greater influence, they have been more subject to the immediate reaction of the communities they serve.

The supply of teachers for a city system depends upon those who have had training and experience elsewhere and those in the city who wish to enter the service. In days of a spoils system school positions made excellent pawns in playing the game. This fact, among others, has had its part in tending to hold these positions as local possessions from which the foreign teacher is to be excluded as far as possible.

When one reads the naive note made in one report, "We like our system; it makes such excellent teachers," and in another, that membership is restricted "simply by accommodations," he realizes to some extent certain of the difficulties in the situations which are not in the consciousness of the principals involved.

On the other hand, when, amid the common complaint that there are not enough candidates of the quality desired for teaching, Cincinnati is able to secure its elementary teachers from the upper end of the scale of university graduates, it is apparent that there are means of meeting difficulties which have not yet become apparent to the educational authorities of many large cities. This city has a lower salary maximum than that of several other cities, yet it can require a course of twice the length given elsewhere.

Material is not available upon the religious problems in the city training schools. It is possible that, where they appear, many of them are not so much questions of religion as of the results of segregation. Thus, in a large city a speaker who was invited to address the teachers of the secondary schools which sent students to the training school found that half of his audience were representatives of teaching orders of a particular church. Inquiry showed that a very large part of the members of the training school had never been members of the public-school system until they entered upon the two years' course of training. Apart from any question of religion, this situation must offer many difficulties in the school and in the later service.

Standard works on education do not give much space to the city training school. Dutton and Snedden, in their *Administration of public education*, give two lines. Dr. Chancellor gives some space in two of his books. He sees clearly the dangers of the system, which he states to be:

First, it not merely promotes; it is the instrumentality of inbreeding.

Second, it means low salaries for the teachers, because it insures a large and therefore cheap supply of young teachers.

FUNCTION OF THE CITY TRAINING SCHOOL.

In the twelfth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Dr. Bobbitt, of the University of Chicago, discusses "Scientific management applied to city schools." In this is shown clearly the important function of a city training school when it shall become a progressive indicator and worker out of the real needs of the system.

This appears to be best accomplished in those cities where the directive faculty of the school are at the same time portions of the general supervisory force of the city. Most progressive cities show this in the practice-teaching work, and some are coming to employ it on the side of the instruction.

This means conscious planning and not mere growth coming largely through necessities and chance. It is suggestive of much that has not been done and needs to be done.

The following quotation from Dr. Bobbitt's report gives his general position:

PRELIMINARY TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

PRINCIPLE V.—*The management must train its workers previous to service in the measure demanded by its standard qualifications, or it must set up entrance requirements of so specific and detailed a nature as to enforce upon training institutions the output of a supply of workers possessing the desirable qualifications in the degree necessary for entrance into service.*

Although much neglected in actual practice, this principle appears to indicate one of the major supervisory functions. Since the function is so completely neglected at times as to indicate no recognition, the statement will perhaps require some justification. The first justification lies in the fact that the nature of the work that is performed by the supervisory staff is in large measure determined by the entrance qualifications which new workers bring with them when they enter the service. If these entering teachers have been trained in low degree, or if they have been trained to improper methods of work, then the supervisory members must expend a large excess of labor in giving training to young teachers which ought to have been accomplished in the preliminary course. If, however, the younger teachers have been trained in a superior manner, then the amount of supervisory energy required for each teacher is very much less, and it can be expended on a much higher

professional plane and look toward very much higher attainment. Any form of labor that will reduce the work of the supervisory staff to one-half in amount and at the same time place it upon a higher plane is a legitimate portion of the work of the supervisory members. Unless the function is performed by one or other of several methods, the organization can not hope to attain anything like maximum efficiency.

Looking at the matter from another viewpoint, it is clear that the responsibility stated in the principle rests upon the management of city school systems because of the relation existing between the city organization and the teachers' training institutions. These institutitons are preparing a product for use in the city school systems. It is for the school system that uses the product to say what the nature of the product is to be in all necessary details which is turned out for their use by the training institutions that are engaged in ministering to their necessities.

This relation is perfectly clear in the case of training institutions within our large cities which are integral portions of the city school system and in which the major portion of the entering teachers are trained. If our principle states the relationship correctly, the city training school can not be an autonomous institution, with the general nature of the work left to the principal of the school and the details of it left to the heads of departments. It appears to be clearly the function of the management of the city school system, the supervisory staff, to say in minute detail what shall be the qualifications of the output of the training school; and this means the determination of the elements that enter into the training curriculum. This appears to be best accomplished in those cities where the directive faculty of the school are at the same time portions of the general supervisory organization of the city. Most progressive cities show this in the practice-teaching work, and some are coming to employ it on the side of the instruction.

The performance of this function is not quite so simple in the case of smaller cities, villages, and rural districts that can not have their own training institutions. At the present time they are more or less at the mercy of relatively autonomous, and therefore—so far as the cities receiving their product are concerned—relatively irresponsible institutions. These institutions can turn out what they will, regardless of the wishes of the cities that are to receive their product; and the supervisors must take what they can get. It may be what they need, and it may fall considerably or even greatly below it. The cities themselves are relatively powerless to prescribe the product that is to be turned out for their use by the training institutions.

In practically all cities this is the situation obtaining in secondary education. Training institutions turn out what they will; and city school systems, in employing high-school teachers, feel that they must take the product whether it is of the kind they need or not. In many quarters they are coming to be very firmly of the opinion that their particular needs were but little considered in the shaping of the product that was to go to them.

CLASSES OF INSTITUTIONS.

The various city institutions for the training of teachers may be grouped as follows:

(1) Degree-giving institutions, including the College for Teachers of the University of Cincinnati, New York City College, and Hunter College.

(2) Schools providing practical training for graduates of colleges and normal schools—Cambridge and Chelsea.

(3) Institutions using the name college, but not conferring degrees. These are the Harris Teachers College, of St. Louis, and the Teachers College of the Chicago Normal School, both of which furnish advanced work beyond the two years' course in summer school and winter extension classes.

(4) City training or normal schools, with two-year courses.

(5) Similar institutions, with courses of one year and one and a half year's length.

(6) Training classes in connection with the high school or the superintendent's office.

The names given to the city institutions studied show a preference for the word "training," which appears 38 times to 29 uses of the word "normal." In six cases both words are used. One city (Cincinnati) has a "university," one (Philadelphia) a "school of pedagogy," two (Chicago and St. Louis) have "colleges," and one (New York City) has both training schools and colleges.

There are a few schools in the smaller cities from which no reports have been available, but there are not enough of these materially to alter the inferences that can be drawn from the following statements. The larger the city, the more necessity upon it for providing training within its borders. For our present purpose, State schools within these cities should be counted with the city schools. It will be seen that Minneapolis is the only city with a population of more than 300,000 which makes no provision for training teachers. In cities above 150,000 four out of five have schools, and the same proportion holds for cities above 100,000. For smaller cities account has not been taken of State schools, but the 59 cities from 50,000 to 100,000 have but 17 city schools; the 117 between 25,000 and 50,000 have but 6, and the 56 between 20,000 and 25,000 have but 3. In the 232 cities with population between 20,000 and 100,000 there are seven fewer city training schools than are found in the 50 cities above 100,000.

CITIES HAVING MORE THAN ONE TRAINING SCHOOL.

Seven of the larger cities have more than one city institution for training teachers. New York has three institutions of the same kind. In Philadelphia one school is for women and another is for men. In St. Louis, Baltimore, Washington, Louisville, and Richmond, a second school is maintained for the training of colored teachers.

In Chicago there is a feeling in some localities that the opening of a second school in another part of the city would bring the possibility of training within the reach of many young women who now find the distance a deciding factor against entering the city service.

Classification of cities.

	Population.	Number of cities.	Training schools.
1	500,000+	[1] 8	All have city training schools.
2	300,000+	[2] 18	14 city schools, 3 State; Minneapolis neither.
3	150,000+	[2] 32	23 city schools, 5 State; 4 neither.
4	100,000+	[2] 50	33 city schools, 7 State; 10 neither.
5	50,000+	109	50 city schools.
6	25,000+	226	56 city schools.
7	20,000+	282	59 city schools.

[1] New York has three schools; Philadelphia one for each sex; St. Louis and Baltimore each two schools, one for colored students.
[2] Washington, Louisville, and Richmond have separate schools for colored students.

In 41 schools in 33 cities having more than 100,000 inhabitants, there are enrolled over 7,200 pupils. The proportion of graduates to membership in schools reporting is 5 to 12; so that it is safe to estimate 3,000 graduates. These cities report that they require from 3,600 to 4,100 teachers each year, so that the training schools can furnish nearly three-fourths of the required number.

In 26 cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants there are 700 students enrolled; allowing 300 graduates annually, the schools can fill a little over one-half of the required 500 to 600 new teachers.

Of the 7,200 students in the 33 larger cities, one-half are in the three largest cities, which have about half of the population of the group; one-fourth are in the next 5 cities, ranging above 500,000, and having less than one-fifth of the population; the remaining fourth are in 25 cities below 500,000, having one-third of the population.

In the cities above 100,000 population there are 17 schools having less than 100 students, 9 having less than 50, and 3 with less than 25.

In the 26 cities below 100,000, none have an enrollment over 100; all but one have less than 75; 21 have less than 50; 12 less than 25, and 5 less than 20.

Six of the large cities having State schools[1] have an enrollment in these schools of nearly 2,500 students, in a city population of about 1,600,000; so that to have the same number coming from the State schools into these city systems would take nearly half the product of the schools.

The distribution of training schools by cities is shown in the accompanying list in the map on page 4. Twenty-three States and the District of Columbia have 33 cities over 100,000, and 26 cities under 100,000, which have training schools. Of these, only five States have territory beyond the Mississippi River. From New Hampshire to Georgia on the Atlantic coast the only States having no city training schools are Rhode Island and North Carolina.

[1] San Francisco, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, Providence, Worcester, and Lowell. Baltimore is excluded from this comparison, as it has both State and city schools.

Cities and teacher-training schools.

States.	Cities with over 100,000 population.	Cities with less than 100,000 population.	Total cities.	Total training schools.
Alabama			1	1
Connecticut	1		1	1
Delaware	1		1	1
District of Columbia		1	1	1
Georgia	1		1	2
Illinois	1	1	2	2
Indiana	1	1	2	2
Iowa	1	2	3	3
Kansas		2	2	2
Kentucky		1	1	1
Louisiana	1		1	2
Maryland	1		1	1
Massachusetts	1		1	2
Michigan	3	1	4	4
Minnesota	1	2	3	3
Missouri	1		1	1
Nebraska	2		2	3
New Hampshire	1		1	1
New Jersey		1	1	1
New York	3	3	6	6
Ohio	5	5	10	12
Pennsylvania	5	2	7	7
South Carolina	2	3	5	6
Virginia		1	1	1
	1		1	2
Total	33	26	59	67

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CITY TRAINING SCHOOL.

The dates of importance in the history of the training of teachers include the beginnings of the work of Mulcaster in 1581, of La Salle in 1681, of Francke in 1697, and of Hecker in 1735. The Lancastrian system was organized in New York in 1805, but the Philadelphia school, from which the present Girls' Normal School has come, opened in 1818.

Among other influences which should be taken into account are those of the movement for the higher education of women urged by Mrs. Willard in the second decade of the nineteenth century, the establishment of girls' high schools in the third, and the opening of State normal schools begining in the fourth decade.

The modern movement, however, dates from the form which Dr. Sheldon's work took at Oswego in 1861. In his autobiography (p. 138) he writes:

> In addition to the regular school of practice, we had one model school, used exclusively as a school of observation, and one school taught successively by the members of the training class. * * * This was the first teachers' training school ever organized in America.

Dr. Gordy, in his Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States, says:

> The history of the normal school at Oswego, N. Y., constituted an important chapter not only in the history of the training of teachers, but in the history of the public schools of this country.

Progressive school men soon saw the advantages this opportunity afforded, and schools were organized in several cities. A list is given showing those schools which were most directly influenced

by the new movement, the names in parentheses being those of Oswego teachers or graduates who were active in the work of the schools named:[1] Davenport, 1863 (Miss Mary V. Lee and Mrs. Mary A. McGonegal); Boston, 1864 (Miss Jennie H. Stickney and Miss Sarah D. Duganne); Indianapolis, 1867 (Miss Funnelle); Fort Wayne, 1867 (Miss Funnelle); Cincinnati, 1868 (Miss Delia A. Lathrop and Miss Duganne); Dayton, 1868; Pittsburgh, 1870; Paterson, 1870; Toledo, 1870; Cleveland, 1872; Portland, Oreg., 1878; Detroit (Miss Funnelle); Worcester (Miss Lathrop); Portland, Me.; Lewiston, Me.; Cook County, Ill. (Mr. and Mrs. Straight, Mr. George Fitz, Miss Emily J. Rice).

The lines of influence are here very apparent. In the following table the founding and reorganization of some 60 schools still in operation is shown. A dozen of them were organized during each of the decades beginning in 1880 and 1900, while the largest single group, 17, came into existence between 1890 and 1899. The repetition of the names of cities, indicated by parentheses, is caused by various reorganizations.

1810	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
Philadelphia 1818 (Philadelphia 1848)	Washington, colored, 1851 Baltimore 1851 Boston 1852 Newark 1855 Chicago 1856	Davenport 1863 Ft. Wayne 1867 Indianapolis 1867 Cincinnati 1868 Dayton 1869 (Cook County Normal School 1869)	Paterson 1870 (Chicago 1871) (Washington, colored, 1871) (Baltimore 1872) Washington, white, 1873 Burlington 1873 Cleveland 1874 Buffalo 1876 Louisville 1876 (Newark 1879)	Syracuse 1880 Detroit 1882 St. Paul 1882 (Washington 1882) Columbus 1883 Albany 1884 Cambridge 1884 Brooklyn 1885 Birmingham 1887 Fall River 1888 (Washington, colored, 1889) Bridgeport 1889	Bay City 1890 Muskegon 1890 Trenton 1891 (Chicago 1893) (Philadelphia 1893) Toledo 1893 Camden 1894 Troy 1894 Akron 1895 Elmira 1896 New Orleans 1895 (Chicago Normal College 1896) Jersey City 1896 Schenectady 1896 Louisville, colored, 1897 Macon 1897 Chelsea 1898 New York 1898 Rochester 1898 Watertown 1899	Kansas City, Kans., 1900 Kansas City, Mo., 1900 (Baltimore 1901) Harrisburg 1902 Erie 1905 (Cincinnati 1905) Omaha 1905 St. Louis 1905 Jamaica 1906 Elizabeth 1907 Reading 1908 Atlanta 1909 Yonkers 1909	Evansville 1911 Charleston 1911 Richmond 1911 Pittsburgh 1912 Youngstown 1912.

[1] Some of the dates here given do not agree with those appearing later. These are taken from Dr. Sheldon's autobiography.

Mr. Ford's report states that in 1880 there were 21 city normal schools and in 1911, 80.

The Bureau of Education report for 1889 records 58 schools, with 538 students. Supt. Foos finds that:

> More than 80 cities with a population of 25,000, census of 1900, have specific instruction for the training of teachers by superintendents' or teachers' classes, classes in high schools, departments in high schools, or separate normal training schools. No doubt a number of cities with less than 25,000 inhabitants also do normal work; so that it is reasonable to presume that about 100 towns and cities provide normal instruction for persons who desire to teach.

His list shows superintendents' classes, 15; high-school normal classes, 19; normal training schools, 62.

Mr. Ford's list shows the following schools from which neither data nor notice of discontinuation has been secured for this report, although efforts have been made to secure this information: Altoona, Auburn (Me.), Augusta (Ga.), Bloomfield (N. J.), Bloomington (Ill.), Cohoes, Dubuque, Galesburg, Gloucester, Hoboken, Jamestown, Joplin, Lewiston, Newburyport, Portland (Me.), Springfield (Ill.), Quincy (Ill.), Stoughton. The State departments of West Virginia and Georgia report schools at Wheeling and Augusta, but no reports have been secured. The same is true of Cohoes and Jamestown in New York State.

CLOSING OF CITY TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Some schools have had a periodic existence, closing when the supply of teachers was large and reopening when there was a scarcity. It is not profitable to go into this matter to any great extent, but a few notes may be of historical interest. The reasons given for closing Auburn's school in 1912 was the proximity of three State schools. The superintendent at Scranton writes concerning the abolishment in 1909 of the school in that city:

> To qualify under the new school code, our training graduates were compelled to take a State examination and receive State certificates.

The St. Louis school was discontinued during 1896–97.

Dr. Balliet makes the following statement concerning the city with which he was connected:

> The city training school at Springfield was opened in the autumn of 1888 and closed in June, 1900. It was established because a number of the Massachusetts State normal schools were at that time not giving effective, practical training. It was abolished because those State normal schools had improved and were very efficient.

Cincinnati opened a training school in September, 1868, and closed it in February, 1901.

The following letter from the superintendent in a manufacturing city shows not only the vicissitudes in the life of training schools, but also the limitations in its city school system which they may be used to perpetuate:

Two years ago my board voted to abolish the city training school. At the last election, fall of 1911, the personnel of the board was changed; it was voted to reconsider the former vote with the result noted above. It is not yet the time to abolish the school in this city. I have between 80 and 90 young teachers who are substituting and assisting in rooms containing over 50 pupils each, because we do not have sufficient buildings and as a result not rooms enough. Consequently these assistants must wait for four or five years before they can be appointed to rooms of their own.

You readily see how handicapped I would be in securing teachers to assist in my schools when other cities could give them rooms. In using the graduates of my own school, this difficulty is obviated.

ENTRANCE INTO TRAINING SCHOOLS.

There has been some progress made in recent years in determining the suitableness of candidates for entering telephone, street railway, and some other lines of service. Little has been done in selecting students for teacher training, beyond some very external examinations. Some of the university departments of education and psychology now are considering studies which may lead to more effective means of sifting the applicants. Present salaries keep down the number of candidates, but it is possible that a more definite standard would help to raise the scale of salaries.

In cities in which the number of candidates is much larger than the number of students desired, it is not difficult to make restrictions by means of which students of low scholarship are excluded. There is, however, a tradition that very frequently students who are low in academic standing make good teachers. While there is at times a tendency to be dogmatic in this matter by those who can point to few cases to prove the point, there has not as yet been a sufficiently complete study of the question to justify those who oppose it in making positive statements. A thorough analysis was made in one city of the membership of several classes after entering service by the teachers who had trained them in practice and in theory. The groups were divided into quarters, according to high-school standing, and it was found (1) there were occasional difficult cases in the three higher quarters, but (2) almost all of the cases which had required extra amounts of time and of exertion on the part of teachers came from the fourth quarter; (3) in two classes the loss of the entire fourth quarter would have caused but one clear

loss to the city. This last exception was that of a student of much power who was sufficiently well known to have been taken account of. In other classes the representatives of the lowest quarter who made valuable teachers were in most cases those whose low records were due to special health conditions or to other known causes which adequate records would report as a basis for special decision. A young woman in ill health, under wise direction, may be able to take such care of herself as to make a better record in later years than another naturally stronger, but unadvised, because she had no apparent needs.

Careful experimentation shows that many of the students who seem to promise failure as teachers are capable of a high grade of service if they are given an additional half year or full year of preparation.

The following table indicates the accessible data with reference to the proportion of students according to a division into quarters on the basis of high-school records; also the means used to determine entrance into the training schools:

Students in the four quarters—Entrance to training schools.

City training schools.	Divisions according to high-school records.				Training-school entrance requirements.	Percentage required on high-school work.
	First quarter.	Second quarter.	Third quarter.	Fourth quarter.		
Albany	7	13	19	58		
Baltimore (white)	27	26	27	20	Recommendation of high-school principal.	
Birmingham					do	
Boston					Competitive examination	
Cincinnati	75 per cent best half college graduates.					
Cleveland						85
Columbus	41	30	25	5		
Concord						75
Dayton	25	25	25	25		
Detroit					Competitive examination	
Elizabeth	44	17	20	19		
Erie	10	90				
Harrisburg	75	25			Examination if necessary	
Indianapolis					Competitive examination	80
Jersey City	25	25	25	25		
Louisville						Very good.
New Orleans	31	29	23	17		
Macon					Examination	
Omaha					Selected by superintendent	
Philadelphia					High-school standing	
Pittsburgh					Competitive examination	80
Reading	50	25	25	Few.		
Schenectady	Largely from second quarter					
St. Louis	Upper two-thirds for 4 years				Entrance examination from lower third.	
St. Paul						
Toledo						80
Washington (white)						80
Watertown	33	33	34			
Yonkers						70

Frequently special courses are arranged in the larger high schools for prospective training-school students. In St. Louis[1] 9 per cent of the students were in a course—

> preparatory to the Teachers College * * * arranged to give special attention to instruction in penmanship, drawing, and such subjects having immediate professional bearing. It has always been thought that this crowded out of this course some of the important cultural elements of other courses. Furthermore, experience has demonstrated that those choosing this course did not supply the numbers to meet our demand for teachers, and graduates in good standing of any other course have consequently been admitted to the Teachers College." (St. Louis Report, 1912.)

In St. Louis students whose records place them in the lowest third of the high-school graduating class may, by taking an examination, become eligible for admission in case there is not a sufficient number of candidates having the higher grades. The subjects for this examination are: English composition and literature; algebra, to quadratics; plane geometry; general history; two of the following sciences—physics, chemistry, botany, physiology, physiography, zoology; and one of the following languages—Latin, Greek, French, or Spanish. An average of 75 per cent is required, with not less than 50 per cent in any subject.

In Boston, a special course is provided. The plan is given herewith:

> Candidates who have completed a four years' course in a Boston high school, as outlined below, with diploma, will be examined on the second Friday and the preceding Thursday in June. The amount of work to have been thus completed is indicated by the number of points placed opposite each subject.

COURSE OF STUDY.

First Year.

Subjects.	Points.
English I	5
Latin I, or German I, or French I	4
Mathematics I (Algebra)	4
History I (ancient or English)	3
Drawing I	3
Physical training I	2
	21

[1] From 1904–5 to 1909–10 the range of percentages of girls in the graduating classes of the high school entering the teachers' college was from 26 to 48.

In Indianapolis, a competitive examination for all candidates is held in August and January, in arithmetic; oral reading; English grammar, literature, and composition; general history, including United States; botany; vocal music; and drawing.

Second year.

	Points.
English II	4
Latin II, or German II, or French II	4
Mathematics II (geometry)	4
Hygiene	1
History II (mediæval or mediæval and modern European)	3
Drawing II	3
Physical training II	2
	21

Third year.

English III	3
Latin I or III, or German I or III, of French I or III	4
Mathematics III (arithmetic, one-half year; algebra and geometry, one-half year)	5
Music I	2
Physics	4
Physical training III	2
	20

Fourth year.

English IV	3
Latin II or IV, or German II or IV, or French II or IV	4
Music II	2
United States history under the Constitution	3
Chemistry	4
Physical training IV	2
	18

NOTE 1.—The four years of foreign language study required may be devoted to a single language, but must not include more than two languages.

NOTE 2.—Time is left in the fourth year to make up a failure or to add an additional study.

Each candidate must present certificates from the head master of the high school attended showing that she has satisfactorily completed the subjects of the course in the high school, and has earned not less than the number of points set opposite each subject. Candidates will be excused from examination in each subject of the first three years in which they have passed with a grade of A or B, but will be examined in those subjects in which the grade is C.

All candidates will be examined in the subjects of the fourth year of the course.

GRADUATES OF OTHER HIGH SCHOOLS.

Candidates who are not graduates of a Boston high school must have completed an equivalent four years' course elsewhere, with diploma. They will be examined on the second Friday and the preceding Thursday in June in each of the subjects above specified. Certificates showing that the subjects of the first three years of the course have been completed with a grade of A or B, in high schools approved by the board of superintendents, may be accepted in place of examinations in these subjects.

Applications for such certificates must be sent to the board of superintendents not later than June 1.

All candidates will be examined in the subjects of the fourth year of the course.

GRADUATES OF COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Women graduates of a university, college, or State normal school, approved by the board of superintendents, and men graduates of a university or college so approved, may be admitted to the senior class without examination. Each candidate must present to the board of superintendents certificates of graduation from a university, college, or normal school, of good health, and of good moral character.

In New York City the following course is required:

	Recitation periods.[1]
English literature, rhetoric and composition, grammar	494
Algebra	190
Plane geometry	190
History, ancient or modern, I	114
History, English or modern, II	114
American history and civics	152
Drawing	228
Botany, zoology, and physiology	190
Physics	190
Latin or German or French	380
Music	152

The English must have been continuous through four years. Vocal music, one lesson each week, and drawing, one lesson each week, for two years; two lessons each week during the other two years. A high-school standing of 65 is required, but records prior to January, 1911, of 60 for girls and 70 for boys are accepted. Physics and physiography are required for training-school entrance, and special advanced courses in science, mathematics, and foreign language. Students from outside schools with approved courses must take entrance examinations in fourth-year English, a third or fourth year foreign language, and drawing.

An interesting obligation is a certificate signed by the principal of the high school—

> to the effect that the candidate is habitually reliable, cheerful, obedient, and truthful; that he exhibits habits of cleanliness and neatness; that his habitual posture in sitting, in standing, and in walking is correct and dignified; that he speaks the English language without foreign accent, and with clear and correct enunciation; and that his habitual use of language is that which befits a teacher.

In Philadelphia candidates from either the general or the college preparatory course are admitted. In the report of that city for 1910 the following statement was made in connection with new standards for admission to the service:

> In fact, the requirements for obtaining certificates * * * were so much lower than those for graduation from the normal school that it was quite possible for a student of the high school to leave that institution long before graduation, and, by a comparatively short course in the reading of professional

[1] Not less than 40 minutes.

literature, prepare himself to pass the examination and thus secure a position as teacher several years before her classmates who entered the normal school and secured certificates upon completion of the course in the latter institution.

In the St. Paul report for the same year it is stated that five years ago graduates of the high school were eligible as teachers, three years ago one year of training was required, and one year ago graduation from a normal school or college or university was made necessary. A basis for increased requirements is shown in a comparison of average salaries for all teachers and principals: 1904, $641; 1906, $761; 1911, $910.

Entrance examinations are required in New York, Boston, Indianapolis, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, Fall River, and Richmond. In Baltimore, Philadelphia, Muskegon, Wilmington, Louisville, and Schenectady high-school records determine entrance.

In many cities the recommendation of the members of the high-school corps or of the principal is required. Admission in some cases is in the hands of the principal of the training school, but at times it lies with the superintendent of schools, and at least when students come from the outside schools there are instances when action is taken by committees of the board.

The effect of entrance examinations and increased requirements is often immediately evident. Thus in New York City in 1910–11 there were admitted to the training school 1,049 students;[1] in 1911–12, 862 students were admitted.

According to Supt. Maxwell's report:

> This decrease is due not to any falling off in the number of applicants, for the number of women applying was greater than ever before, but to raising the standard of scholarship required for admission (from 60 to 65 per cent).

Detroit selects 35 or 40 students from about 100 candidates. St. Paul receives 30 out of about 50 applicants. Several other cities set definite numerical limits, as Birmingham, 30; Buffalo, 40; Chicago, 250; Cleveland, 100; Concord, 6; Columbus, 30; Elmira, 50; Kansas City, 40; Newark, 40; Pittsburgh, 60 per cent of new teachers required.

The following schools report no restrictions on numbers: Atlanta, Albany, Cambridge, Dayton, Fall River, Jersey City, Louisville, New Orleans, New York, Paterson, Philadelphia (male), Richmond, Rochester, Syracuse, Washington.

Brooklyn in the fall of 1912 gave tests of the 8B grammar grade to all junior students, after they had become acquainted with the school.

[1] *New York City Training School, September, 1910, and February, 1911.*

	From New York.	From Brooklyn.	From Jamaica.	Total.
Number of applicants	705	923	179	1,807
Number admitted	369	557	123	1,049
Number refused admission	336	366	56	758

In English a majority of the students were not successful, and voluntary after-school classes were provided. Similar tests were given twice later in the semester, and all but five cleared the last trial.

Some method of grading students on the fundamentals of common school subjects, using means having the objects of the Hillegas Composition Scale and the Courtis Arithmetic tests, would be of great service in training schools. A comparative study of this portion of the high-school product in various cities would be of value.

PLEDGE.

There seems to be less inclination at the present time than formerly to require of students entering the training schools any pledge with reference to teaching a definite number of years. In New York State a statement is made by the student that it is his intention to prepare himself for teaching. The state department comments upon this:

> Our experience has been that where pledges of this kind (to teach a certain number of years) have been exacted of students who enter training institutions, the making of such pledges has but little effect.

In Rochester this form is used:

> We, the subscribers, hereby declare that our object in asking admission to the training school is to prepare ourselves for teaching, and that it is our purpose to engage in teaching in the public schools of the State of New York at the completion of such preparation.

In St. Louis[1] and Washington a promise to teach for two years is required. Some form of pledge is also required in Chelsea, Concord, Elmira, Schenectady, Troy, and Watertown.

> ----------, *Name.* *St. Louis, Mo.*, ----------, 19--
>
> **Harris Teachers' College.**
>
> **STUDENT'S AGREEMENT.**
>
> In consideration of the professional training afforded me by the Board of Education at the Harris Teachers College, I hereby agree to teach at least two years in the Public Schools of St. Louis after graduating from that institution if I shall be appointed and continued in the service of the Board of Education. I declare that I am entering this work in good faith, fully expecting to complete the course.
>
> I have carefully considered and understand the following regulations concerning the admission to, and the continuance in, the work as a student, and I agree to be governed by their conditions:
>
> (1) Continuance in the College or apprentice schools shall be conditioned on the student's maintaining a standard of scholarship, industry, and general deportment which shall be required in those schools and which shall be approved by the Superintendent of Instruction.
>
> (2) This standard requires—
>
> (a) That the first year of the course be satisfactorily completed in not more than three terms.
>
> (b) That not more than one term be allowed to complete the apprentice work if it has required three terms to complete the first year of the prescribed course, and that no compensation be given during a second term of apprenticeship made necessary by an unsatisfactory standing during a first term of apprenticeship.
>
> ----------*Name.*

ENTERING AGE.

There is much variation in the age of entrance. New Jersey and Indiana require candidates to be 18 before they can begin teaching. This would make the age at which training could begin 16, which is the requirement in Akron, Atlanta, Albany, Camden, Cleveland, Dayton, Detroit, Elizabeth, New Orleans, Paterson, Philadelphia, Reading, Richmond, Schenectady, Toledo, and Yonkers. New York City, Columbus, and Rochester require 16½. Birmingham, Erie, Harrisburg, Kansas City (Kans. and Mo.), Macon, Muskegon, Omaha, and Wilmington require 18, and Cambridge 19.

A study of students entering several classes in the Baltimore (white) school showed that nearly all were 17, 18, and 19, in the ratio of 8–12–8.

NONRESIDENT STUDENTS.

Very few students enter training schools who hold their residence in other communities. Probably there are a number of adjustments made in order to avoid paying the tuition which is frequently charged nonresidents. In Chicago the student from outside, at the end of the course, receives a certificate, but does not receive the license granted to residents of Chicago. Tuition is usually charged students from other communities. In Baltimore the annual rate is $42; in Newark, $75; in Boston, $100; in Chicago, $150.

OUTSIDE STUDENTS.

Many cities report that they have no outside pupils. Others have a few. Elmira, Akron, Indianapolis, Cincinnati, Newark, and St. Louis have 10 per cent; New York and Albany, one-eighth; Yonkers, one-fourth; Columbus, one-third; and Schenectady, one-half.

MEDICAL EXAMINATIONS.

A large number of the cities recognize the desirability of some form of medical examination of candidates for teaching positions, but in many cases the certificate of the family physician is accepted. In Rochester the requirement is a physician's certificate "testifying that they possess the health and strength to endure the exactions of a teacher's life."

In Bridgeport the form required states:

> I have this day given Miss _____ a medical examination and find her in good health, with no tendencies toward weakness or disease which should interfere with her pursuit of the course of study and practice in the City Normal School for Teachers or of the vocation of teaching.

Dr. Edson, in his report on the Bridgeport School, recommends—

A thorough physical examination of each candidate should be made by a city physican employed for the purpose. The heart, lungs, blood, urine, hearing, and sight should receive close attention by a competent medical expert.

In some cities, as Newark, the health certificate of any physician must be approved by the supervisor of medical inspection.

Chicago makes the following requirement:

All successful candidates for certificates to teach in the public schools of Chicago or to enter the Chicago Teachers' College shall pass a physical examination. This shall be held to apply to all classes of positions for which teachers' certificates are issued by the board; provided that teachers in the service of the board who hold certificates awarded upon passing a former required physical examination may be awarded other certificates for which they have passed the required academic examination without being required to pass another physical examination. A holder of a valid certificate who is not employed by the board, and who applies for appointment after the lapse of one year from the time of the awarding of the certificate, shall be required to pass a physical examination before being employed. Any teacher absent for more than a year, except a teacher on leave, shall be required to pass a physical examination before being reemployed. As a result of the physical examination each candidate shall be placed in one of two groups, as follows:

Group I includes those applicants who are physically sound or whose physical imperfections are so slight as to have no prejudicial influence on efficiency in school work. Such imperfections, if detected, shall be set forth fully in the examiner's report.

Group II includes those applicants whose physical imperfections may have prejudicial influence on efficiency in school work. Among the physical imperfections which might be or which, if sufficiently pronounced, would be prejudicial, are disorders of the excretory, respiratory, and circulatory systems; chronic tuberculosis; severe protracted dysmenorrhea or other serious pelvic diseases; deformities; chorea and other nervous disorders; defects of sight and hearing.

All applicants falling under group I shall be accepted.

All applicants falling under group II shall be rejected.

There shall be four consulting physicians—two on general medicine and two on the eye, ear, nose, and throat.

If a medical examiner is in doubt whether an applicant should be placed in group I or in group II he may call alternately for consultations one of the regular consulting physicians. The result of this consultation is final. Any applicant who has been assigned to group II by the examining physician may, on application to the superintendent of schools, have a consultation between the examining physician and one of the regularly appointed consulting physicians. The result of this examination is final.

The Baltimore record is fairly simple.

[Baltimore Teachers' Training School.]

Name, _____ Date, _____
Date of Birth. _____ Vaccination, _____ Revaccination, _____
Family History, _____
_____
Personal History, _____
Remarks, _____
_____

_____,
Form 8. *Examining Physician.*

[Reverse.]

Height, _____ Weight, _____ Pulse, _____ Temperature, _____
Eyes, _____ Ears, _____ Nose, _____ Throat, _____
Mouth, _____ Neck, _____ Skin, _____ Teeth, _____
Heart, _____
Lungs, _____ Chest Expansion, _____
Alimentary Tract, _____
Reproductive System, _____
Asymmetry, _____ Head, _____ Thorax, _____

One of the fullest statements required is that of Indianapolis, which is here given:

Date of examination.....19....

STATEMENT OF PHYSICAL HISTORY AND CONDITION OF APPLICANT FOR APPOINTMENT AS TEACHER.

INDIANAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

(By Act of Board of School Commissioners, July 10, 1896.)

A. FULL NAME.		RESIDENCE.
RACE—WHITE OR BLACK.	MARRIED OR SINGLE.	SEX—MALE OR FEMALE.
AGE.	DATE OF BIRTH.	WHERE BORN.

I hereby agree to answer all questions correctly to the best of my knowledge, any willful deceit working as a forfeiture of my position.

.....
Signature of applicant.

.....
Witness—Sup't of Schools.

APPLICANT'S STATEMENT TO MEDICAL EXAMINER.

B. NAME IN FULL.	WHITE OR BLACK.	AGE.
OCCUPATION.	WEIGHT. Lbs. / HEIGHT. Ft. In.	FIGURE.

Have you now or ever had any of the following diseases:

Apoplexy	Disease of heart	Jaundice	Ulcers
Asthma	Disease of liver	Paralysis	Varicose veins
Bronchitis	Piles	Pleurisy	Hemorrhage of lungs
Cancer	Fistula	Pneumonia	Spinal disease
Tumors	Disease of urinary organs	Rheumatism	Constant cough
Consumption	General debility	Hysteria	Yellow fever
Disease of brain	Gout	Neurasthenia	
Disease of lungs	Insanity	Scrofula	

Have you been vaccinated?	Are you ruptured?	If so, is a truss worn?
Are you subject to headache, vertigo, or any nervous or muscular disease?	Do you have epilepsy or fits?	Have you a cough, expectoration, palpitation, or difficult breathing?
Are you subject to dyspepsia, dysentery, or diarrhea?	Are you now under constant care of a physician?	Who is your physician?

What was the last disease you were treated for and how long were you ill? .....

(*Physician*—) Is above history good, fair, or bad? (.....)

C. FAMILY HISTORY.	AGE IF LIVING.	CONDITION OF HEALTH.	AGE AT DEATH.	CAUSE OF DEATH.
Father				
Mother				
Brothers living				
Sisters living				

Do you now sleep or have you ever slept in the same room with one having consumption? .....

Did any of your grandparents, parents, brothers, or sisters ever have consumption or any pulmonary or scrofulous diseases? .....

Have you any kidney disease?	If so, the urine should be tested.
	Specific gravity..... Albumen.....
	Reaction..... Sugar.....

FEMALE.	Is menstruation regular or healthy? If not, state conditions and probable cause ...
	Menopause. (Over it or not).....
	How many children have you had? ..... Date of last confinement.....
	Have you been left in poor health from previous labors? .....

(*Physician*) Are above answers good or bad? (.....)

.....
Signature of applicant.

D. REPORT OF EXAMINING PHYSICIAN.

Is respiratory murmur clear over both lungs	A
Respiration per minute	B
Are there indications of lung disease	C
Is character of heart's action uniform and regular	A
Are its sounds normal	B
Are there any indications of diseased blood vessels	C
Is the pulse regular or irregular	A
State average rate per minute	B
Are there any indications of impaired or diseased vital organs	
Hearing	
Sight	
Girth of chest (Deep expiration)	in.
(Full inspiration)	in.
Girth of abdomen	in.
Have you your average weight	

I have this.....day of....., 19....., examined the above person, and find that the conditions present are such that the applicant's constitution is [1]..... The application should be [2].....

.....
Signature of Medical Examiner.

Appr ved:

....., Sup't. of Schools.

Committee on Manual and Physical Training .....

Remarks: .....

[1] State whether *first-class, unfavorable,* or *bad.* [2] Fill in *accepted, rejected,* or *postponed indefinitely.*

No medical examination at entrance is required in Watertown, Macon, Burlington, Evansville, Schenectady, St. Paul, Charleston, Troy, Elizabeth, Erie, Rochester, and Columbus. The last four report a requirement later in the course. In Elmira the examination is recommended. In several cities the answer to the inquiry is "In case of doubt," "When necessary," etc. In Reading the regular semiannual examination given to all pupils is extended to members of the training school.

The reports available do not show that many candidates are rejected because of the results of the examinations given them. The supply of applicants is not usually sufficiently large to permit of very rigid holding to high standards. The corrective work indicated often fails of accomplishment because of the short school day and the lack of gymnasium equipment. The most common basis of operation is an examination to determine the applicant's condition, either on entering the service, or two years earlier, on entering the training school. In Baltimore the time of the first examination has been pushed down until it is now made at the beginning of the senior year in the high school, so that the student may gain whatever advantage is possible from the advice and requirements made

by the physicians employed by the school board to make the examinations. All the girls are examined by two very able women physicians, and through them special needs are referred to specialists.

In a thoroughly organized system all students would receive this care, but until this is done, it would seem to be economy to give special attention as early in their course as possible to those students who are planning to teach. A school needs for this constructive work a well-equipped gymnasium under a competent director in close relation with the ablest physicians available as examiners and advisers. In the cases studied the correlation between the rating received in the physical examination and high-school and training-school grading is not evident. In Baltimore a summary of several classes showed the proportion to be 2 very good to 12 good, 5 fair and 1 poor.

COURSES OF STUDY.

Nearly all of the students in teachers' training schools are preparing for work as elementary teachers. The only additional course found in any number of schools is that preparing for kindergarten teaching. This course is reported in Akron, Boston, Brooklyn, Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, Newark, New York, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Rochester, Schenectady, St. Louis, Syracuse, Trenton, Troy, and Washington. Courses in the household arts and manual training are given in Washington and Chicago. Chicago has also a deaf-oral class and one for teachers of crippled children. Brooklyn gave in 1912–13 a course for ungraded teachers. (See p. 57.) In Omaha a manual training class is permitted by the rules. In 1908–9, in Dayton, there was a special course for teachers of German. Cleveland announces a regular course for preparing teachers in that department. Washington (colored), in its postgraduate course, and the School of Pedagogy at Philadelphia (male) lay special emphasis upon training for grammar-school classes.

The course for elementary teachers varies in the several institutions, but seldom fails to include about the same range of subjects. It is difficult to attempt a quantitative comparison of the proportion of time assigned to the various subjects, because the labels in some cases are somewhat confusing and work in two schools under different names will be found to be much the same in character. The most complete announcements are published by the schools in Chicago and Cleveland. In these will be found detailed statements of their respective courses of study.

A consideration of the curriculum[1] as a social growth shows, among others, three important factors which may, for convenience, be designated as (1) that of apprenticeship, (2) the cultural, and (3) the experimental. The first of these has to do mainly with the present and the immediate demands made upon the student to prepare himself for definite duties. The cultural work represents the effort to conserve what has proved of value in the past and to assist the youth to make it a part of himself. The experimental aspect is taken here to mean the responsible reconstructing of experience, that side of life which lies open to the future and in which the individual may justly feel that he has some part, even though it be small, in planning, gathering, and selecting materials and determining methods of working. To use a homely figure, in experimental work "the dice are not loaded."

Normal school courses, and especially city training school courses, have been strongly influenced by the apparent necessities of apprenticeship. Much of the cultural material which has been used has been smuggled in by teachers of history, English, and other method subjects.

The apprenticeship basis has been the chief difficulty in securing recognition for the school with reference to its relation to higher institutions. The present discussion of vocational education ought to help in making advance in this problem. The apprenticeship needs are very real. They exist in all branches of education, but in some departments they have been more definitely placed than they have been in teaching. We need a careful investigation of minimum necessities, and on this foundation a frank recognition of the importance of apprenticeship. It is evident from a study of the courses of study given below that it is possible to do fairly good training in several quite different courses. Since this is true, there must be a number of possible eliminations and substitutions which could be made the basis for a much more valuable course than any of those commonly used.

Apprenticeship represents the important principle of early specialization, without which the individual would be unable to continue existence, but which, carried too far, leads to certain recognized evils. The complementary principle of the prolongation of the period of growth depends on the opportunities provided for cultural and experimental work. There is not room here to discuss the needs and possibilities in this curriculum of cultural materials. The elective system and many other departures in the so-called new education, with all the abuses which they have suffered, are indications of the struggle on the part of the experimental or, one may well say, the democratic

[1] See statement of Baltimore course, pp 38–48.

tendency. Apprenticeship and culture represent a necessary work, the adaptation of the individual to an existing environment. Experiment is required in order that he may learn to adapt himself to a changing environment and that he may have a share, however small, in making changes in his environment.

Education, from this standpoint, is a cooperative growth in experience, affording to the individual resources of self, society, and nature, and enabling him to participate in the progress brought about by the interaction of these factors.

In the courses printed in the following pages the material generally falls into four groups: (1) Education, including logic and psychology; (2) the common school subjects; (3) the school arts, as penmanship, music, etc.; (4) observation and practice teaching. It is very difficult to express quantitatively the proportion of time allotted to these, as there is much overlapping; but from the reports available it is perhaps safe to say that nearly an equal amount of time is given to groups 1 and 4. Somewhat less time is assigned to the school arts than to either of these groups, while the common school subjects receive from 50 to 100 per cent more time than do education or practice.

There is a great difference in the work done in the various schools under the same labels. Thus hygiene in some schools belongs almost entirely in the common school subject group. In other schools it involves a large amount of new subject matter, while in such a course as that given in Baltimore there is much of the experimental, including the hygiene of civic and social life as well as definite laboratory work in assigned responsibilities in the housekeeping of the training school.

An important phase of apprenticeship which has as yet received too little attention is in training to use graphs and other mathematical tools which render simpler and more adequate important aspects of classroom work.

The most academic of the courses given is probably that of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy. The planning of a course for men only naturally leads to a greater emphasis upon collegiate subjects. The latest requirements of this school, however, give greater recognition to certain apprenticeship necessities than were formerly provided.

The term "psychology" covers a variety of courses, from some that are very narrowly utilitarian to others as abstract as the situations will allow. One fortunate result of one philosophical title in the training-school curriculum has been that it has been made the cover in some cases for a considerable amount of cultural and experimental training of a philosophical kind. In certain directions young people

need much of this material during the time when they are concerned with reconstructing their scheme of life, and with formulating more or less consciously a system which will serve as a relating background for the various confusions and perplexities which they meet. The French tried to meet this by crowding the cyclopedia of philosophy into the last year of the lycée. A frank recognition of this need and an effort to meet it on a common-sense basis would mark a great advance in the training school curriculum.

No attempt is made to criticize or evaluate the various courses which have been selected for publication here. It has seemed best to present them as given, in order that those who are interested may have a range of material for study and comparison.

Outlines of courses have been received from the schools in Atlanta, Columbus, Davenport, Elizabeth, Elmira, Erie, Evansville, Fort Wayne, Harrisburg, Schenectady, St. Paul, Yonkers, and Youngstown.

The most definitely standardized State course is that of New York. The outlines for New York City and Rochester will indicate the requirements of those cities based on the State standard. Further selections have been made of Boston, Bridgeport, the School of Pedagogy in Philadelphia, Baltimore, Reading, Trenton, Washington (colored), Cleveland, Toledo, Indianapolis, Chicago, St. Paul, Macon, and Birmingham.

In some cases, as Chicago and Cleveland, the detailed statement of courses is omitted, because these schools publish announcements which render the material available to those who send for it.

There seems to be a tendency to combine kindergarten and primary training. Especial mention of this arrangement is made in reports from Trenton, Rochester, and Birmingham. In St. Louis there was a surplus of kindergartners on the waiting list, and it was decided to admit no further classes into the kindergarten normal course. This has been a separate institution, but when kindergarten training is resumed it will become a department of the Teachers College.

In Cincinnati the College for Teachers cooperates with the Kindergarten Training School in preparing for positions in the city. Psychology and the history and principles of education are given by the college faculty. A home-economics course is given jointly by the Kindergarten Training School and the College for Teachers. Cooperation has also been established with the art academy in the training of art teachers. In 1911 there were 34 kindergarten graduates; 12 normal art, and 41 household art. The number of elementary graduates in the College for Teachers was 33.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

COURSE OF STUDY FOR TRAINING TEACHERS.

Minimum course.—This course is designated as a minimum to meet the requirements of the laws of 1895, chapter 1031, and at least 500 hours must be devoted to its completion.

(*a*) *Subjects and suggestive time allowance.*—The number of hours to be devoted to each subject shall be determined by the local school authorities. The number of hours placed opposite the several subjects is to be regarded as suggestive only, and as indicative of their relative value.

(*b*) *Subjects and periods of 60 minutes each:*

	Periods.
Psychology and principles of education	80
History of education	60
School management	20
Methods in mathematics	50
Methods in elementary science, nature study—plants, animals, minerals—and physiology and hygiene	40
Methods in reading, spelling and phonics, and literature for children	50
Methods in language, composition, and grammar	50
Methods in geography	30
Methods in drawing	30
Methods in history and civics	30
Physical culture, with methods	30
Methods in music	30

(*c*) *Observation and practice teaching.*—At least 50 hours shall be spent by each member of the training school in observation, and at least 50 hours in practice teaching.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, CITY OF NEW YORK.

COURSES OF STUDY FOR TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS.

First Year—First Term.

	Periods.
Logic: Science and art of thinking	4
English: Reading, spelling, phonics, voice training	4
Science: Nature study	5
Art: Drawing and constructive work	3
Penmanship and blackboard writing	2
Sewing	2
Physical culture	2
Singing	2
	24

COURSES OF STUDY FOR TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS—continued.

First Year—Second Term.

	Periods.
Psychology	5
English: Language, composition, and grammar	4
Mathematics: Arithmetic, elementary geometry, and algebra	4
Geography	3
Art: Drawing and constructive work	3
Sewing	1
Physical culture	2
Singing	2
	24

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, CITY OF NEW YORK—Continued.

COURSES OF STUDY FOR TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS—continued.

Second Year—First Term.

	Periods.
Principles and history of education	5
English: Composition, teaching of literature, children's literature, story-telling	3
History and civics	4
Science: Method of teaching elementary science	2
Mathematics: Methods	2
School management	2
Art: Drawing, constructive work, blackboard sketching	2
Physical culture	2
Singing	2
	24

Second Year—Second Term.

Practice teaching as substitutes.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

1. The time devoted to physical training, two periods per week, may be distributed throughout the week at the discretion of the principal.

2. Not less than 60 minutes per week during the first, second, and third terms shall be devoted to the observation of work in the model school.

3. Part of the time set apart for the study of methods of teaching a branch of study may be devoted to giving lessons in that branch to a group of pupils selected from the model school.

KINDERGARTEN COURSE FOR TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS.[1]

First Year—First Term.

(Same as in regular course.)

	Periods.
Logic: Science and art of thinking	4
English: Reading, spelling, phonics, voice training	4
Science: Nature study	5
Art: Drawing and constructive work	3
Penmanship and blackboard writing	2
Sewing	2
Physical culture	2
Singing	2
Observation	1
	25

First Year—Second Term.

	Periods.
Psychology and principles of education	5
English: Voice training, composition, including story-telling	3
Nature study	3
Drawing	2
Music: Songs and games	3
Mother play	1
Physical culture	2
Gifts and occupations	5
Observation	1
	25

Second Year—First Term.

	Periods.
History of education	3
Principles of education with special reference to the kindergarten	3
English: Voice training, children's literature, composition, including story-telling	3
Nature study	2
Drawing	2
Physical culture	2
Music: Songs and games	3
Gifts and occupations	3
Program: Kindergarten procedure	3
Observation	1
	25

Second Year—Second Term.

Practice teaching as substitutes.

[1] Length of course, 2 years.

Boston Normal School.

(Figures indicate number of periods per week.)

JUNIOR YEAR.

First Term—12 weeks.

	Periods.
Oral reading (including phonics) 8 weeks; story-telling, 4 weeks	3
Spelling	1
Arithmetic	3
Geography	3
Penmanship	1
Physiology and hygiene	2
Drawing and manual training	2
Elementary science	1
Educational psychology	2
Music	2
Choral practice	1
Gymnasium work	2
Observation in model school	1
Morals and manners	1

Second Term—12 weeks.

	Periods.
Grammar (10 weeks); methods (2 weeks)	4
Arithmetic	3
Geography	3
Blackboard penmanship	1
Physiology and hygiene	2
Drawing and manual training	2
Educational psychology	2
Music	2
Choral practice	1
Gymnasium work	2
Observation in model school	2
Morals and manners	1

Third Term—12 weeks.

	Periods.
Literature (10 weeks); methods (2 weeks)	3
Composition	2
Arithmetic	3
Geography	3
Physiology and hygiene	2
Drawing and manual training	2
Elementary science	1
Educational psychology	1
Music	2

JUNIOR YEAR—continued.

	Periods.
Choral practice	1
Gymnasium work	2
Observation in model school	2
Morals and manners	1

SENIOR YEAR.

One Term—12 weeks.

	Periods.
Literature	1
Composition	2
Constructive geometry	2
Geography methods	1
U. S. history	3
Theory of physical training	2
Drawing and manual training	2
Elementary science	2
History of education	2
Kindergarten principles	2
Principles of education	2
Choral practice	1
Gymnasium work	2

One Term—12 weeks.

	Periods.
Methods in English	3
Methods in arithmetic	2
Methods in geography	1
U. S. history and methods	3
School hygiene	2
Drawing and manual training	2
Elementary science and methods	2
History of education	2
Principles of education	2
School administration	2
Choral practice	1
Gymnasium work	2

One Term—12 weeks.

Observing and teaching in public schools—4½ days per week.

Substitute and evening school service—1 period per week (Friday afternoons).

Conferences—1 or 2 periods per week (Friday afternoons).

BRIDGEPORT COURSE OF STUDY.[1]

Studies.	40-minute periods.	Hours.
English	200	133
Geography	120	80
Arithmetic	90	60
Principles of teaching	90	60
General method	95	64
History of education	45	30
Psychology	70	47
Nature study	50	34
Music	62	41
Drawing	62	41
Writing	62	41
Physical training	62	41
Common school subjects	1,008	672
Education and psychology	460	307
School arts	300	201
	248	164

[1] Practice teaching not included in estimate.

ROCHESTER (N. Y.) PLAN OF COURSES BY SEMESTERS.

(Number of periods per week indicated by figures.)

NORMAL.

First year:		Second year.	
First semester.	Second semester.	First semester.	Second semester.
Psychology..... 5	History of education. 4	Language method ... 3	Teaching in the grades.
[illegible] method..... 2	Reading method..... 2	Nature study..... 5	
School management... 2	Arithmetic method... 3	Geography method.. 4	
Kindergarten method.. 3	Physical training..... 3	Manual training and sewing..... 5	
Physical training..... 3	Drawing..... 5	Physical training..... 3	
Drawing..... 5	Music..... 2	Music..... 2	Music..... 1
Music..... 2	Observation..... 2	Observation..... 2	
Manual training.			

KINDERGARTEN.

Psychology..... 5	History of education.. 4	Teaching in the kindergarten and primary grades, kindergarten method.. 3	Teaching in kindergarten.
History method..... 2	Primary methods.... 2		
School management... 2	Nature study..... 4		
Kindergarten method.. 3	Kindergarten method 4		
Physical training..... 3	Physical training..... 3		
Drawing..... 3	Drawing..... 2		
Music..... 2	Music..... 2		Kindergarten method. 2
Manual training.	Observation..... 2	Music..... 1	Music..... 1

PRIMARY AND KINDERGARTEN.

Psychology..... 5	History of education.. 4	Morning spent in teaching in kindergarten.	Morning spent in teaching grades.
History method..... 2	Reading method..... 2		
Kindergarten method.. 3	Arithmetic method... 4		
Physical training..... 3	Physical training..... 3		
Drawing..... 2	Drawing..... 2		
Music..... 2	Music..... 1		
Manual training..... 5	Kindergarten method 4	Geography..... 3	
Penmanship..... 2	Nature study..... 4	Kindergarten method 3	Language method..... 3

SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, PHILADELPHIA, 1911–12.

FIRST YEAR.

I. Technical Courses.

History of Education.—First or second term: Oriental, Greek, Roman, and mediæval education, and the educational movement in Europe since the Renaissance. Outlines of educational theory in the nineteenth century. Three hours.

General Pedagogy.—First or second term: Two hours.

Special Pedagogy.—Principles and methods of instruction in elementary schools: Two hours.

School Law.—First term: One hour.

School Administration.—Second term: One hour.

II. Scholastic Courses.

Required.

Psychology.—First or second term: General introductory course: Three hours.

Logic.—First or second term: Two hours.

Geography.—First term: One hour lecture. Two hours laboratory. One hour recitation.

Physiology.—Second term: One hour lecture. Two hours laboratory. One hour recitation.

Government.—First term: American Government. Second term: Municipal government. Three hours.

English Composition.—First term: A theory of English usage. Second term: Exposition and argumentation. Two hours and a conference.

Drawing.—Drawing and modeling. Two hours.

Music.—Vocal music. One hour.

Physical training.—First term: One hour. Second term: One hour.

Penmanship.—First or second term: One hour.

Electives.

Mathematics.—First term: Advanced algebra. Second term: Plane analytical geometry. Three hours.

History.—First term: English economic history. Second term: American economic history. Three hours.

English Literature.—First term: The drama before Shakespeare. Second term: Six comedies of Shakespeare. Three hours.

Optional Electives.—Senior advanced courses in Greek, Latin, German, or French. Beginners' course in Latin. Two hours. (Omitted in 1912–13.)

SECOND YEAR.

I. Technical Courses.

Comparative Pedagogy.—First or second term: Two hours.

Special Pedagogy.—Principles and methods, practice-teaching and observation work. Lectures. One hour. Teaching in the school of practice. Five hours. Conferences. Two hours. Systematic observations in elementary schools. Special assignments.

II. Scholastic Courses.

Required.

Social Science.—First or second term: Sociology and ethics. Two hours.
Educational Psychology.—First or second term: Child study. Two hours.
Philosophy.—First or second term: History of modern philosophy. Two hours.
Drawing.—One hour.
Music.—Vocal music. One hour.

Electives.

Mathematics.—First and second term: Analytical geometry and calculus. Three hours.
General Biology.—One hour lecture; two hours laboratory.
Advanced Physiology.—One hour lecture; two hours laboratory.
Botany.—One hour lecture; two hours laboratory.
Advanced Geography.—Three hours.
Economics.—First term: Economic theory. Second term: American economic problems. Three hours.
Political Science.—First term: Municipal government. Second term: American political theory. Three hours.
English Composition.—First term: The narrative. Second term: Description and versification. Two hours and a conference.
English Literature.—Special aspects of nineteenth century literature. Three hours.
Teachers' Playground Course.—Second term: Theory and practice. Three periods weekly.

BALTIMORE, TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL.

COURSE OF STUDY.

"It is intended that the first semester should be primarily cultural.[1] The student is not ready to take the attitude of a teacher. The first attack upon work in a new division of the school involves, however, many problems of apprenticeship and is especially favorable for developing a more experimental and liberal attitude.

At the beginning of the second semester all members of the corps cooperate in assisting the student to organize material from the standpoint of the learner's needs. The second and third semesters have their major emphasis upon apprenticeship.

There seems to be good reason to prefer that practice teaching be done during the third semester. When this is not possible, the course outlined requires readjustment to its advantage.

In the fourth semester the minors of culture and apprenticeship are of great importance, but it is desired that the chief interest should lie in the responsibility of the student for her own health, habits of work, knowledge of conditions and standards, and attitude toward life.

A convenient grouping of the courses is under the following heads: I. General courses—Assemblies, etc. II. Education and hygiene. III. Participation and practice. IV. Elementary-school subjects. V. School arts.

[1] See p. 30.

Division II. Education and Hygiene.

Education 101. First term—Junior year.

A Study of the Interests, Activities, and Occupations of Children and Older Students.

A beginning is made in some observation and introspection on the part of the student with reference to his own methods of studying, taking notes, reciting, etc.

The characteristics and needs of children at various stages of development are studied, as well as the means used to meet these needs. This involves a consideration of the home and of such institutions as the day nursery, the kindergarten, the Montessori school, and the elementary school.

It is desired that the student shall become intimately acquainted with children as individuals and in groups, but shall have toward them other relations than those of the teacher.

Past and present attitudes toward such matters as instinct, habit, study, play, punishment, discipline, etc., are discussed.

Acquaintance is made with journals, texts, and reference books, and with the use of graphs and other means of comprehending and stating the material of most significance at this stage.

Assignment is made of problems in child life, school records, the use of graphs, etc., which can be worked out with advantage during the student's second term's work in the classroom.

Textbooks:

Betts—The Recitation.
Colvin and Bagley—Human Behavior.
Kirkpatrick—Individual in the Making; Fundamentals of Child Study.
McMurry—How to Study.

Reference books:

Burnett—The One I Know Best of All, etc.
Colvin—The Learning Process.
Dewey—School and Society.
Hall—Adolescence.
Johnson—Education by Plays and Games.
Montessori—Montessori Method.
Rowe—The Physical Nature of Child.
Shinn—Biography of a Baby.
Tanner—The Child.
Vandewalker—Kindergarten in the United States.
Wiggins—Children's Rights.

Education 102. Second term—Junior year.

An Introduction to the Study of Psychology.

Definitions, divisions, methods, and field of psychology are presented. A study of the function of consciousness is made; also of its aspects and processes, including structure, the divisions of the nervous system, and of the neuron with the function of its parts.

Stress is laid upon the study of such topics as attention and interest; instinct, and habit in relation to consciousness; and upon the processes of sensation, perception, memory, and constructive imagination; also upon the definition,

description, characteristics, function, laws, and training of the various activities.

Textbooks:

Colvin and Bagley—Human Behavior.
Pillsbury—Essentials of Psychology.

Reference books:

Angell—Psychology.
Dewey—Psychology.
Hall—Founders of Modern Psychology.
James—Psychology.
Münsterberg—Psychology and the Teacher.

Education 103. Third term—Junior year.

Life in the School.

During the third term the point of view of the teacher is emphasized and the problems studied center in the school. The meaning, motive, and function of education, the curriculum in the broader and narrower senses of the term, and the methods used in learning and teaching are the most important topics.

A study is made of the types of lessons and plan making, with especial stress upon the psychological organization of subject matter, presentation, and motivation of the lesson and the types and form of questions.

In school administration the most immediate needs are discussed, as the organization and control of subject matter, class habits and ideals, and physical conditions.

During this term there is an especial effort to coordinate all the work on plan making in the several departments in order that each instructor may make use of what others are doing and that the net results may be most readily serviceable during the student's fourth term of preparation for senior practice teaching.

Textbooks:

Colvin.
Strayer—Brief Course in Teaching Process.

Reference books:

Bagley—The Educative Process.
Charters—Method of Teaching.
Hall—Aspects of Child Life and Education.
Miller—Psychology of Thinking.
Thorndike—Principles of Teaching; Education.

Education 104. Fourth term—Junior year.

Experiments in Psychology.

By the end of the third term the student is able to use the material in the works on psychology and child study with some degree of economy. Study is made of types of imagery and variation in reaction time. Assistance is given in the understanding and use of some of the tests for measuring penmanship, the Courtis tests in arithmetic and English, etc. It is not expected that students can become proficient in the work in so brief a course, but it is desired to help them to follow intelligently experiments that are carried on and to read with appreciation such journals as the Journal of Educational Psychology, the Psychological Clinic, etc.

Reference books:

Courtis Tests—Common Test.
Seashore—Elementary Experiments in Psychology.
Rusk—Introduction to Experimental Psychology.
Starch—Experiments in Educational Psychology.
Stone—Arithmetical Abilities.
Titchener—Primer of Psychology.

Education 105. Fifth or seventh term—Senior year.

Principles of Teaching.

A further study of plans, especially inductive and deductive analogy; motivation, with stress upon initiative on part of the student; presentation and use of subject matter as a means rather than as an end; and the art of questioning leading to greatest individual initiative.

In school administration are presented various phases of school relations and obligations; divisions of class which afford the best possibilities for individual development; some study of standards; new tendencies and requirements in public schools.

Textbooks: Strayer—Brief Course in the Teaching Process.
Reference books:

Bolton—Principles of Teaching.
Charters—Methods of Teaching.
Dutton—School Management.
King—Education for Social Efficiency.
Betts—Social Principles of Education.
Rowe—Habit Formation.
Spencer—Education.

Education 106. Sixth or eighth term—Senior year.

The Reconstruction of Experience.

This course is best given in the last term of the second year. When it is taken in the sixth term some modifications are necessary.

It is intended that the student be given assistance in rounding up and coordinating the meaning of the various courses and other experiences of the two years, and in formulating an attitude toward some of the more important school and other social problems. The work done is chiefly in psychology, but much emphasis is laid upon ethical considerations. A study is made of the relations of mental processes and fatigue; the will as related to other forms of doing; the significance of interest and emotion; various theories of emotion; reasoning in its use of judgment, conception, and other process; the self and the development of character. Some attention is given to the outlook on life of various educators of the past and present.

Textbooks: Pillsbury.
Reference books:

Dewey and Tufts—Ethics.
Dewey—Interest as Related to the Will—Moral Principles Underlying Education; How we Think.
Hyde—The Teacher's Philosophy.
Palmer—The Teacher.

Outlines and Plans.

Each class teacher is expected to give instruction in the making of representative plans for both primary and higher grades. One plan made by a student for each of the large divisions of the course of study is to be filed by the teacher with the principal during the third term. Early in the fourth term students will present plans made, together with other evidence of fitness for undertaking practice teaching, to the teacher of practice to whose classes they have been assigned.

During the fourth term each teacher of practice will file with the principal one representative plan. Further work will be done in the various subjects, so that by the end of the junior year students will be able to make economically plans needed in their teaching.

Especial attention should be given in the plan making of the second semester to the necessity of planning for real situations involving real children. The participation work of the year should be made to contribute to this end.

Education 111, 112, 113, 114. Principal's conferences—Junior year.

These conferences vary according to the needs of the various sections.

The object is to afford regular opportunities for all students to confer upon questions, problems, and difficulties, and to attempt to determine the relationships of the several departments. A study is made by each student of one local social institution and of a similar institution located outside of the State.

The conferences are conducted with especial reference to preparation for participating in teachers' meetings and experience is gained in locating and using material of value in such meetings as the reports of the United States Bureau of Education, city and State school systems, educational organizations as the National Education Association, book reviews, the Cyclopedia of Education, etc.

Some time is given to stating cases which present concretely problems in school etiquette and school ethics.

Much attention is given to educational and other periodicals, especially the Survey.

Education 115, 116, 117, 118. Principal's conferences—Senior year.

The conferences during the semester of practice teaching are largely individual. During the other half of the year the work follows the general plan of the earlier courses.

King's Social Aspects of Education is used as a textbook, and there is much reading in the works of authors who emphasize the social responsibilities of education. Each student selects some field in which he can be of special service to the entire class.

Education 123. Fourth term—Junior year.

History of Education.

During the first and second terms in all departments, but especially in education and history and in the work of the teacher of the history of education, there is a constant presentation and discussion of educational problems with reference to their historical background.

At the opening of the third term this material is coordinated and organized so that the student has some idea of the present-day situation in school matters

and the developments of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries most closely related to the present.

Following this work is a study of primitive education and of the systems of Asiatic countries, Greece, Rome, and the medieval period.

Education 125. Fifth or seventh terms—Senior year.

On the basis of what has been done in the junior year, a systematic study is undertaken of the place the school and other educational institutions has had in history, with especial reference to the period since the Renaissance. Much time is given to the study of the writings of the great educators and to the social and economic conditions out of which the various subjects of the curriculum have arisen.

Hygiene 101. First term—Junior year.

The work of this term has two main objects: (1) To aid the students to an understanding of some of the more important problems of personal hygiene as indicated by the reports upon the examinations made upon them by the examining physicians; (2) to introduce them to the book and journal material on school hygiene.

Much of the housekeeping in the school, including the boiling of water and the preparation of a simple noonday luncheon, is cared for by the students as a part of the work in hygiene.

Hygiene 102. Second term—Junior year.

The time spent by students during this term in close relations with children in the schoolroom is used in the hygiene periods to organize some standard reference material for present and future use in elevating and bettering conditions in schools. Acquaintance is made with the work of the janitor, the school physician and nurse, the district nurses, the health department, and other agencies of importance in the control of health conditions.

Hygiene 103. Third term—Junior year.

The emphasis in all departments this term upon the work of the teacher in instruction and other school work leads to cooperation with the teacher of physical training in the preparation of plans for exercises in the classroom, the gymnasium, the playground, and the home.

Hygiene 104. Fourth term—Junior year.

The experiments in psychology made at this time in fatigue and related fields are made use of. Before the end of the year each student works out a schedule of 168 hours for a child and for a teacher.

The work of such organizations as the Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls is referred to and a brief course given in first aid to the injured.

Hygiene 105 and 106. Fifth and sixth or seventh and eighth terms—Senior year.

The work of the junior year is gone over in the light of later experience during the vacation and in teaching. The material collected is organized into a handbook, which the teacher can have at her desk for reference in the ordinary course and in the emergencies of her work.

Division III. Participation and Practice.

Participation 101. First term—Junior year.

Term I. Introduction to a Study of the School.

Observation periods, excursions, conferences, and reports. Observation trips to high schools, kindergarten, and grade classes; trips to special institutions within and without the school, such as the dental clinic, dispensary, parental school, city hall, courthouse, customhouse, etc.

Participation 102. Second term—Junior year.

The Study of a Neighborhood—Community and its School.

The members of the junior class are assigned in groups of 6 to 10 for intimate work under the direction of the teachers of practice. Suggestive studies are made of the resources of the neighborhood in nature, art, recreation, industry, home life, civic institutions, etc.

Acquaintance is gained with special features of the particular schools, as cooperation with parents' organizations and the municipal art league, civic centers, equipment for playgrounds, automatic fire extinguishers, vacuum cleaning apparatus, etc. Diagrams drawn of the locality, the school grounds, building, classroom, etc. Computations made of the play space, air space, and light available as compared with determined standards.

Participation 103. Third term—Junior year.

The Curriculum as a Social Growth.

The aim of this course is to coordinate the work done in all departments during the first half year and to assist the students to organize the larger movements of the elementary course of study to serve as a background for the plan-making which is emphasized by all teachers at this time.

Participation 104. Fourth term—Junior year.

Preparation for Senior Practice Teaching.

The assignment in groups for Term II is made, as far as possible, to home neighborhoods in order to give the students the opportunity to work in fields with which they have at the start some acquaintance.

Participation 105, 106. First and second terms—Senior year (for some students third and fourth terms).

Special Teaching Problems.

During the half year of teaching some time is spent by students individually and in small groups in the study of educational situations which will lead to more thoughtful consideration of their immediate problems in wider relationships. Visits are made to classes in practice salesmanship under criticism in store schools, to the classes of expert teachers in private and public schools, to college classes working in subject matter of especial significance to the student, etc.

Participation 107, 108. Third and fourth terms—Senior year (for some students first and second terms).

Students are helped to round up what knowledge they have gained of the city school system, and to determine what studies and visits are needed to supplement this and to make it more effective.

Practice teaching 111, 112. First and second terms—Senior year (third and fourth terms for some students).

One semester of the senior year is spent in residence in the elementary school. Regular conferences are held both within and without school hours, in which there are discussions of problems centering in the teaching, but involving observation, study, investigation, and conference with various persons.

Before completing the course a student must demonstrate her ability to meet practically the various situations arising in a classroom and for some period of time to conduct the work of a class independently.

Division IV. Elementary School Subjects.

COURSES IN ENGLISH.

English 101. First term—Junior year.

The first problem of instructor and students in the English course is to determine the working possibilities and actual achievement of the various students in composition, reading, note taking, outlining, reading aloud, public speaking, reciting, spelling, penmanship, etc. To accomplish this end, class and individual conferences and tests are used, and a record is made of the results in such form that all parties concerned may have the advantage of knowledge of individual differences.

On the basis of these studies the students are classified into working groups, according to their ability to act independently and their need of instruction and assistance.

Early in the course a few periods are taken to gain acquaintance with the resources and the organization of the school library.

English 102. Second term—Junior year.

The two main objects of the work of this term are to develop a common-sense view of the use of "Everyday English" and to gain an acquaintance with the English course of study in the elementary schools of Baltimore. Some attention is paid to the courses given in other city systems, and further use is made of the organization of the first term, especially as it concerned elementary and secondary studies.

English 103. Third term—Junior year.

The work of this term is necessarily more definitely specialized and stresses apprenticeship. Much time is given to the transfer from outlines of subject matter to the statement of subject matter. Lesson plans are worked out for both primary and grammar grade classes.

English 104. Fourth term—Junior year.

During the second and third terms the students have had some contact with a large number of elementary textbooks. In the fourth term some classification of the various types of readers, language books, etc., is undertaken. Reviews and comparisons of books are written from the standpoint of the teacher, who is called upon to make recommendation of new texts.

Reading lists are made for children of various ages and interests; also for adults. The public and other libraries are studied from the standpoint of the needs which they recognize and attempt to meet.

English 105. First or third term—Senior year.

The books on the teaching of English used during the junior year are gone through more systematically, in order that each student may have an organized body of principles of English teaching derived from his experience in the subject and closely related to it. He must prove that he is able to find and use the reference, periodical, and text material of the department.

Much time is given to the courses of study used in other schools.

English 106. Second or fourth term—Senior year.

In the last term the emphasis is upon the individual and his future work in English. Whatever acquaintance the student has with other languages and with Anglo-Saxon, and especially middle English, is used to aid him to regard language as a changing, growing tool of communication.

Some time is given to the announcements of English courses in normal schools and in universities, and special study is made of the possibilities open to these students for further growth by the use of libraries, clubs, extension classes, etc.

COURSES IN HISTORY.

History 101. First term—Junior year.

As in the other departments much time is given during the first term to determining the status of individual students in history. A record is made of the work that each student has done and also of his command of background essentials.

A beginning is made in local studies centering in Baltimore and Maryland. A special syllabus is provided for this work in local history and geography. Expeditions are made in connection with the course in participation.

History 102. Second term—Junior year.

The work of this term includes a continuation of local studies and an investigation of the Baltimore course of study in history for elementary schools. History is considered as the center of humanistic studies and as a subject requiring acquaintance with simple and fundamental occupations and activities as well as with the more highly developed aspects such as politics, art, and religion.

History 103 and 104. Third and fourth terms—Junior year.

During this term the student is expected to reach the point where he can think through and state the local course of study in history in its various as-

pects as America, Europe, industry, art, religion, war, education, the home, child life, woman, etc.

In the plan making the aim is to show the necessity of extensive background knowledge which the particular plan in a sense indexes and adapts to the needs of a particular group of children known to some extent to the student. These plans are concerned as well with simple social situations as with more complex historical material.

During the fourth term the student's control of social material is further tested by his experience in participation work in the grade assigned.

History 105. First or third term—Senior year.

Mace's Method in History is used as a central text in assisting the student to organize a system of principles of history teaching. A number of courses of study in history are criticized and comparisons are made with reference to the proportionate amount of time given in various school systems and the divisions of history which receive the most consideration.

History 106. Second or fourth term—Senior year.

An attempt is made in this closing term to discuss history in its relation to the individual's needs and development. In a very limited sense the work has to do with those problems which will require further study in ethics, sociology, and economics.

Mathematics 101. First term—Junior year.

The object of this term's work is to determine the status of the individual students in their use and control of arithmetical processes and methods. Tests are given to find out proficiency and special needs. Each student makes a record of the results of this diagnosis and of the requirements which must be met in order to do efficient work.

Some time is spent upon the special mathematics required in ordinary adult life and especially in the home and school, as the keeping of personal accounts, the use of graphs, the mathematical knowledge and practice needed to use weather records and other information commonly found in newspapers, magazine articles, institutional reports, almanacs, etc.

A brief but comprehensive survey is made of the mathematics courses given in the various secondary schools.

Mathematics 102. Second term—Junior year.

The place of mathematics in the lives of children and those adults who do not reach the higher mathematical studies is discussed. The elementary course of study is gone through in order to determine what mathematical facts and processes are needed in the various grades.

The major stress is upon determining and improving the habits and methods of students in the fundamental operations and processes of arithmetic.

Mathematics 103. Third term—Junior year.

The child's need of mathematics at various stages of development and the best method of assisting him to the control of its processes is the object of this term's work.

Mathematics 104. One term—Senior year.

Further acquaintance is made with the present status of testing mathematical work by means of Stone's Arithmetical Abilities, the Courtis Tests, etc. The most economical methods of keeping school records, tabulating results of tests, marking papers, the use of medians and averages, etc., are considered.

Baltimore Teachers' Training School course of study.

Subjects.	Junior.	Senior.	Total.
	Credits.	*Credits.*	*Credits.*
Education	20	11	31
Child study and psychology			12
Principles of teaching			6
History of education			7
Principal's conferences and social education			6
Hygiene	4	2	6
Participation and practice	6	43	49
Participation			9
Practice			40
Arithmetic	8	3	11
English	12	6	18
Geography	6	3	9
History	6	3	9
Nature study	4	2	6
Art	4	2	6
Manual and household arts	2	1	3
Music	4	2	6
Physical training	4	2	6
Total	80	80	160

NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, READING, PA.

JUNIOR.

A.	Periods a week.
Ethics	2
Child literature	4
Psychology	4
English grammar	2
Nature study	2
General principles of method	2
Arithmetic, review	4
Music	1
Drawing	1
Penmanship	1
Physical culture	1
Manual training	1
	25

B.	Periods a week.
Child literature and English	4
Child study	2
Principles of school management	2
Nature study	2
History of education	4
Geography with special method	2
U. S. history with special method	2
Music	1
Drawing	1
Penmanship	1
Physical culture	1
Manual training	1
	25

Normal Training School for Girls, Reading, Pa.—Continued.

SENIOR.

A.	Periods a week.
Rhetoric and English composition	1
Zoology	2
Observation	8
Practice	4
Critique	2
Special problems in management	1
Special methods in principles, reading, and language	1
Special method in arithmetic	1
Music	1
Drawing	1
Penmanship	1
Physical culture	1
Manual training	1
	25

B.	Periods a week.
Rhetoric and English composition	1
Botany	2
Observation	3
Practice	8
Critique	1
Special problems in management	1
Special method in primary reading, language, and number	1
Special method in arithmetic and mensuration	2
Professional reading and book review	1
Music	1
Drawing	1
Penmanship	1
Physical culture	1
Manual training	1
	25

Carroll Robbins Training School, Trenton, N. J.

Regular course.

FIRST YEAR.

First term. Subjects.	Recitations.	Outside study.	Second term. Subjects.	Recitations.	Outside study.
	Hours per week.	*Hours per week.*		*Hours per week.*	*Hours per week.*
Logic	1½	3	Psychology	3½	3
English	3½	1½	English	2	1½
Science	2	2	Reading	1½	2
Primary methods	3½	2½	Science	2½	2
Drawing	1	1	Methods in geography	1½	2½
Music	1		Music	1	
General geography	2	2½	Drawing	1½	½
Penmanship	1½	1	Methods in mathematics	2	2
Physical training	1	½	Manual arts	1	1½
Manual arts	1	1½	Observation and teaching	5½	3–5
Reading and voice training	1½	2	Critic class	½	
Games	1½	1			
Total	20½	18½	Total	22½	18–20

SECOND YEAR.

Child study	3½	3	Philosophy of education	2½	3
Clinic	½		Professional reading	½	
English	3½	1½	Methods in history	3½	3
History of education	2½	3	Music	1½	
General history	2½	3	Educational sociology (10 weeks)	3½	2
Drawing	1	½	School management and school law (10 weeks)	3½	2
Music	1		Drawing	1½	1½
Domestic art	1	1½	Methods in mathematics	2	1½
Physical training	1	½	Games	2	1
Observation and teaching	5½	5–7	Observation and teaching	6	5–7
Critic class	½		Critic class	½	
			Clinic	½	
Total	22½	18–20	Total	23½	18–20

CARROLL ROBBINS TRAINING SCHOOL, TRENTON, N. J.—Continued.

Kindergarten.

FIRST YEAR.

First term.			Second term.		
Subjects.	Recitations.	Outside study.	Subjects.	Recitations.	Outside study.
(*Same as regular course, given above.*)			Psychology	3½	3
			English	2	1½
			Science	2½	2
			Methods in geography (10 weeks)	1½	2½
			Music	1	
			Drawing	1½	½
			Methods in mathematics	2	2
			Manual arts	1	1½
			Manual work (kindergarten) (10 weeks)	1½	
			Gifts and occupations	3½	2
			Observation and teaching	2½	3
			Critic class	½	
			Total	22½	18

SECOND YEAR.

Child study	3½	3	Philosophy of education	2½	3
Clinic	½		Professional reading	½	
English	3½	1½	Educational sociology (10 weeks)	3½	2
History of education	2½	3	School management and school law (10 weeks)	3½	2
Drawing	1	½	Drawing	1½	1½
Music	1		Clinic	½	
Domestic art	1	1½	Mother play and kindergarten program	3½	2½
Physical training	1	½	Games	2	1
Gifts and occupations	1½		Observation and teaching	6	5-6
Kindergarten theory	3½	2½	Critic class	½	
Observation and teaching	5½	5-7	Methods in history (10 weeks)	3½	3
Critic class	½		Music	1½	
Total	24½	17-19	Total	25½	18

WASHINGTON NORMAL SCHOOL NO. 2 (COLORED).

Proposed distribution of time in regular course, 1912–13.

Subjects.	Hours.	Per cent of whole time.
Psychology	108	5
History and principles of education	108	5
Child study	54	2½
Principles of teaching	90	4½
English—in toto	324	15
Logic	36	1
School management and school hygiene	36	1
Physiology and personal hygiene	36	1
Gardening and nature study	36	1
Penmanship	36	1
Primary methods: Number, reading, geography, spelling, nature study, language, phonics	252	11½
Practice and observation	540	25
Specials: Drawing, music, physical training	324	15
Lectures by authorities and study under faculty guidance	180	8½
Total	2,160	100

CLEVELAND NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL, 1910–11.

JUNIOR YEAR.

Fall term.

	Periods.
Psychology	3
Reading and phonics	3
American literature	3
Composition	1
United States history	3
Elementary school science	[1]3
Music	2
Drawing	[1]1
Physical training	2
	21

Winter term.

Psychology	3
Method of the recitation	3
Juvenile literature	3
Composition	1
United States history	3
Elementary school science	[1]3
Music	1
Drawing	[1]1
Physical training	2
	20

Spring term.

Psychology (child study)	2
Method of the recitation	3
Arithmetic	3
Reading and methods	2
Composition	1
Geography	3
Elementary school science	[1]3
Music	1
Drawing	[1]1
Physical training	2
	21

SENIOR YEAR.

Fall term.

	Periods.
Arithmetic and methods	3
Classroom management	3
Literature	3
Geography	3
History methods or primary methods	[2]2
Penmanship	1
Civics	3
Music	1
Drawing	[1]1
Physical training	2
	22

Winter term.

History and principles of education	3
Grammar	3
Geography methods or language methods	[1][2]3
Physiology	3
Music	1
Drawing	[1]1
Physical training	2
Observation	[3]2
	19

Spring term.

Practice at Case-Woodland and Wilson schools.

Exercises in spelling and pronunciation under the direction of the superintendent.

Chorus singing (unprepared) by all students, one hour a week in the spring term.

NOTE.—Observation (informal) in each term, once a week.

[1] One (double) laboratory period not prepared.

[2] Primary methods and language methods for those preparing for first and second grade work. History methods and geography methods for those preparing for work above second grade.

[3] One period not prepared; one period of reports prepared.

TOLEDO (OHIO) NORMAL SCHOOL COURSE.

JUNIORS.

First semester.

Psychology	20 weeks, 1 hour daily.
Methods in reading and spelling	10 weeks, 1 hour daily.
Methods in language and grammar	10 weeks, 1 hour daily.
General methods:	
Principles of teaching	5 weeks.
Principles of questioning	
The lesson and its parts	
Illustrative lessons	Throughout the year.
Methods in geography, and fall nature study	15 weeks, 1 hour daily.

Second semester.

History of education	20 weeks, 1 hour daily.
Methods in arithmetic	20 weeks, 1 hour daily.
Methods in history with story telling	10 weeks, 1 hour daily.
Methods in spring nature study	10 weeks, 3 hours weekly.
Special branches: Physiology, physical training, drawing, music, and woodwork	1 hour weekly throughout the year.

SENIORS.

Practice in teaching:

First division—

Substitute first 10 weeks of each semester.

Train second 10 weeks of each semester.

Second division—

Train first 10 weeks of each semester.

Substitute second 10 weeks of each semester.

Students who can not train in practice room will, if possible, be placed with teachers in other buildings the second five weeks of the term.

Each division at Jefferson School will have one recitation in the morning and one in the afternoon.

Theory: Philosophy of teaching, with methods of ethical training	20 weeks, 4 hours weekly.
School management	12 weeks, 4 hours weekly.

All substitutes not on duty are required to be present at recitation. Each senior is required to read and review five books from a specified list, one each on pedagogy, history, literature, nature, and art.

General criticisms and analysis of lessons one hour weekly. Observation as assigned. Drawing one hour weekly throughout the year. Music one hour weekly throughout the year. Sewing and wood carving one hour weekly throughout the year.

OUTLINE OF WORK OF THE INDIANAPOLIS NORMAL SCHOOL.

The course of study or work is a two years' course. The first year is given to the work of the normal school proper. Here the course is in the theory and practice of education. The second year is given to teaching under the direction of a director of practice. At the end of the second year the young woman may receive her diploma.

FIRST YEAR.

In the first year the course of study is substantially as follows:

Psychology and principles of education.—Five hours of 45 minutes each per week (40 weeks). This is prepared work. The textbooks are James' Shorter Course, Talks to Teachers; Judd's Genetic Psychology; Dewey's How We Think; Bagley's Educative Process; Thorndike's Psychology and Principles of Teaching.

History of education.—Twice a week for 6 weeks. This is prepared work. Textbook: Quick's Educational Reformers.

School hygiene.—Two hours a week for 10 weeks. Prepared work. Text used: Shaw's School Hygiene.

Studies in general method.—Four hours per week for 20 weeks. This work is prepared. Texts: Hinsdale, McMurry, DeGarmo, Strayer, Bagley, and Thorndike.

Reading and literature.—Two hours per week for 20 weeks. This work in general is prepared. Texts: Huey's Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading and material used in elementary city schools.

Geography.—Four hours per week for 20 weeks. This is prepared work. Texts: Dryer's Physical Geography; Dodge's Series of Geographies; Robinson's Commercial Geography, supplemented by other geographical material.[1]

Physiology and hygiene.—One hour per week for 40 weeks. Prepared work. Text: Hough and Sedgwick. Observation and lectures also given.

The texts listed are supplemented by educational monographs and magazine articles. All of the texts are used as *sources of material* rather than as textbooks.

Young women in the first year also receive training in what we call the "school arts." None of this work is prepared. This work covers the following:

Drawing.—Three hours a week, for the entire year of 40 weeks, under the direction of the supervisor of drawing. This work is done in the drawing room of the director at Shortridge High School, one block from normal school.

Manual training.—Chiefly in woodwork, two hours a week the entire year, under the direction of the supervisor of manual training. Work is done in shop of No. 11, eight blocks from normal school.

Sewing.—Two hours per week, for 40 weeks, under the direction of the supervisor of sewing.

Music.—One hour per week, for 40 weeks, under the direction of the supervisor of music.

Penmanship.—One hour per week, for 40 weeks, under the direction of the supervisor of penmanship.

Physical training.—One hour per week, for 40 weeks, under the direction of the supervisor of physical training.

Elementary botany or nature study.—An hour and a half per week for 40 weeks. Sometimes field excursions take the place of the classroom recitations, when the time is extended to two hours or two hours and a half. These field excursions number probably 20 during the year. This work is under the direction of the director of elementary science or nature study. Work is done in laboratory of nature study at Shortridge.

[1] Tarr's Phy. Geog.; Gilbert & Brigham Phy. Geog.; Mills International Geog.; Chisholm's Com. Geog.; Adams's Com. Geog.; Gannett's Com. Geog.; Frye's Geog., which is used in city schools.

SECOND YEAR.

During the first half of the second year each young woman teaches a room where she is under the immediate direction of the director of practice. This room is a room normal in size, with the regulation number of children, and the young woman teaches all of the subjects after some observation of the director.

Each director of practice has two of these young women under her immediate charge, the two, as a rule, being in adjacent rooms. At the expiration of the five months, or first half of the year, the young woman takes charge of a school in a building as a rule remote from her director of practice. She is still, however, under the direction of the director. At the end of this second year's work, if successful, the candidate receives her diploma. Sometimes the diploma is deferred a half year—if a candidate is unsuccessful but gives promise of making good in a longer period of practice.

CHICAGO TEACHERS COLLEGE.

ELEMENTARY TRAINING COURSE.

Undergraduate courses: Elementary training course; kindergarten training course; industrial arts training course; household arts—cookery, sewing.

Graduate courses: Oral instruction of the deaf; instruction of crippled children.

Necessary for graduation: 14 majors, 16 minors.

A Major represents 100 hours of recitation.
A Minor represents 20 hours of singing, of gymnastics, or of general, shop, or laboratory work.

FIRST YEAR:

Required:	Majors.
Psychology	1
English	1
Geography	1
Mathematics	1
Science, physical and biological	1
Arts, graphic and industrial	1
	Minors.
Ethics	1
Oral expression	1
Music	2
Gymnastics	4
General exercises and chorus	2

SECOND YEAR:

Required:	Majors.
Education	1
History	1
Special method	0.4
Physiology and physical education	0.6
Practice teaching	3
Elective in any department or departments	2
Required:	**Minors.**
Music	3
General exercises and chorus	2
Elective in any department	1

KINDERGARTEN TRAINING COURSE.

Necessary for graduation: 14 majors, 16 minors.

FIRST YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Psychology	1
Kindergarten	2
English	1
Graphic arts	1
Physical education and physiology and hygiene	0.6
	Minors.
Gymnastics	4
Music	2
Kindergarten music	2
General exercises and chorus	2

SECOND YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Education	1
Kindergarten	2
Special method	0.4
Science	1
Mathematics and geography	1
Practice teaching	3
	Minors.
General exercises and chorus	2
Field science	1
Elective:	
	3

INDUSTRIAL ARTS TRAINING COURSE.

Necessary for graduation: 14 majors, 16 minors.

FIRST YEAR:	
Required:	Minors.
Psychology	1
Graphic arts	1.5
Industrial arts	1.5
English	1
Science and geography	1
General exercises and chorus	2
Shop work	6
Elective:	
	2

SECOND YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Education	1
Industrial arts	1.5
	Minors.
History	1
Mathematics and science	1
Practice teaching	3
General exercises and chorus	2
Shop work	4

HOUSEHOLD ARTS TRAINING COURSE.

Necessary for graduation: 14 majors, 16 minors.

FIRST YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Psychology	1
English	1
Science	1
Art	1
Household arts	2
	Minors.
General exercises and chorus	2
Gymnastics	4
Science	3
Art	1

SECOND YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Education	1
History	1
Science	1
Household arts	2
Practice teaching	3
	Minors.
General exercises and chorus	2
Household arts	6

ORAL INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF.

ONE YEAR:	
Required:	Majors.
Special	4
Psychology	1
Practice teaching	2
	Minors.
Special	4
Elective in one department:	Majors.
	1

St. Paul Teachers'-Training School.

The regular professional course of study, two years in length, includes the following subjects:

	Hours.		Hours.
Psychology	90	History and civics, review and methods	125
Pedagogy	90	Physiology and hygiene	65
History of education	90	Nature study	65
School management	40	Kindergarten theory	76
Sociology	65	Music	100
Reading, review and methods	190	Drawing	100
Grammar and langauge, review and methods	190	Penmanship	76
Geography, review and methods	190	Industrial training	65
Arithmetic, review and methods	125	Physical training	65
		Observation and practice	400

The Birmingham (Ala.) Training School for Teachers.

(Figures indicate number of periods per week.)

JUNIOR YEAR—ELEMENTARY SECTION.

First Semester.		Second Semester.	
Psychology and child study	4	General theory of education	3
History of education	4	Kindergarten theory	4
Reading, literature, and expression	2	Geography and history	4
Physiology and hygiene	3	Arithmetic	4
Language and grammar	4	Nature study	1
Vocal music	2	Vocal music	2
Drawing and industrial art	2	Drawing and industrial art	2
Physical culture	2	Physical culture	2
Primary work and observation	2	Primary work and observation	2

SENIOR YEAR.

First Semester.		Second Semester.	
School management	4	School management	3
Social science	4	The school arts	4
Primary and intermediate methods	4	General method	4
Vocal music	2	Vocal music	2
Elementary art and design	2	Elementary art and design	2
Physical culture	2	Physical culture	2
Practice teaching.		Practice teaching.	

THE KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

For students electing to take the kindergarten course, kindergarten technics, including gifts, games, songs, stories, and occupations, will be substituted for such subjects as are taught especially in the intermediate and advanced grades of the elementary schools. Members of the senior class will be assigned to daily practice work under the direction of the supervisor of kindergartens.

SPECIAL COURSES.

The report of the superintendent of the New York schools for 1910–11 urges the establishment in both the New York and Brooklyn schools of departments for the training of teachers to cure speech defects.

> The plan should be to select teachers in the regular corps who have had a few years of experience and who have shown talent and willingness to do special work with mentally defective children or with children suffering from speech defects and to give them for three months the special training which they require.

In 1912–13 the following course was given to 15 experienced teachers at Brooklyn, who received their regular salaries during the time of training:

BROOKLYN (N. Y.) COURSE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF UNGRADED CLASSES.

(Time, 3 months.)

	Hours.
Psychology—with special reference to mental deficiency	60
Physiology—with special reference to pathological conditions found in school children	30
General lectures	10
Speech—study of the curative treatment of defects and disturbances of speech	30
Methods of teaching the beginnings of reading, spelling, language, writing, and number	30
Story telling	20
Class management—including observation in ungraded classes	60
Physical training	60
	300

Manual training, after school hours, to suit individual needs of teachers.

There is room for valuable experimental work in the training schools in the teaching of sex hygiene. However one may feel about the difficulties of presenting this subject to young children, or even to high-school students, there would seem to be no excuse for permitting young women to go into the school conditions and encounter the dangers which they frequently meet there with no preparation in this field.

RECITATION PERIODS.

Some city training schools have had the reputation of devoting so much time to recitation periods that there was little opportunity to students for developing in independent study and initiative. There is a great temptation to yield to the immediate demands made by the crowded elementary curriculum and to meet the criticisms of the lower schools by more time in the training school upon

the subjects under fire. In a large school, in which the students recited nearly 30 periods a week, almost every teacher when asked apart from the others what was most needed in the school replied: "More time for my subjects."

Dr. Brandon, in his report on Latin American normal schools,[1] notes this problem in Chile, where 16 to 18 studies are carried at once, involving at times 45 recitation periods a week. In these schools the teacher develops or dictates the lesson and the pupils take notes or copy the dictation. The Chilean schools were formed under European influence. Those of Argentina were established by North Americans, and in them textbooks are used to a much greater extent. The following quotation from Dr. Brandon suggests an interesting interpretation of the number of schedule periods: "The two methods can be traced pretty accurately by the greater or less number of class hours per week."

The following table shows the number of schedule and study periods, also the number during which the teachers are occupied with classwork in 30 schools.

Schedule and study periods in certain cities.

Cities.	Schedule periods.	Study periods.	Periods teachers occupied.
Akron	20	2	20
Albany	24	6	24
Atlanta	25	5	25
Baltimore:			
White	30	4–8	17
Colored	30	5	17
Boston	30	2–4	16
Buffalo	25	5	10
Charleston	30	5	25
Cleveland	35	10	15–18
Columbus	25	0	20
Concord	12	7	(All)
Dayton	25	3	25
Elmira	27	15	15
Evansville	24	10	20
Fall River	30	4	20–24
Fort Wayne	25	5	20
Indianapolis	30	7	12
Jamaica	30	5	17
New Orleans	30	2	22–24
Newark	25	3	20
New York	25	0	15–20
Philadelphia	25	0	16–22
Richmond	30	10	30
Rochester	25	2	15–20
St. Louis (colored)	35	5–8	25
Washington:			
White	30	5	25
Colored	30	3	20
Watertown	24	0	.....
Yonkers	30	2	.....
Youngstown	(45) 20	(1)	22

[1] Four afternoons free.

COLLEGE GRADUATES AND NORMAL TRAINING.

It is hoped by many who have a wide knowledge of the elementary situation that there may soon be possible such conditions as will place

[1] Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, 1913, No. 39.

elementary schools in charge of teachers with preparation equivalent to a college course. Cincinnati is the only city which has reached this standard. Cleveland provides a college section in which graduates of approved colleges spend one term of 13 weeks in practice teaching preceded by a term given to the following schedule: Classroom management, geography, general methods of the recitation, history and principles of education, biology—each three hours a week; music and physical training—each two hours a week, and art one hour a week.

In Indianapolis a liberal arrangement is made: "Young women who have diplomas from standard colleges may be given two years' credit for such college work, provided they have had successful experience in teaching in schools under supervision." A third year's credit is added for graduation from the practice school.

In the section under colored schools an account is given of the advanced course in the Washington Training School (colored).

Two cities receive only advanced students, and the course given is in the practice school. Cambridge, Mass., in 1884 opened the Wellington Training School for Teachers, with a year's term of service; 596 students have been enrolled, of whom 176 are teaching in the Cambridge schools. They are paid at the rate of $300 per year for the first half year, and $400 for the second half. Two critic teachers and a principal have charge of the work. The seventh and eighth grades are taught by experienced teachers. In 1911 there were 7 college, 13 normal-school, and 8 kindergarten graduates. Preference is given to graduates of the Cambridge High and Latin School who have also graduated from one of the Massachusetts State normal schools. There are about a thousand pupils in all the grades and the kindergartens. Extra substitutes are assigned to the school in order to make visiting possible.

Chelsea, Mass., has a similar plan. Six students are received each year. They are paid at the rate of $300 for the year's course. If successful they receive a diploma, which makes them eligible for regular positions when vacancies occur. The supervision of the principal and of a critic teacher extends over their probationary period of one year, in which the salary is $500. In the training school the grades one, five, seven, and eight are taught by regular teachers.

A well-known experiment was made in Brookline in 1895. The following statement is made by Prof. Dutton:

> I was permitted by the board of education to start a class in 1895. I continued it for five years, until I came to New York. The first year I had 10 college graduates and the last year about 40. They were all young women but 2 or 3, and came from Radcliffe, Smith, Wellesley, and Vassar. The last year they paid a tuition of $50 and gave their whole time to work in the schools to which they were assigned. Two afternoons a week they assembled for

instruction in theory. As this was a private venture, it did not continue after I left Brookline. I think there were not as many college graduates in the Teachers College when I came here as I had that last year. I have kept no record of the class, and the members are scattered. A good number are teaching; some are married. It was interesting because we were able to do as we pleased. Some of those who were in the class have done brilliant work. I do not know that there has been any similar experiment, and at the time we began few college graduates in New England were taking training, although willing to consider primary work.

PRACTICE TEACHING AND OBSERVATION WORK.

The work in observation and in practice teaching is one of the most distinctive features of the training school. It is on the basis of the work of this department that Dr. Sheldon used the term "training school" to designate the institution which he founded at Oswego, in order to distinguish it from the earlier normal schools, which did not attempt the training of teachers in the actual practice of their profession.

There are two strong tendencies in the schools: One is toward apprenticeship and the other toward reducing apprenticeship to a minimum. The pupil-teacher system in England placed the young adolescent in a classroom and expected him by imitation and learning by doing to become a teacher. The limitations and dangers of this plan have led to various modifications. In State schools the large number of students requiring practice teaching and the limited number of elementary pupils available tend to reduce the amount of practice teaching. In city schools practice teaching is often a means of saving money, and so is less limited. In the greater number of the city schools at least one-fourth of the two years' course is given to this phase of training.

There are two types of work. In one case students are assigned to the charge of critic teachers, under whose direction they are initiated into the problems of teaching. This is the more common method. Under the other plan each student is assigned to work with the principal of a building and has opportunity to gain acquaintance with a varied type of needs in her work as substitute for absent teachers and helper in the office and the various classrooms. Naturally the latter plan is more satisfactory in a large city in which the principals are highly trained and give much of their time to supervision. New York City and St. Louis are the most noteworthy examples of cities using this means of training. Principals of elementary schools sometimes prefer this plan because by it they are able to enter at an early stage into the training of teachers whom later they secure to fill vacancies in their schools.

In schools in which the principals spend the greater part of their time in teaching this system has little to commend it, and, even under more favorable conditions, it is hard to see how it can be accounted equal to the plan which calls for specially trained teachers who act as critics and guides. The danger is that in many cities the advance is not made which one superintendent reports: "Heretofore the question has always been, 'Where do they need a cadet?' Now it is, 'Where will the cadet get the best training?'"

The main difficulty in this more common method comes from the lack of higher training given to these critic teachers. It is shown elsewhere (p. 83) that the requirements in preparation and the remuneration of these teachers are almost without exception less than those of "theory" teachers. A teacher in this work needs thorough knowledge of children and all other qualifications demanded of a successful elementary school-teacher; but without special higher training it is very difficult for her to organize the situation so that the inexperienced student will have opportunities for taking real responsibilities and for using her best forces in ways which are most economical and effective from the standpoint of her own possibilities.

In order to overcome the tendency on the part of the director of practice to do too much for her students, it is frequently customary to give each director charge of two rooms, so that for at least half the time each student is alone. This has many advantages, but in a situation offering special difficulties the strain of seeing that children do not suffer is very heavy. In a report made recently by an expert upon the work of a city training school, a recommendation was made that each critic have charge of three rooms taught by three seniors. "By this arrangement there will be a saving of 15 to 18 teachers." It is difficult to see what argument beyond immediate financial economy could be urged for this plan.

In a city which has recently changed from the one-room to the two-room basis the superintendent reports: "As a result the graduates of 1911 have assumed regular places in our system without the usual suspense and hesitation."

A question of much importance is that of the advantages, respectively, of a centralized and of a decentralized system[1] of practice

[1] In the proposed plans only four classrooms for children and one kindergarten room are contemplated. This will require much of the model work and all of the practice work to be done in outside schools. The model classes should consist of all grades and should be scattered throughout the entire city—all under the special supervision of the normal school. The advantage of thus scattering the model classes will be to afford examples in several schools of what ideally perfect work should be—or, at least, how far it is possible to secure ideally perfect work under existing conditions. So, also, the practice teaching will need to be scattered among several different schools. This work, also, should be supervised by someone connected with the normal and training school. Some years ago when practice work was thus scattered, it proved unsatisfactory. The result was due, in our judgment, not to the fact that the classes were scattered, but rather to

rooms. In the former case the practice teaching is done in a central school having close relations to the training school. In the latter the classes are scattered throughout the city. Albany, Akron, Atlanta, Bridgeport, Cambridge, Cleveland, Columbus, Elmira, Fall River, Fort Wayne, Louisville, Muskegon, New Orleans, Paterson, Schenectady, and Syracuse prefer the centralized systems. The scattered plan is advocated by Davenport, Evansville, Erie, Jersey City, Kansas City (Kans.), and Yonkers.

The difficulties of the necessary sharing of control with others than members of the training-school administration are urged against the decentralized organization. On the other hand, it is urged that the training-school authorities need contact with situations representing the entire school system and that by this means the school keeps in touch with the problems it needs to know about, and its students make their beginnings in teaching in situations more like those which they will meet after appointment than is possible in a central school planned especially for the use of the training school. A further argument is based upon the value to the various schools of regular contact with some part of the training school. The greater number of training schools have endeavored to gain the advantages of both plans by combining them. Among the cities which have done so are Boston, Buffalo, Camden, Charleston, Chelsea, Chicago, Concord, Dayton, Detroit, Elizabeth, Indianapolis, New York, Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, Rochester, St. Louis, Troy, and Washington.

A corollary of this discussion has reference to the advantages and disadvantages arising from having practice rooms specially equipped, or keeping them as near the condition of ordinary classrooms as possible. There is a tendency in some cities to reduce the size of classes and to give the practice teacher some experience under more favorable conditions before entering upon the usual routine.

It is desirable that the student have experience with several grades. This is accomplished more easily in a central school where the schedule is based on this need. There is naturally more emphasis placed upon practice in primary grades, but it is possible that this is overdone and in some cases causes too many young teachers to be placed in the first grade. In some schools the practice work is done in the last quarter of the course. There is much to be said in

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the fact that the classes so scattered were not supervised in any manner by the normal school. Supervision by the normal school of practice teaching is absolutely essential for two reasons: (a) to see that the principles taught in the normal school are properly applied; (b) to enable the normal school to keep in close touch with the work of the pupil-teacher in order to improve it.

Before the new normal school building is completed and ready for occupancy, there should be a reorganization of the corps of model and practice teachers, and an amended course of study. There are several other vitally important changes which I shall recommend hereafter in a special report to the board.—(Report of Newark Schools, 1910.)

favor of the plan used in St. Louis, by which the student spends the first half of the senior year in practice and then comes back to the training school to reorganize her work on the basis of the problems teaching has opened up. Where students are received in February as well as in September, this can be adjusted without difficulty.

Reports from the following cities recommend that practice work should not close the course: Baltimore, Boston, Indianapolis, Louisville, Macon, Newark, Rochester, St. Louis, Toledo, and Washington.

There is in many places an objection on the part of parents to the practice class, because it is supposed that children suffer under the conditions of its organization. The teacher in charge has much need of tact and judgment, but with reasonable conditions it has been demonstrated many times that parents can be brought to prefer classes under the charge of critic teachers. Brandon in his report on Normal Schools in Latin American countries states: "Everywhere the *escuela de aplicacion* is considered the best of the primary schools, and parents are eager to have their children admitted."

Usually the work is confined to fairly normal situations, but in Trenton opportunity is given for acquaintance with a class for troublesome pupils and another for foreign pupils.

The cost of the central elementary school as compared with other elementary schools has not been worked out, but such reports as are at hand do not show that there is much difference between them. In Jersey City the per capita cost of the model school in 1909–10 was $33.28, as against $29.10 in all elementary schools. In Cambridge (1911) this amounted to $20.74, while in other grammar schools it was $21.08, and in other primary schools $18.11. In St. Louis (1910–11) the per capita cost in the Wyman Observation School of 20 rooms and 887 pupils was $29.41, and in all white elementary schools it was $29.88.

The payment for practice teaching has grown up in part from the fact that young women who become teachers are required to spend more years in preparation for that work than would be required in preparing for other occupations. In a sense, what is paid is rather a subsidy than a salary. The table on pages 145–149 shows the custom in various schools. No payment is made in Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Jersey City, Newark, New Orleans, Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, and Washington. In those which make payment the range is from 75 cents a day in New York City through $1 in Baltimore to $2 in Indianapolis. Detroit pays $50 and St. Louis $100 for the half year. In Saginaw an allowance of $5 a month is made for car fare during the training-school course. In Omaha $100 is allowed for each of 20 students each year. When the class contains a larger number than 20, the added numbers are paid only during the senior year. Dr. Brandon in his work on Latin Ameri-

can normal schools quotes a distinguished Chilean educator as follows: "The State begins at the wrong end; it pays its pupils, but does not remunerate properly its teachers."

The department of observation offers many difficulties. The term "model school" has been used in some places to designate the elementary school used for observation purposes. A commonly held position on its work has been stated by the superintendent of the Newark schools (An. Rep., 1910):

> This school, above all else, needs a model department where pupil teachers may observe the work of the classroom performed in an ideally correct manner. Under present conditions classes are required to be both model and practice classes, a combination that is practically impossible. The model class should be taught all of the time by an experienced and skillful teacher; the practice class must be taught most of the time by a pupil teacher who often is anything but a model teacher.

As practice teaching has become more definite, observation has gained recognition, particularly in the first year of the course. This sometimes leads to waste, through undirected work and to the deferring of this experience. In the Louisville (colored) school the following arrangement has been made: "Observations of teaching do not enter until the senior year, when the student has a conception of the teaching process."

In Baltimore[1] the term "participation" has been added to "observation," as the need was felt of a word denoting more activity on the part of the students than has come to be associated with observation. A general plan is worked out each year by a director which gives considerable latitude to the teachers of the various subjects and yet gives an opportunity for a somewhat systematic study of the school as a whole. Some observation of high-school and normal classes is planned in order to aid the students in reconstructing their methods of study and recitation. In groups of six or seven, the students are assigned at the end of the first term for participation work in the various practice centers during the second and third terms. For about half this time one morning and one afternoon each week are spent in the center with the children. These sessions are, in a sense, laboratory periods for the work in personal hygiene, psychology, history, and the other school subjects. Studies are made of room, building, playground, and neighborhood conditions, as compared with other sections of the city, and the requirements in standard texts. Special problems are considered—for example, the resources available for the school in the way of nature study, local history, etc. Much interest is taken in formulating what is found out regarding the interests, activities, and occupations of individual children. The amount of actual taking charge of a class in

[1] See Baltimore Course of Study, pp. 38–48.

games, singing, etc., varies with the individuals, both teachers and pupils.

No formal lesson planning is done before the third term, and an effort is made to head off, rather than to encourage, too definite formulations. This work is summed up at the end of the third term, when an exhibit is made of data books, illustrative material, handwork, etc., as reports of certain phases of the student's activity. A new assignment is now made for definite apprenticeship preparation in the class in which the student will practice during half of the senior year.

In the second year the students who are in practice go in small sections, with a director, to see work which will have as direct bearing as possible upon the problems which mean most to them at the time. They also visit private and parochial schools, rural schools, college classes, etc. During the other half year, the "senior participation" endeavors to aid the student in getting an idea of the part played by her work in the city system. Acquaintance is made of special situations, as the parental school, preparatory classes, the kindergarten, and private schools; and attention is given to the wide range of needs represented in the various sections of the city and the institutions besides the school which are working upon these problems.

The following statement indicates certain aspects of the work in Boston:

BOSTON NORMAL SCHOOL.

FIRST YEAR—OBSERVATION OF LESSONS IN VARIOUS GRADES OF THE MODEL SCHOOL.

These lessons are given by the regular teachers of the model school, who receive extra compensation for their services, namely, $8 a month more than the salary of regular elementary teachers.

The teachers and the director of the model school gather the normal school observers together after these lessons for discussion, conferences, and reports thereon.

SECOND YEAR—PRACTICE WORK.

This is carried on under the direction of the director of practice and training throughout the elementary schools of our city. Training teachers chosen by the superintendent receive the students for a period covering three or four weeks. Each student spends three months in practice, observing, and in teaching in low, medium, and high grades. Four days a week are spent in the class rooms throughout the city. On the last day the students return to the normal school for work in educational theory with the director of practice and training.

THIRD YEAR.

During this time the normal school students will have charge of classes throughout the city for a period of five months. This has not yet been attempted, but we inaugurate the plan next September.

AFTER GRADUATION.

The normal school students serve as substitutes and temporary teachers for some time prior to appointment. During this time their work is assigned to

them by the director of practice and training, and all of this work is carefully supervised and developed by this department.

This temporary work is used as a factor in the making of the merit list for permanent appointment, and the substitute service is therefore of a high order, because of its bearing on future appointments.

From the beginning of the student's practice work in the second year of the normal school until she reaches permanent appointment she is under the direction of the department of practice and training.

A director, first assistant director, and three assistant directors do all the assigning, visiting, and rating of this work.

TRANSITION FROM TRAINING SCHOOL TO CITY SERVICE.

The method of entering the service of the city varies. If the results in large cities in which no extended examination is required are equal to those in other cities which now have the examinations, the elaborate machinery used in the latter is scarcely justifiable. On the other hand, if the examinations do benefit one class of cities it is reasonable to believe that the other class loses something by their omission.

In New York State all graduates must satisfy the examinations set by the State department. It is within the discretion of local authorities to exact a higher standard. New York City reports as follows:

The examinations are prepared by the board of examiners of this city. This board consists of the city superintendent and four examiners, nominated by the city superintendent and elected by the board of education for terms of six years. All graduates of our city training schools and normal college and other institutions in and out of the city must take the same examination for a place upon our eligible list. The graduates of our city training schools must take this examination at the close of the third term and obtain a substitute license before they are permitted to do substitute work during the fourth term. If this substitute service is satisfactory, their names are then entered upon the eligible list on the basis of the rating obtained by them at the examination the term before.

In answer to the questions in the paper sent to training schools concerning the method of conducting examinations at the end of the course, the preparation of questions, and the grading of papers, the reports indicate the presence of a board of examiners in Kansas City, Paterson, and Dayton. In Cleveland[1] and Cincinnati the city board of examiners determines rating in theory and practice, while other subjects are left to the faculty. The matter seems to lie with the faculty in Bay City, Birmingham, Boston, Burlington, Camden, Charleston, Chicago, Columbus, Concord, Davenport, Detroit, Elizabeth, Erie, Evansville, Fall River, Fort Wayne, Indianapolis, Jer-

[1] The Ohio law permits boards of education to exempt college graduates in other subjects.

sey City, Louisville, Macon, Muskegon, Newark, New Orleans, Omaha, Philadelphia, Reading, Richmond, St. Paul, and Trenton. The superintendent or board of superintendents is reported as participating in the matter or determining it in Akron, Atlanta, Baltimore, Harrisburg, Kansas City (Kans.), Pittsburgh, Washington, Wilmington.

St. Louis is an example of a city which does not require the final examination:

> We do not determine the place of our graduates on the appointment list by an examination. The method followed is this: The entire record of the students at the time of graduation is taken into account. A unit of work consists of one recitation hour per week for 20 weeks in any subject. A unit of credit is 1 per cent on a unit of work; so that, if a student has made, say, a grade of 80 on a subject which carries five hours per week for a whole term, she is entitled to 400 units of credit for that study. On this basis it is easy to determine the total number of units of credit which each student is entitled to for the two years of the course. When this is ascertained, it becomes merely a matter of arranging these numbers according to their size.

In Cincinnati the place on the appointment list is based on—

> merit as determined by college scholarship, examination mark in theory and practice, and practice mark given by members of the college for teachers instruction staff in theory and practice. Much stress is laid upon this last item. No one is appointed so long as he fails to get a satisfactory practice mark.

In Baltimore the place on the substitute list and order of appointment is determined entirely by the examination given by the board of superintendents. The objection urged against making use of the practice mark is that this would be an unfair discrimination against teachers from the outside. There are, however, almost no teachers appointed in the city from outside schools, and other cities, as Cincinnati, give outside teachers a practice mark secured either by a visit from a Cincinnati supervisor to the teacher's school or a trial experience in Cincinnati.

Mortality results among applicants in New York City, in 1910.

Applicants from—	Applicants.	Successful.	Refused.
Normal College	735	178	80
New York Training School	380	377	3
Brooklyn Training School	442	437	5
Jamaica Training School	90	86	4
Other normal schools	175	83	92
City College	213	80	133
Other colleges	101	40	61
State certificates	2	1	1
Experienced teachers	147	48	99
Total	1,815	1,306	509

The number of graduates from the New York City training schools decreased from 904 in 1910–11 to 853 in 1911–12. The

reason for this was the raising of the standard for women from 70 to 72 per cent. Men must pass 76, and it is hoped to require 76 of women also at an early date.

In Bridgeport, in 1913, the graduation standard was raised from 70 to 80 per cent, causing nine students to drop out or fail (total membership of school, 55).

Means of reducing the number of students in training schools are not difficult to find, and they can easily bring about a mortality equal to that effected in first-year high-school classes by algebra and Latin. There are other considerations, and these are being studied in certain schools. The following citation from the St. Louis report of 1910–11 has bearing on the subject:

THE STUDENTS AND THEIR WORK.

The standards which the Harris Teachers College is endeavoring to maintain, the large range of subjects included in the course of study, and the great number of hours of recitation required each week make the work necessarily heavy for those who come to us poorly prepared and with little natural aptitude for the work. To such persons the course is usually a burden so heavy that they fail to find the pleasure in it which should come from easy and thorough mastery. Consequently, a considerable percentage of each class either become discouraged and drop out or else find it necessary to take more than the prescribed time to complete the course. The extent to which this is true is shown by the following figures:

Number graduating from Harris Teachers College.

Date of graduation.	Number entered.	Number dropped.	Number held.	Per cent dropped.	Per cent held.	Per cent getting through on time.
June, 1906	35	3	0	8½	0	91½
January, 1907	28	3	0	11	0	89
June, 1907	40	8	0	20	0	80
January, 1908	42	11	6	26	14	60
June, 1908	53	7	4	13	7½	79½
January, 1909	44	6	6	14	14	72
June, 1909	94	11	16	12	17	71
January, 1910	59	1	9	2	15	83
June, 1910	91	8	14	9	15	76
January, 1911	54	11	4	20	7	73
June, 1911	69	13	9	19	13	68

The table shows that the number lost or held longer than the prescribed time is a considerable fraction of the total enrollment. The figures in the percentage column are in reality a little too large, because in each class the number graduating includes some persons who have been held over from preceding classes. We have long been conscious of the condition which this table reveals, and of the fact that it tends naturally to produce an unhappy and discontented spirit among those whom it directly affects and sometimes even among those who are able to do the work on time. We have tried to meet the difficulty without lowering the standard.

From 34 schools there were reported records of 35,000 graduates, of whom 21,000 are still in service—very few of these in other than elementary schools. The incomplete records of 10 other schools

using the same persistence basis bring this up to 44,000 graduates, with 26,000 still in service.

The distribution in the grades of the graduates of 25 schools, together with the other data on this subject, is shown in the table on pages 155–156. Unfortunately, records of none of the cities larger than Cleveland and Baltimore have been made up, so that the advantages that come from statistics involving large numbers are not possible at present. For the 25 cities investigated, involving some 5,400 teachers still in service, the proportions for the grades run about 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4,.3, from grades one to eight, except that each of the last three grades runs a little below the figure.

Two questions arise in this connection:

(1) Is enough attention given in training schools to preparation for grades seven and eight?

(2) Ought training schools to expect to train for these grades on the basis of a six years' course beyond grade eight?

The persistence basis 3 to 5 suggested by the figures given above holds very well for the schools of large membership, except for Brooklyn, in which it is 4 to 5. Brooklyn's records go back several years further than do those of most of the schools.

Little consideration is usually given to the value to the community of the training of the young women who have completed the course but are not now in the service. In 41 cities (44 schools) it is fair to estimate that there are over 15,000 women who have had two years' school training beyond what they would have had were there no training school at hand, and a large proportion of them have had the experience of serving the community for one or more years in the public schools.

Very few figures are available regarding the relation of enrollment to graduation,[1] but there are certainly in these cities 10,000 who have spent from one to several terms in residence and who have been influenced to some extent by their life in the school.

SUBSTITUTES.

One of the weakest points in the teaching system of many cities is the substitute work. Too often this work is done by graduates of the training schools while they are waiting for appointment, so that the first relatively independent teaching by the young teacher is done under especially unfavorable conditions. Even worse than this is the arrangement by which students in training are sent out to meet emergencies; or, as is still the case in some cities, where these

[1] St. Louis reports that 89 per cent completed the course in 1905–6, and 83 per cent the [illegible] 73 per cent the second half in 1909–10. In Baltimore, from 1902 to 1912, about 80 per cent of the enrollment completed the course.

are filled by untrained girls just out of the high school who are unwilling to enter upon a regular course, and take this means of earning pin money. In those cities in which the practice work is carried on without critic teachers, and a student is assigned to a particular school to work under the direction of the principal, many of the same disadvantages appear, but there is at least the advantage of general acquaintance with the school which comes from continuous residence in it.

In the next zone above these types are the cities which are able to make up a corps of substitutes from experienced teachers who, in many cases, do not wish full-time employment. The married teacher has done large service in this department. In some cities a woman after marriage, while ineligible for regular service, is kept employed all her time and sometimes in a single school, but usually at a less salary than she received when single.

Some States, as Pennsylvania and Indiana, do not permit anyone to take charge of a school as a substitute who has not met the training requirements for regular appointment.

The highest level is reached in a few cities which employ specially qualified teachers to deal with the difficulties of classes left by illness, failure, and other causes without teachers.

In Los Angeles there are six specially selected substitutes, concerning whom the superintendent writes as follows:

> These teachers are chosen from the corps of regular grade teachers because of special efficiency. They substitute in the absence of teachers, as well as assist weak teachers. Sometimes if a grade has run down, owing to the work of a poor teacher, the latter is taken out, and an emergency teacher sent to bring the room up to standard, after which a regular teacher is assigned. The salary is greater than that of regular teachers, being $1,320 per year, maximum, as against $1,080 minimum salary of grade teachers. These emergency teachers have been employed for the past nine years, and the value of their work is unquestioned.

In Houston—

> two unassigned teachers are paid $10 a month more than the maximum for grade teachers. * * * We undertake to secure for this purpose particularly strong teachers and believe that the results have justified our expenditure.

Cleveland reports that substitutes are required to have the same qualifications as regular teachers. The same requirement is made in Schenectady. In San Francisco, substituting is done by fully qualified teachers who have passed the civil-service examination and are awaiting appointment. In Minneapolis, elementary school substitutes are appointed to two consecutive grades and are required to attend all meetings for those grades.

The supervision of substitutes is often neglected, but in San Francisco special supervision is provided. In Boston a director of substitutes has charge of this work as well as of practice teaching.

In some cities retired teachers are nominally subject to call for emergency teaching.

St. Louis makes an especially definite statement concerning this branch of the service. The following tables are taken from the report for 1912:

Substitutes in St. Louis schools in 1912.

	Total.	Grades.						Kindergarten.					
		White.			Colored.			White.			Colored.		
		Permanent.	Temporary.	Eligible list.	Permanent.	Temporary.	Eligible list.	Permanent.	Temporary.	Eligible list.	Permanent.	Temporary.	Eligible list.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Number in active service, June, 1912	292	70	29	90	15	7	....	5	10	55	4	2	5
Total increase during year	311	66	59	98	13	14	14	7	8	10	4	7	5
Assigned to permanent positions	....	63	....	....	13	....	....	6	....	....	4	....	....
Called into service	....	....	59	....	....	14	....	....	8	....	....	7	....
Graduates of Harris Teachers College and Sumner Normal (colored)	....	....	....	92	....	....	14	....	....	16	....	....	5
Returned from leave of absence	....	3	....	6	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Total decrease during year	310	95	66	62	10	14	14	14	9	14	....	5	7
Appointments	....	88	....	....	9	....	....	13	....	....	....	....	....
Assigned to permanent positions from temporary service	....	....	63	....	....	13	....	....	6	....	....	4	....
Called into service from eligible list	....	....	....	59	....	....	14	....	....	8	....	....	7
Resignations	....	2	3	3	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	....	....
Deaths	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Granted leave of absence	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	1	3	1	....	1	....
Dropped	....	1	....	....	1	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	....
Number in active service, June, 1911	291	99	36	54	12	7	....	12	11	53	....	....	7
Number on leave of absence, June, 1912	8	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	1	....	1	....
Number granted leave during year	10	4	....	....	....	....	....	1	3	1	....	1	....
Decreases in number on leave during year	10	6	....	6	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	....
Reassigned to active service	....	3	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Resignations	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Deaths	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....
Dropped	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....
Number on leave of absence, June, 1911	11	5	....	6	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....

Number of calls for substitutes in 1912.

	Both classes of service.	Grades.	Kindergarten.
1	2	3	4
Number of calls in year	1,940	1,782	158
First half quarter	274	230	44
Second half quarter	253	191	12
Third half quarter	264	247	17
Fourth half quarter	258	249	9
Fifth half quarter	250	230	20
Sixth half quarter	282	262	20
Seventh half quarter	258	237	21
Eighth half quarter	151	136	15
Average number of calls daily:			
First half quarter	.....	10	.....
Second half quarter	.....	8	.....
Third half quarter	.....	10	.....
Fourth half quarter	.....	10	.....
Fifth half quarter	.....	10	.....
Sixth half quarter	.....	11	.....
Seventh half quarter	.....	9	.....
Eighth half quarter	.....	6	.....
Highest number of calls any one day	.....	43	.....

The pay given to elementary substitutes varies from the special maximum at Los Angeles of $240 over that paid to regular teachers down to $1 a day for untrained emergencies in Washington and Baltimore. In these latter cities special appointment on the basis of successful work brings $1.50 a day.[1] New Orleans pays $1.75. In Philadelphia, Boston, Milwaukee, Cincinnati, and Newark $2 and above is paid. From Detroit, Indianapolis, Rochester, St. Paul, Portland (Oreg.), and Columbus $2.50 is reported. The $3 group includes New York, Chicago, St. Louis, San Francisco, and Denver. Seattle and Kansas City (Mo.) report $3.50 and $4. Louisville pays 75 per cent, and Springfield (Mass.) 80 per cent, of the regular teacher's salary. Milwaukee meets a common difficulty by allowing the substitute who reports for work but is not employed 25 cents a day.

The chief difficulty in the supervision of training school graduates during their period of substituting arises from the tendency to segregate the training school from the other sections of the system. The pressure in this direction is sometimes from one side and again from the other; not infrequently it is from both parties. The result is unfortunate in any case. The most satisfactory adjustment would seem to be found in an adequate system of supervision involving the entire city, under the direction of the superintendents, but taking special account of and encouraging responsibility with commensurate authority on the part of supervision specialists in the training school.

In systems in which supervision is inadequate or badly organized, there is danger that these beginning teachers will be neglected, unless some plan is devised by the training school to care for them by means of machinery already overtaxed.

It is easy to forget how much more efficient good teachers can be made by training in social cooperation, while those who are less able, if left to themselves, are very serious sources of waste.

The following quotation from the Cincinnati report of 1911 shows the problems in that city:

> After appointment the same inspectors visit them and submit reports of their progress and suggestions of what can be done to make their work in every way satisfactory. These inspectors have the most thankless task in our schools. Every one who is criticized feels wronged, and yet criticism is sometimes necessary. I bespeak the disinterested support of these critic teachers by the principals and other teachers in the effort that they are making to improve the work of a few younger teachers who have great difficulty in learning how to teach. It is certainly more humane to try to save these teachers than to drop them. The board has expended considerable money to train these teachers, and it is right that they should show the results of their training in work that is in harmony

[1] In Baltimore recent legislation has increased the possible pay of emergency substitutes to $2 a day.

with the instruction they have received. Their methods in some respects will be different from those of teachers who have had different training. This is no disparagement to either. A school system should have a steady infusion of new ideas. We don't want it all of one pattern. But we want our teachers to live up to the best light they have, and to teach up to the best methods they know.

At present in Cincinnati two months' "cadetting" is required. A trial year is contemplated during which the graduate will be under inspection.

From Trenton comes this statement:

Now we are convinced that we should have some kind of an arrangement for the extension of the training-school work, so that it can control an apprenticeship school or apprenticeship classes for beginning teachers. We believe that we are losing some very valuable candidates for the profession because in our trying-out process of beginning teachers, with whatever principals they chance to be assigned to, some good candidates find it impossible to make good and give up completely discouraged.

THE PROPORTION OF TRAINED AND UNTRAINED TEACHERS.

The table on pages 150–152 shows the division of teachers of 43 cities into three classes:

(1) Those untrained beyond the high-school.

(2) Those trained beyond the high-school and within the city.

(3) Those trained beyond the high-school and outside the city.

A further division is made according to color and sex.

There were in all 28,226 cases reported; of these less than 10 per cent were untrained beyond the high-school. Eight of the cities above 100,000, and the same number below, report none in this class. Several cities have from 10 to 20 per cent, while Baltimore reports nearly one-half and Richmond nearly three-fourths not having been trained beyond the high-school.

About one-half of the teachers were trained in the local community and about two-fifths elsewhere. Of the larger cities having training schools, Baltimore and Paterson have the smallest proportion from outside sources, and Newark, Cleveland, Rochester, Birmingham, and Omaha the largest percentage of the products of training elsewhere.

Of the various divisions the white men form the largest percentage from the outside. In the division of colored teachers the number of untrained above the high-school is slightly greater than the number from other communities, and the two together are about equal to the locally trained group.

A division of these statistics into three groups—(1) 15 cities above 100,000, with training schools (+ 13,000 teachers); (2) 9 cities

above 100,000, without training schools (—6,000 teachers); (3) 17 cities below 100,000, with training schools (—3,500 teachers)—shows some interesting comparisons. The smaller cities show a much smaller proportion of local untrained teachers—about one in thirty. In the larger cities having schools the ratio is about one in eight, and in the larger cities having no training schools it is about one in six. The second group contains several cities which have had training schools, so that there is still enough of the local product to form nearly one-sixth of the total.

In the smaller cities the local trained group forms one-half of all, while in the larger cities having training schools it amounts to nearly two-thirds of the total number of teachers. One-fourth of the teachers are trained outside in the larger cities having training schools, against nearly two-thirds in the larger cities not having schools, and about three-sevenths in the smaller cities.

Detroit and San Francisco report no teachers untrained beyond the high-school. New York City—"Nearly all of our teachers are graduates of a high school or college and of some city training or State normal school." Charleston, S. C.—"All female teachers except two colored are graduates of the City Normal School or of a college."

The relative amount of training in these cities and in other communities is indicated by the following statement:

> The total number of public-school teachers in the United States last year was over 523,000; the number of graduates of teacher-training courses in the universities, colleges, State normal schools, county training schools, and high schools was approximately 23,000. The average length of service for a teacher is less than five years. It is apparent, therefore, that for not more than one in five positions is a trained graduate available.[1]

The following comparison shows the situation in Massachusetts and New York City:

Training of teachers in Massachusetts in 1910–11.

Cities and towns.	Teachers.	Men.	Women.	Normal school graduates.	College graduates.		
					Total.	High-school.	Elementary.
Boston	2,877	382	2,495	2,096	415	290	125
33 cities, Class I	10,019	1,028	8,991	5,586	1,450	1,094	356
Towns of 5,000 or over, Class II	3,303	278	3,025	1,646	583	502	81
Towns of 5,000 or less, Class III	2,057	210	2,447	1,133	433	371	62
Total	15,979	1,516	14,463	8,365	2,466	1,967	499

Men are less than 10 per cent of total. Normal-school graduates a little over half of total. College graduates less than one-sixth of total. College graduates in elementary schools less than one-thirtieth of total.

[1] Monahan and Wright, "Training Courses for Rural Teachers," 1913.

New York, 1910: Total number of teachers, 44,711. State normal graduates, 8,741; college graduates and professional, total, 3,043; graduates of city normal schools and high-school training classes, 12,738.

State normal school, one-fifth of total. State, city, and high-school training school less than one-half of total. College graduates, one-fifteenth of total.

"HOME" TEACHERS AND "OUTSIDE" TEACHERS—"INBREEDING."

Supt. Watson, of Spokane, in answer to an inquiry into the cause of the closing of the training school in that city some years ago, states (1) that the training given by a school in a city of 100,000 can not equal that of a first-rate State school; (2) only the poorest students from the high schools enter the training school; (3) the school authorities are embarrassed by the necessity of placing those trained in positions, even though they may be inferior. He concludes:

> Our teachers are chosen from every source, our aim being to obtain the best teachers we can get for the salaries we are able to pay, and we expect them to have had adequate preparation and distinctly successful experience before receiving appointment in Spokane.

Whatever arguments arise against the city training school, one is sure to meet a statement of the evils of inbreeding. Dr. Edson, in his recommendations concerning Bridgeport, writes:

> There can be no greater misfortune to any school system than to have a steady inbreeding of home talent. The board of education should insist upon the selection of at least one-third of the new teachers each year from outside the city limits or from other training schools than the Bridgeport City Training School.

In a recent Newark report the following emphatic statement is made:

> I have always regarded the rule adopted by the board many years ago, that preference in appointment, whatever the relative excellence of candidates, must be given to local graduates, as not in the interests of the school system. Under this rule a candidate, say, from the Montclair State Normal School, although a resident of the city of Newark, can not be appointed until the eligible list of local normal-school graduates has been completely exhausted. By what line of reasoning—social, moral, or economic—such a preference can be justified, I have never been able to understand. Thus, the Montclair State Normal School graduate, as I have said, may be a graduate from the Newark high school and may have stood at the head of her class. She may have attained an equally high rank in the State Normal School at Montclair, but because she did not graduate from the local normal school, at the expense of the city of Newark, she must suffer the penalty of being accounted less deserving and must yield her right of appointment to a possibly inferior candidate. Only upon the assumption that the local normal school can take *any* material and work it up into a finished product that is superior to the *best* produced elsewhere could such a preference be morally or economically justified. It is analogous to that old party prejudice derived from the Jackson period in our national politics that "to the victors belong the spoils," or to the Know-nothing period in

our political history, when it was sought to shut out foreign immigration by the shibboleth "America for Americans." I am hoping that a more modern, rational, and business-like policy will sometime prevail when individual efficiency will become the sole test in selecting teachers. Now a normal-school pupil realizes that if she does fair work only—not her best—she is sure to graduate in good time and to get a position when her turn comes, ahead of all outsiders. Competition with other schools or with brighter or harder working pupils is out of the question. I am trying to make this as plain as I can, unpopular though it may be in some quarters, because I feel that the children of the city of Newark deserve the best teachers that can be got for the salaries paid, utterly regardless of their nativity or place of abode or of the particular normal school wherein they have been educated.

Education in the United States has made its greatest strides when free interchange of teachers has been encouraged by a liberal and enlightened policy on the part of boards of education. Inbreeding, to use a term derived from biology, has been and is to-day the bane and blight of a great many school systems in this country.

City School Circular No. 19, of the United States Bureau of Education, dated June 9, 1913, summarizes the chief difficulties reported by superintendents in cities from 2,000 to 30,000 population. No responsibility for the training of teachers before entering service is referred to, but the largest amount of space is given to "How to secure and retain competent teachers and how to prevent the election of incompetent 'home teachers' who may be related to some member of the board or to some prominent citizen."

Supt. Phillips, of Birmingham, discusses the whole problem very thoroughly in his annual report. Applications in that city are classified as general, eligible, and preferred.

Preference is given, naturally, other things being equal, to those who are graduates of a reputable college or university—a college that requires for entrance four years of high-school work. * * * It is imperative that not more than one-third of the new teachers elected from year to year be selected from the graduates of the local training school. * * * If it could be found practicable, an exchange of training-school graduates between two cities would be an excellent plan.

Dr. Phillips's proportion of one-third from local supply is less than that recommended in other cities. Newark places the proportion of experienced teachers from outside sources at from one-fourth to one-third. In Pittsburgh, when the training school was opened, a rule was made that not more than 60 per cent be drawn from this source. Indianapolis has for years limited the number trained in its own school to not more than four-fifths of the need and has kept in close touch with some of the leading State normal schools in order to secure outside teachers. St. Paul, in the appointment of 244 elementary teachers, took 166 from that city, 37 from other sections of Minnesota, and 41 from outside the State. In Burlington, Iowa, every fourth teacher must come from outside the city. Youngstown, Bay City, Chelsea, and Watertown make restrictions. Akron does not fill more than one-third of the vacancies in its schools from the

city, and Harrisburg secures half its teachers from elsewhere. In 1908 Supt. Gorton, of Yonkers, speaking of 60 vacancies says: "It is not possible to maintain the standard of these schools if we inject into the force 30 or more inexperienced teachers in any year." There are cities, however, which take another view of the matter. In St. Louis, in 1910–11, 24 per cent of the white teachers of the city were graduates of the teachers college. The year before, when it had become evident that the college would soon furnish a sufficient supply for the schools, the board approved the following recommendation of the superintendent of instruction:

> The annual number of graduates from the teachers college is now about equal to the annual supply needed for the district schools. It is therefore recommended that, till further need develops, the examinations for district-school teachers and the selection of such teachers by certificate or diploma qualifications be discontinued.

In the New Orleans report for 1911 it is reported that the city can now "hold out the prospect of very nearly meeting the demand for teachers now existing."

In Rochester the number of graduates had doubled between 1908 and 1910. This was explained by these reasons:

> (1) Increase of salary in the Rochester schools.
> (2) Our principals so markedly prefer training-school graduates over out-of-town teachers that positions are practically assured to graduates.

From Chicago comes this report:

> For three years previous to 1912 new teachers came from the Chicago Normal College, but owing to the scarcity of teachers an examination was given at the close of 1912, in which 135 teachers outside the city were successful. Of this number 75 are now teaching in Chicago (May 20, 1913), and the other 60 will go into the service as soon as their contracts in other places expire.

In New York graduates from normal or training schools located outside the city were licensed to teach upon examination as follows: In 1900, 133; in 1901, 353; in 1902, 227; in 1903, 154; in 1904, 112; in 1905, 138; in 1906, 178; in 1907, 242; in 1908, 274; in 1909, 121; in 1910, 82.

Despite the strong tendency in some quarters to prefer local teachers, one can scarcely agree with the principal of a large city training school who says: "Outside teachers are rarely taken except when the normal-schoool list is exhausted. Universal testimony is that they are not as satisfactory."

Nearly all cities make some provision for allowing experienced teachers from other schools to enter the service at something better than the minimum salary. A common rule is to allow one-half of the teacher's experience to count in determining the salary in the new position. There are, however, limitations of one kind and another sufficient in some large cities practically to keep the community entirely dependent upon the annual supply of young women inexperienced beyond the practice work of the local schools.

Some years ago Portland, Oreg., closed its teachers' training school, but it has continued in the high-school courses for prospective teachers. A report on the Portland public-school system, made under the direction of Prof. Cubberly, of Leland Stanford Junior University, condemns the policy and recommends that the district should endeavor to attract the best teachers from all quarters. Quotations follow which represent the position of the investigators:

> One great trouble with all such local training schemes is that they are too easy to get through, and inevitably result in an in-breeding process which sooner or later saps the vigor and independence of the school system. Having finished the inadequate course of training provided, the graduates come to expect jobs in the school, and the schools, unable to offer any good reason why they should not take what they have graduated, gradually fill up their schools with such material to the exclusion of the better teachers from the outside. The girls who take the training may be good enough as prospective material, but the course of training usually provided is so absolutely inadequate that it does not give the necessary breadth of view of the proper professional conceptions.
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> * * * * * * * * *
>
> It is an almost necessary part, too, of a teacher's preparation to go away from home for at least part of her training; to come in contact with other schools and other methods of work; and to learn to think for herself by rubbing up against the differing opinions of other people.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE.

Dr. Ruediger's report on "Agencies for the improvement of teachers in service"[1] shows the present status of the training of teachers after they have entered the service. It would naturally be expected that the city training schools would do a large part of this work except in the largest cities; however, it is not usual to find these schools prepared to offer advanced courses. The corps is small, and in many cases its members have had little training beyond that of the other teachers in the system. Where special teachers are available, courses are often given in drawing, music, physical training, and other practical arts, the need of which is more obvious to a teacher than is her need of the common-school subjects or of cultural courses.

Reference is made on pages 113–114 to the alumnæ associations connected with training schools. These have in some cases done much toward affording opportunity for continuance of growth. Other teachers' organizations have been very effective in accomplishing this end. The value to their respective cities of the Schoolmen's Club of Philadelphia and of the Schoolmasters' Club of Cincinnati would be hard to estimate.

The courses given under the direction of the training-school corps are either after school or Saturday classes or those offered in summer sessions.

[1] U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 9, 1913.

Chicago and St. Louis have carried out the fullest programs of extension work in both winter and summer classes. The summer course in Chicago began in 1910, with two 5-week sessions. The classes were open to all teachers in public, parochial, and private schools in Chicago, but no teacher could attend more than five weeks in one year or take more than two subjects during the term.

In St. Louis a five-weeks' course was offered in the summer of 1911:

> Regular substitute and apprentice teachers, principals, and supervisors of the public schools of the city and students of the Harris Teachers' College may be enrolled in any course without payment of tuition.

The principal reports:

> The practice followed of making extension work voluntary rather than obligatory is, I am sure, the wisest policy and should be continued. No teacher should feel compelled to take this work. At the same time I am convinced that this work should be much better advertised in the schools than it has been. Teachers should understand better than they now do just what the opportunities are which the board of education is offering them through this department

In 1910–11 about 68 per cent of the grade teachers who were not graduates of the college, and 44 per cent of those who were, attended extension courses; 59 per cent of the principals took one or more courses.

St. Louis extension courses, winter term.

Subjects.	Enrollment.	Average attendance.	Average membership.	Membership at close.	Per cent of attendance.	Number receiving certificates.	Number of lessons.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Problems of school supervision	52	46	48	46	96	38	20
History of philosophic thought	25	21	23	21	91	16	20
Psychology and history of arithmetic	10	8	10	9	80	7	20
Child psychology: Control	13	13	13	13	100	13	20
German literature	14	9	11	8	81	7	20
Easy German prose reading	26	11	14	9	78	9	20
General geology	15	10	12	9	83	7	20
Social and industrial problem of St. Louis	30	21	24	19	88	17	20
Social and industrial history of United States	32	27	30	26	90	26	20
Geography of North America	12	9	11	9	82	9	20
Types of literature	12	9	11	9	82	7	20
History of English literature	21	15	17	16	88	16	20
Freehand perspective	17	10	13	10	77	8	20
Design	20	16	20	15	80	14	20
Illustration	35	24	28	21	86	19	20
Gymnastic, folk and national dancing practice	64	47	55	47	86	36	20
Music methods	9	5	6	4	83	3	20
Elementary French	39	26	29	24	90	20	20
Intermediate French	26	22	23	21	94	19	20
Advanced French	15	15	15	15	100	7	20
Advanced Italian	12	11	11	11	100	6	20
Millinery	58	35	42	42	83	30	20
Manual training	16	12	14	12	86	9	20
Dressmaking	35	14	20	7	70	5	20
Domestic science (cooking)	78	66	75	75	88	66	20
Latin, Livy	11	8	9	8	89	8	20
Elementary Latin	14	9	11	9	82	9	20
Total	720	519	596	515	87	423	

In the whole extension course 448 different persons were enrolled.

The courses in both St. Louis and Chicago are given almost entirely by members of the teaching force. Special lecturers are called in to give short courses. Nearly all departments of the colleges are represented.

The work of the Chicago extension classes is distinctly of college grade. Most of the courses offered are of the character of senior college work and are designed to carry the students beyond the normal two years' work of the teachers' college or normal school.

The winter courses offer something of the same problem that appears in evening classes. The question is often raised whether teachers who do justice to their school and other requirements ought to spare the energy needed for systematic class work during the school year. There is no doubt that a certain proportion of the teachers in any community can do so, but there are many who find it difficult. In St. Louis, in 1910–11, there were 210 students enrolled in the summer term in 19 courses, to whom 264 certificates were issued. In the winter term, 13 courses were given to 239 students (284 enrollments) and 165 received certificates. The per capita cost for instruction in the summer was $13.33, and the winter extension salaries amounted to $540.

Youngstown, Ohio, is the only smaller city reporting a summer school. This had a session of four weeks, two hours a day. During the year the principal of the training school offers one hour a week of general method and one hour of practice teaching.

Cleveland reports that, in the past, extension courses were given and that they may be resumed. In Philadelphia there are courses in manual training, gymnastics and folk dancing, dramatic art, and advanced kindergarten. In Elmira the classes are in domestic science, domestic art, history, pedagogy, Greek art; in Watertown, music, drawing, penmanship, and manual training; in Schenectady, child study, educational psychology, sewing, and cooking.

TRAVEL AND EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS.

The general principle of orientation, as evidenced in opportunity for travel and for exchange teacherships, is well established in universities and has some recognition of late in secondary schools. It seems impossible that this will not soon be seen to be an important means of elevating standards in elementary schools. The most natural beginning would be in the normal and training schools, for here influence can be exerted upon the teachers at their most impressionable period. The third-year plan in English training colleges includes opportunities for foreign study and travel. In this country the exchange of teachers has been discussed in Denver and some other cities.

The schools of Indianapolis have been noted for excellence for many years. The foundations were laid by Supt. Shortridge, who selected superior teachers who went for training to Oswego and the Concord School of Philosophy, and made use of such other means of growth as were then available. These teachers brought back new life into the schools, but especially into the training school. One of the most effective means of raising and maintaining standards in Indianapolis has been by means of a fund which came to the city from an old teacher. The following statement is from the superintendent's report, 1908–9:

In 1879 the board of school commissioners came into possession of a part of the estate of Thomas D. Gregg, who at one time was a teacher in the Indianapolis public schools. In Mr. Gregg's will was the following bequest:

All the rest, residue, and remainder of my estate, of every description, real, personal, and mixed, I give, devise, and bequeath to the City of Indianapolis, in the State of Indiana, to be and remain a perpetual fund for the advancement and promotion of free schools in said city, hereby authorizing and directing the legal authorities of said city to invest said bequest in productive stocks, or put the same out on interest, and the income or interest thereon only to be expended annually for the benefit and advancement of said free schools.

The fund now amounts to $37,000, the income of which is at present about $1,900 a year. Since the fund became available, in 1891, the income has been used chiefly in giving teachers special training at various institutions.

Since the fund was established, upward of 150 teachers have received its benefits. These teachers usually attend summer schools. Several have received half-year scholarships at various universities. Two recipients of the fund went to Germany for study there.

Only by means of the fund were some of these teachers able to continue their studies. In almost every instance the recipients have returned to the schools with added power and renewed enthusiasm. Many recipients of the fund have become leaders in the activities of the schools.

During the past three years a part of the income has been used to pay for lectures before the entire teaching body of the city.

More recently another bequest has come from the estate of a colored teacher:

In 1896 the board came into possession of $1,500 as a bequest of the late William T. McCoy, who was at one time a colored teacher in the Indianapolis schools. By the provisions of the bequest, the income of this fund is to be used for the benefit of the colored schools of the city. Only a part of the income has thus far been used, chiefly for scholarships in summer schools, for the purchase of lantern slides for exhibiting the work of colored schools, and for the purchase of tools for gardening.

In Minneapolis six principals and one eighth-grade teacher were sent out by the school authorities to visit and report upon the schools of New York, Omaha, St. Louis, Kansas City, Boston, Newtonville, and Springfield. Supt. Jordan writes about this experiment:

Upon their return the visitors gave their reports at a meeting of teachers and principals called for that purpose. We believe that the study of other school systems by principals of our teaching corps has been very valuable to us all in many ways. We expect to continue this work whenever possible.

A printed report was made, but the edition is exhausted.

A recent Boston school report contained an extended account of the work of the Harris Teachers' College at St. Louis, as seen by a member of the administrative force sent there on a visit.

Boston has worked out a plan for a sabbatical year, which was taken advantage of by three members of the training school corps in 1912.

Supt. Chadsey, of Detroit, is at work upon a plan whereby teachers after eight years of service may receive $50 a month for 12 months, during which time they may visit other systems as a means of further growth.

THE CORPS OF THE TRAINING SCHOOL.

The staff of the training schools includes (1) principals, (2), "theory" teachers, (3) teachers of the arts, (4) teachers having to do with practice (see page 60), and (5) office force. The tables on pages 145–149 offer some material for consideration with reference to these various groups.

The principals in the larger schools are mostly men. With the exception of Brooklyn, no school in the list of large cities has a woman principal until New Orleans is reached (1 in 16). The administration of the Chicago College for a number of years by Dr. Ella Flagg Young should be recalled here. Of the 24 cities having more than 100,000 population, from New Orleans down, only 7 have men principals. In the 25 schools in cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants, 7 principals are men.

In 38 schools in the larger cities, 4 principals have salaries of $5,000 and over (Chicago pays $5,500); 4 have between $4,000 and $5,000; 4 between $3,000 and $4,000; 16 between $2,000 and $3,000; 9 between $1,500 and $2,000; and 1 has $1,200.

In 22 cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants, 1 principal receives $2,700; 3 from $2,000 to $2,200; 4 from $1,500 to $2,000; 7 from $1,200 to $1,500; 6 from $1,000 to $1,200; and 1 receives $900.

The "theory" teacher has been looked upon as occupying a position superior in requirements and remuneration to that of the teacher of practice. In only two of the larger cities, Washington and Bridgeport, are the salaries of the two classes equal. In New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Boston the maximum for "theory" teachers reaches $3,000 and above (New York, $3,250). In none of these cities do members of the practice department receive more than $1,850,[1] and the maximum runs as low as $1,400.

[1] The apparent exceptions in Boston of a maximum of $3,780 for the director of substitutes and practice teaching should not be counted, as this position is not comparable with the others under consideration.

In the other larger cities, Pittsburgh advances "theory" teachers to $2,500; Newark to $2,100; Detroit and Washington to $1,800; Buffalo, Louisville, Rochester, and Columbus to $1,500. The lowest salaries reported are Baltimore, $700 (in the colored school); and Birmingham, $540. The maxima in these cities are $1,200 and $900. Teachers having to do with practice receive in New York a maximum of $1,850; in Washington, $1,800; Newark, $1,600; Chicago and Indianapolis, $1,500; Jersey City, $1,400; Columbus, $1,300; Detroit, St. Paul, and Buffalo, $1,300. Those having a maximum below $1,000 are Baltimore, Louisville (colored), Richmond, Atlanta, and Dayton.

A report on the proportion of members of the corps having college degrees shows Dayton, Yonkers, Charleston, Evansville, Jamaica, New York, Brooklyn, Fort Wayne, Washington (colored), Elmira, and Baltimore (white and colored), having 50 per cent or over of the teachers in the "theory" department who have degrees. Newark reports that all "theory" teachers have degrees; Cleveland, all but the teachers of "special" subjects. Youngstown and St. Louis (colored) report that all have degrees in both "theory" and practice departments. In the practice department most of the schools report no college degrees. Newark alone, of the larger schools, has as high a proportion as one-third.

Per cent of teachers holding degrees.

Cities.	Theory teachers.	Practice teachers.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
Albany	2	1
Atlanta	0	0
Baltimore:		
White	83	0
Colored	50	0
Boston	50	
Buffalo	25	0
Charleston	50	
Cleveland	[1]100	0
Columbus	33	25
Concord	0	0
Dayton	50	
Elmira	50	0
Evansville	50	0
Fall River	25	0
Fort Wayne	50	0
Indianapolis	30	8
Jamaica	50	0
New Orleans	22	0
Newark	100	33
New York	80	9
Philadelphia	45	2
Richmond	33	0
Rochester	43	19
St. Louis (colored)	100	100
Trenton	33	
Washington:		
White	33	25
Colored	50	0
Watertown	0	0
Yonkers	75	
Youngstown	100	100

[1] All except special.

Following is a statement of the number of periods each week in which "theory" teachers are occupied with classes. The varying organization of schools makes these figures of little conclusive value, but they are suggestive at least.

Periods each week in which theory teachers are occupied with classes.

Albany	24	Dayton	25	Philadelphia	16–22
Atlanta	25	Elmira	15	Richmond	30
Baltimore	17	Evansville	20	Rochester	15–20
Boston	16	Fall River	20–24	St. Louis: Colored	25
Buffalo	10	Fort Wayne	20	Washington:	
Charleston	25	Indianapolis	12	White	25
Cleveland	15–18	Jamaica	17	Colored	20
Columbus	20	Newark	20	Youngstown	22
Concord	All	New York	15–20		

The ratio of teachers to students varies greatly in the various training schools. In one city a school is overstaffed, while in another city a larger school has to get along with a much smaller force of teachers.

No attempt is made to discuss the work of the teachers of the arts. In Chicago a special building with a strong staff cares for these departments. At the other extreme are the small cities and unfortunately some of the large cities in which this work is cared for by the already overworked supervisors of special subjects for the whole city.

The office work in city training schools still falls largely upon the principals and teachers. Only two schools in cities having less than 100,000 population report any provision for clerical assistance and in the cities of over 100,000 inhabitants not more than half are furnished librarians and clerks. The table on pages 145–149 furnishes detailed information on this subject. It is not uncommon in large schools to find high-salaried teachers working regularly on rolls and lists and taking charge of the listing and distributing of books and supplies.

A new standard is indicated by developments in New York City following the inquiry made by Dr. Hanus and his associates under the direction of the board of estimate.

PUBLICATIONS AND OTHER CONTRIBUTIONS.

When the city training school is tested from the standpoint of productive scholarship, it has little positive evidence to offer. The conditions have been and are in few cases favorable to experimentation, research, or publication. Heavy schedules on the part of both students and teachers, the negative results of the inbreeding system, the immediacy of city course of study demands, and the lack of largeness

of view in city school planning have told heavily on these schools in a department in which they could have rendered valuable service. They are usually denied even the simple announcement and course of study circulars, which serve not only to maintain the circulation of State institutions, but also to give to members of a school corps the jolt in thinking that comes with the preparation of copy for the printer. The connection between the school and its prospective members in the high school is so immediate that there is little occasion for the circularizing which is utilized elsewhere by large-minded executives for other purposes.

Whatever record appears is usually confined to a few pages incorporated in the report of the city superintendent, in which there is little opportunity for any extended statement of issues, needs, and policies.

Chicago and Cleveland are instances of cities which publish a general circular giving a fair amount of information concerning the schools, but in most cities there is practically no material printed whereby the training school can be judged and its work compared with what is done elsewhere. Even syllabi of courses are not easily accessible. Some of the reports made by special examiners indicate that those which are found are not kept up to date. This is apt to be the case where revision depends upon hand copying, and the limited amount of clerical assistance reduces the possibilities of manifolding, while, without a special appropriation, printed outlines are less common in schools in which students expect to receive books and material free than they are in those in which they are printed for sale.

Not much editing of texts is done in the city training schools, nor do many articles appear in the educational journals by members of their faculties. The *Educational Bi-Monthly*, edited by the corps of the Chicago Training College, is a notable exception, but, unfortunately, the present municipal methods of publication prevent any subscription arrangement, and there is a consequent lack of influence upon the other communities and help from them. A great service to the training of teachers would be made at little expense by allowing this journal to have a wider circulation upon the foundation its use in the city assures.

UNIVERSITY CREDIT FOR TRAINING SCHOOL WORK.

The demands of immediacy upon the training school have given arguments to the conservative university authorities against granting credit for work done. A few subjects, such as psychology, have the best academic standing, while those dealing with the elementary

school curriculum, and especially with practice teaching, are most definitely discredited. Even the man who has had the good fortune to see a course in observation and practice teaching made a means of rare discipline and growth through problem work, realizes the narrowness of apprenticeship required in many situations. Our terminology is not clear. There is no doubt of the place of elementary, secondary, and higher schools in general, but in many cities the administration of the training school offers practical difficulties because its status is not determined. Preparation for elementary teaching keeps it close to that department, and the shortness and limitation of its course keeps it from recognition as a higher school. Dr. MacLean, in his report on "Present Standards of Higher Education in the United States,"[1] concerns himself with theology, medicine, law, engineering, dentistry, pharmacy, fine arts, and music, but makes no reference to normal schools.

The Carnegie Foundation report for 1912 (pp. 114–115) gives some data regarding credits given by various universities for work done in normal schools.

While State normal schools have had difficulty in making adjustment with degree-giving institutions, their relationship to State universities, where these exist, has led to fairly liberal conditions.[2] In general, the entrance standards of city training schools can more easily be held up to a higher standard than can those of some of the State schools, but the matter of credit in higher schools offers special problems. The courses of city normals are probably more utilitarian even than those of State schools. This is due in part to the greater evenness of entrance preparation, and in large part to the limitations arising from sending the greater number of graduates into a single field.

The authorities of city schools do not usually recognize the value of further training for their teachers. The acquiring of a degree by an elementary teacher usually means seeking for a position in a higher school. This will continue as long as elementary salaries continue at the bottom of the list. In few cases has any systematic effort been made to articulate the training course with that of any degree-giving institution.

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[1] U. S. Bureau of Education, Bull. No. 4, 1913.

[2] The State of Oregon has published an official definition of a standard normal school, as follows:

"By a standard normal school is meant a school meeting the following requirements—

"(a) For entrance, four years' work above the eighth grade in a secondary school.

"(b) For graduation, two years' additional work, including a thorough review of the common branches and training in a practical school.

"(c) The maintenance of a well-equipped training school for observation and practice, such school to cover work in the eight elementary grades.

"(d) The total attendance in the secondary school and in the normal school shall be 216 weeks above the eighth grade: *Provided*, That any normal school may accept satisfactory credits covering 20 weeks above the eighth grade."

At St. Louis this problem has been considered, as the following quotation from an announcement will show:

> The board of education at its meeting October 12, 1909, provided that a part of the work of the Teachers College shall hereafter be organized and unified into courses of study which shall be equivalent in training and culture value to the first three years of the customary university courses which lead to the B. S., B. A., or Ed. B. degree. The object of the board in making this provision was to open the way for any ambitious and energetic teacher in the elementary schools who may desire to do so to obtain a college education and thus fit herself for a larger and better work in the public schools. This may now be done at very little expense to the teacher herself.

An inquiry sent to several of the universities to which students go from the city training schools shows a variety of adjustments. The University of Missouri allows two years' credit on the three-year course at Harris Teachers College. Washington University, at St. Louis, answers:

> No credit except as a subject of college rank or a fair equivalent for a college subject is studied in the training school. A secondary school subject taught in a secondary school manner brings no credits.

There are six students from the college in attendance upon Washington University. A provisional agreement has been made whereby students having completed the three years' course are admitted to the junior class deficient in but six credits. If a student is earnest and has reasonable ability, he or she may complete the course and obtain the A. B. degree in two years.

In Philadelphia, the University of Pennsylvania allows to normal-school graduates from 6 to 24 units. In 1912, students from the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia received 14½ units, which was the number allowed to normal schools whose courses require four years of secondary school preparation. The School of Pedagogy (for boys) has a more definitely academic course, and for this 22 to 24 units of credit were allowed. (A unit is one hour of work per week for the academic year.) Temple University has a course leading to the degree of bachelor of science in education. The School of Pedagogy receives full credit for two years (30 units). The Girls' Normal School receives 17 units credit and the State normals from 15 to 20 units.

At Chicago, it is stated:

> If courses are well selected and are such as are accredited in the curriculum of the University of Chicago toward any of its degrees, credit is allowed at a rate not to exceed 8 majors for each year spent in the training school.

This applies only to the better class of schools. Many students are enrolled from the schools in Chicago, Indianapolis, St. Louis, and Cleveland.

At Northwestern University, 52 to 56 semester hours' credit is allowed, out of a total requirement for two years of 60 credits. A

semester of satisfactory work in the university is required before any credit is given.

In New York City, Teachers College has been more liberal than many institutions, and care has been taken to do full justice in the matter of credits, determining each case, however, on its merits. New York University allows two years' credit to schools approved by the New York State department of education. The training schools in New York City and in New Jersey receive full credit.

Adelphi College allows to city schools 34 points out of 120 for the degree of A. B. This same amount is given to State schools. A plan is under discussion for a closer articulation of courses, which will permit one and a half years' credit.

Boston University accredits the normal school of that city with 4 units for psychology and 17 for education.

At Cleveland the Western Reserve University college for women gives one year of credit.

The Pittsburgh Training School is a new institution, and its relations to the University of Pittsburgh have not been fully determined. It is hoped that two full years of credit will be given.

George Washington University allows one year of credit to graduates of the Washington school. Howard University (colored) gives no credit.

These are official statements and individual cases can be found which show variation. The least encouragement comes from the old-line universities and from the women's colleges. The latter grew up in the days when the issue between the classical course and others was at its height. The desire to be successfully established did not lead to a liberal attitude toward other than the old courses; so that the women's colleges have done little to lead normal-school graduates to degree courses unless they were willing to sacrifice the two years spent in the training course. Howard University (colored) at Washington has had similar reasons for the attitude it has maintained.

It will be seen from the preceding statement that the graduates of the schools in most of the large cities are able to make arrangements whereby in from two to three years they are able to secure a university degree without going away from home. When, however, this is not possible, as in Baltimore, there is a constant drain upon the teaching force caused by the resignation of teachers who wish to secure positions near cities in which there are more liberal conditions. In Baltimore there is a first-class woman's college (Goucher), but no articulation of courses is permitted. Extension courses, duplicating work in the institutions, are given under the joint direction of Goucher College and Johns Hopkins University, but it requires several years of attendance to obtain credit toward a degree. The

result is that a graduate of the training school who wishes to take a degree on the basis of the two years' course must leave the State to accomplish this end.

MUNICIPAL HIGHER EDUCATION.

The city training school is the most definite undertaking by American municipalities of educational responsibilities beyond the high-school period. Chicago and St. Louis have used the name "teachers' college" to designate these institutions, and New York has established a college of wider scope for each sex. Cincinnati has a municipal university controlled by a board of trustees appointed by the mayor.

The beginnings of the University of Cincinnati came from a bequest. In 1911 the endowment had grown to $765,473.44. In the same year the income from the city amounted to $140,610.98 from a tax levy made by the city council, plus $10,200 paid by the board of education for the training of teachers. The tuition fee is $75. There are colleges of engineering, medicine, and education; also a graduate school. Of 696 students in the college of liberal arts, only 144 came from outside the city, while of the entire membership of 1,331 students, 980 were from the home city. In other Ohio colleges 107 Cincinnati students were registered and 138 in other colleges in the East and in the Middle West. The president estimates that at least 1,000 of 1,115 Cincinnati students in the undergraduate college could not get a college education if this university did not exist. A study of the occupations of fathers and of family incomes and rents tends to confirm the claims made.

The college for teachers was formally organized in 1905. It was, to quote from a statement by Dean Burris—

> the first fruits of a general policy formulated by the president for a municipal university conceived as an instrument of the highest service to every important phase of the city's welfare.

About half the graduates in the college of liberal arts take the teacher's course; there were 33 who finished this course in 1911.

The following statement is taken from the report of the superintendent of public schools:

> The elementary teachers are required to take the regular university course for the first three years, and during the fourth year do sufficient work in the college for teachers to constitute at least 24 out of 30 possible units. They also are required to spend their Saturday mornings with the supervisors of the city teachers of the schools in getting their training in art, physical training, and penmanship. Their total work, therefore, is equivalent to a full year of training added to the regular bachelor of arts course of the university. These students are required to teach for 10 weeks in practice work in addition to 40 preliminary practice lessons, which are criticized by the faculty of the

college of teachers. The faculty of the college is employed by the board of education. The course for the training of teachers is prescribed also by the board of education. The candidates for teaching are arranged in the order of their merit, and after appointment are closely supervised by the same faculty for the first year, and supervision is continued indefinitely thereafter.

Beginning in 1903, a preferred list was established of those who were college graduates with pedagogical training. These teachers have an initial salary of $600, an advance of $150 over that paid to others. The maximum of $1,000 is reached by annual increments of $50 each. Very few teachers who are not college graduates are appointed in the elementary schools. The dean writes:

> Graduates of other institutions having our standards are rated and placed on a merit list with our own graduates. During recent years 71 per cent, on the average, have been our graduates. Indications are that we shall soon have more graduates than vacancies in the local schools. In that event we contemplate having first and second preferred merit tests, the former to constitute all those who have had more advanced preparation than that now required for the preferred list.

The College of the City of New York was organized as a free academy in 1848. In 1854 it was given authority to confer degrees and in 1866 became a college. The city board of education was formerly the board of trustees, but in 1900 a separate board of nine members appointed by the mayor was constituted. The president of the board of education is ex officio a member.

All the work in the department of education is elective, but courses are given which prepare for the college graduate professional certificate of the State of New York and for the city superintendent's examination for license to teach in elementary schools. Dr. Duggan, head of the department of education, writes as follows:

> The College of the City of New York furnishes the great majority of the male teachers to the elementary schools, and a considerable proportion of the male teachers in the high schools of New York City. For the former it provides courses in the history of education, principles of education, school management and administration, methods of teaching, and special methods in music and drawing. For the latter, there is a special course on secondary education. In both cases observation of classroom practice makes up part of the work. In the case of the teachers preparing for secondary schools, practice teaching in our own high school here, Townsend Harris Hall, is one of the most essential features. This practice is done in the presence of a critic teacher who meets the young men in the afternoon and criticizes their work.
>
> Extension courses are given to improve the scholarship and efficiency of the teachers already in the school system. This year there are about three thousand teachers attending the courses. All these courses are registered with the regents at Albany, and receive credit toward higher licenses at the board of education in the city.

Hunter College, formerly called the Normal College of the City of New York, was established February 1, 1870, and received its

charter from the State in 1888. Thomas Hunter, LL. D., was its first president. It is a college for women and grants the degree of A. B. upon the satisfactory completion of a four years' course of study. It is supported by the city of New York, with annual appropriations, that for 1912 being approximately $400,000. Tuition and textbooks are furnished without charge. Students must be residents of the city.

Admissions and graduations are made twice a year. Candidates for admission must present 15 units. The curriculum is arranged according to the elective group system and provides strong optional courses in education for those students who desire to enter the profession of teaching in either secondary or elementary schools. The equipment of the college is being renewed; and new buildings are being erected at a cost of $2,500,000. The students number about 1,250. The teaching staff comprises 13 professors, 14 associate and assistant professors, and 71 instructors. A high school and an elementary school, which are distinct and separate organizations from the college, serve as model and practice schools for students intending to teach.

George Samler Davis, LL. D., is the president.

In the announcement of the college for 1912,[1] the following statement shows the judgment of the institution with reference to its graduates:

> So successful have our students been in this phase of our work, that, although the college is organized in all respects as a college of liberal culture, it is proving itself to be the most efficient source of training for teachers in our city schools.

Supt. Maxwell furnishes the following statement, which shows the proportion of teachers appointed from the various municipal institutions to the city service during the year ending June 30, 1912:

Number of nominations		1,568
Graduates, New York City Training School for Teachers	1,009	
Graduates, New York City Normal College	218	
Graduates, College of the City of New York	140	
Graduates of institutions other than the above	167	
Nominations on experience	34	
		1,568

The distinction between certain formal and established courses for the college period and the newer movements to provide some form of suitable schooling for those adults who wish it is not made clear. We need some term to cover the later developments. A representative of the Carnegie foundation objects to the use of the term "higher

[1] New York Normal College, 1912, p. 11.

education" in referring to the work of training schools. The same lack of definition is no doubt in part responsible for the tendency deplored in the foundation's report of 1912—"the effort of the normal school in many States to transform itself into an arts college."

New York and Los Angeles are carrying on many forms of popular education for adults, which can be included under the somewhat loose term "municipal higher education." Some special courses for municipal employees have been given in New York and Cincinnati. Boston has done pioneer work in a much needed field by establishing evening classes for school janitors. The courses given relate to the subject of fuel, including its kinds, distribution, the principles governing its combustion, and the operation of various types of heating and power plants with economy and efficiency. The instruction is given by recognized experts in the employ of the board of schoolhouse commissioners and of the school committee, and is being pursued by some 50 school janitors. The class meets two evenings each week during the evening school term and will have 29 lessons.

A plan is under consideration for the establishment of what will practically be a training school for janitors, in that new men on entering the service will be placed under the direction and supervision of experienced men, who will instruct them in the details of their work, and thus fit them to handle efficiently the various types of heating apparatus installed in school buildings.

The late Mayor Gaynor's proposed program for New York City, article 2, read: "Developing a plan for and organizing a training school for probationary policemen."

It is surprising how little material on the subject of education is found in the many publications on municipal matters. Consultation of several of the largest libraries and correspondence with many of the leading experts failed to reveal any considerable number of references.

There is some tendency to charge this defect, in part at least, to the desire to keep school affairs, as far as possible, in a compartment separate in control from other municipal interests. There seem to be few exceptions among school men as to the desirability of this dualism, but it is possible that the advantages that come from it have been dearly paid for.

In "A Municipal Program," prepared by the National Municipal League (Macmillan, 1900, p. 171), the following significant statement appears:

It is well to bear in mind, however, that the independence of the school administration has diverted from the city government some of the best energies of the community. By making this department a branch of the city government, the interest in the general affairs of the municipality and in the character of the candidates for the council will be greatly increased.

The question whether or not elementary education should be vested in the hands of a distinct school government operating within the same territorial

limits as the municipal corporation is one upon which it would not be wise, perhaps, to enter in this paper. If the course of our educational history had not, as a matter of fact, in most parts of the United States, as well as in England, differentiated public-school administration in a more or less complete fashion, it is probable that the students of municipal and local administration would think it altogether best for symmetrical local progress if all branches of local governmental administration were reduced to a single unified and symmetrical system, and this is the opinion of the committee (p. 71).

The tendency toward a commission form of municipal government[1] has been studied to find what consideration is given to educacational readjustment. While undoubtedly, in time, there will be great pressure here also in favor of change, at present the dualism tends to leave the schools on one side while the other controls are reconstructed. This may prove to have disadvantages in the long run. Dr. Goodnow, in *City Government in the United States*, is one of the few who sees the problem of relationship. His objection to the movement appears as follows:

> The school board is succumbing to the same influence that destroyed the city council, and in time there will be a school department with a single commissioner at its head, having toward the school department about the same powers and duties that the single commissioner or other executive has toward his department. Reduced in numbers, in some cases composed of salaried members, its educational functions lost to the superintendent, its executive functions going to a director, the school board will not have enough to do to attract men who are interested in the schools and will soon come to occupy, if the movement keeps on at the same pace, a position of as little influence as that which has been accorded to the city council by the charters of many of our cities.

In European countries that form of university which looks for support to a municipality or other local government has had better opportunity for development than it has had in America. In Germany, among the newer universities of this type, are Hamburg and Frankfort. Leipzig is an older instance. In England are found the Universities of London, Birmingham, Liverpool, Bristol, Manchester, Leeds, and others carried forward or aided by county and municipal authorities. Other cases are found in Belgium, Russia, and other countries in which city grants are an important factor. In such cities as Melbourne, Sydney, Wellington, and Auckland are universities supported by private endowments, but receiving assistance from the cities and closely connected with the city life.

The separation of control has tended to affect the training of teachers and possibly to retard municipal responsibility for training its employees in other departments of the city service. In Germany there are beginnings of a larger inclusion. On October 30, 1911, in

[1] "Questions relating to the general efficiency of school systems were prepared [in the 10 cities studied], but were not used, except in Houston, for elsewhere the board of education is entirely separate from the city government. In Houston the board is responsible only to the mayor, and not to the board of commissioners. In the other cities surveyed school administration had not been directly influenced by the commission movement."

Dusseldorf there was opened a college for municipal officers and those intending to enter municipal service. It may seem Utopian to look forward to a time when those who plan to be teachers will have a part of their training at least in the same classes with men and women who will serve in other city departments, but there would be some large gains in such a scheme, even though the task of carrying it out offers many difficulties.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS AND STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.

Special mention should be made of the eight large cities with no city training schools which have State normal schools so accessible that young people preparing to teach in these cities can live at home and receive their preparation in the State schools. These cities are San Francisco, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, Providence, Oakland, Worcester, New Haven, and Lowell. Of these cities, San Francisco, Milwaukee, New Haven, and Lowell at one time had schools of their own, but have given them up and thrown the responsibility for training their teachers upon the State.

In most cases the city has no definite relation to the State school, except to receive its graduates into teaching positions. In Providence, however, a close affiliation has been worked out which seems to meet the interests of both parties. About half the students in the State school have residence in Providence. The course is practically two and one-half years. Salary on appointment is $400, rising to a maximum of $750 to $900. The agreement between the trustees of the Rhode Island Normal School and the school committee of the city provides, among other things:

> It is expressly understood and agreed that no critic teacher shall be continued in charge of any such training school if her work is unsatisfactory either to said trustees or to said superintendent.
>
> It is further understood and agreed that if the work of any such teacher in training is unsatisfactory to said trustees they may remove such teacher in training and substitute some one else in her place, and that if, in the opinion of said superintendent, the work of any such teacher in training is so unsatisfactory as to be injurious to the school, said trustees will withdraw such teacher in training at the request of said superintendent.
>
> Such critic teachers shall be chosen by said trustees with the approval of said superintendent, to serve as such critic teachers for such training schools. Critic teachers so chosen shall receive their entire salary and pay from the city of Providence, the same to be not less than their present salaries.
>
> The said trustees shall allow to the city of Providence for the services of each such critic teacher, as follows:
>
> For the first year of service in primary or grammar grades, $200.
>
> For the second year of service in primary or grammar grades, $250.

For the third and subsequent years of service in primary grades, $300.

For the third year of service in grammar grades, $300.

For the fourth year of service in grammar grades, $350.

For the fifth and subsequent years of service in grammar grades, $400.

All allowances for services of such critic teachers shall be made by the said trustees at the close of each quarter of the school year at the rates aforesaid, and proportionally for any less period of service, the amount due and payable for such service to be credited upon and deducted from the bills or accounts of the said trustees against the said school committee for the tuition of pupils in the Rhode Island Normal School building under that contract between the parties hereto made and entered into September 5, A. D. 1900.

Said teachers in training shall not be entitled to receive any salary from said city of Providence for their services in said training schools.

All of such training schools so maintained at the joint expense of city and State shall at all times be open to the inspection of said trustees and their authorized agents and of the members of the said school committee and their authorized agents.

Either party to this agreement may terminate it at the end of any school year by giving six months' notice in writing of its intention to so terminate the contract.

This agreement shall take the place of the existing arrangement and agreement between said trustees and said school committee for the maintenance of State training schools in school buildings belonging to the city of Providence, all of which existing arrangements and agreements shall this day terminate.

The principal reason why the cities have established their own schools has been that the machinery provided by the State has not been equal to meeting the needs of the entire State. Thus in Pennsylvania 1,400 teachers were graduated in a year from 13 State normal schools, yet in 1908 but one-sixth of the teachers of the State were normal trained, and in one city employing 333 teachers there was but 1 normal graduate.

Baltimore has both city training schools and a State normal school, although the latter is now removing to a location outside the city limits. There has been some discussion of the desirability of merging the city school for training white teachers into the State institution. In the report of the board of school commissioners for 1911 the following statement appears:

One of the most important questions to be considered in connection with a system of education is that of providing a competent body of teachers. Recognizing this fact, the State of Maryland, in 1865, authorized the establishment of a training school for teachers, and in 1866 the State Normal School was opened in Baltimore City. This institution has been with us for more than 40 years, and the greater part of the expenses attending it are borne by the taxpayers, yet our city schools have received comparatively few teachers from among its graduates.

As the State has under consideration the advisability of changing the location of the school, which will carry with it the cost of erecting new buildings, the board, deeming it the proper time, appointed a committee to confer with the State authorities as to the feasibility of designing and equipping the new school for the work of training teachers for the public schools of the entire State.

The State of Maryland maintains a small normal school for colored teachers, but there has been no discussion of the advisability of having the State train the teachers for Baltimore's colored schools.

In New Jersey the question of turning city schools over to the State has been raised in Jersey City and Newark, but in Trenton there are the two schools, that of the city having about one-tenth the membership of the State school.

In the report of the Jersey City school for 1910 there is a strong argument made for the transfer of the city school to the State. The following statement by the superintendent at Newark shows the problem in that city:

CITY NORMAL SCHOOLS COMPARED WITH STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS—ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES.

This topic I discussed in one of my reports to the board several years ago, at a time when the establishment of a new normal school in this section of the State was being considered. What I stated at that time I still hold to be true, namely, that each has some advantages and some disadvantges as compared with the other. Thus the State normal school has the advantage of larger outlook, since it aims to supply teachers for a larger field and to make them acceptable to a larger number of superintendents, principals, and employing boards. The disadvantage that attends this larger purpose is lack of definiteness and precision in what is taught. This is seen both in theory and practice. As a rule, it takes a State normal-school graduate a longer time to "find" herself in a city school system—or, for that matter, in a rural-school district; her knowledge is too general; it is not specific enough to meet special cases. The corrective to this is much practice work before being graduated. In case a sufficient amount of practice work can be had under proper conditions—a difficult matter for a State normal school without its independent practice schools—the State normal school need not suffer by comparison with the best city normal schools.

Again, few State normal schools are able to enforce rigidly a four years' preliminary high-school education. This is said to be done, I know. * * *

The conditions of successful work in both are:

(*a*) Thoroughly prepared candidates—always difficult to secure.

(*b*) A carefully chosen and well-paid staff of teachers; here the conditions favor ordinarily the city normal school.

(*c*) A curriculum that is definite and not overloaded, with time enough to complete it.

(*d*) Absence of pressure from any source to graduate the unworthy; or what is equally good, power to resist such pressure.

Given these conditions, I see no good reason for preferring a city-trained normal-school graduate to a State normal-school graduate, and should, as I have previously stated, be glad to see all preferences other than those based on individual efficiency abolished.

WHY SHOULD NOT THE PEOPLE OF NEWARK ASK THAT THE CITY NORMAL SCHOOL BE MADE A STATE NORMAL SCHOOL OR DEMAND, AT LEAST, THAT SOME OF THE EXPENSE OF MAINTAINING THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE BORNE BY THE STATE?

The duty of training teachers was early assumed by the State in pursuance of the theory that the maintenance of the schools is a State function. That

schools can not be maintained efficiently without trained teachers is a truism that nobody now disputes. Owing to the fact that the supply was not equal to the demand, the cities of the State, or some of them, at least, felt it incumbent upon themselves to train their own teachers. Several—as Newark, Jersey City, Camden, Paterson, Trenton, and Elizabeth—established training schools, some of them in connection with their high schools. These schools, which were merely makeshifts at first, have developed into full-fledged normal schools with elaborate courses of study, a trained corps of teachers, and adequate equipment for work of the best kind. At the outset the cost of maintenance was slight, often the employment merely of one or two specially qualified teachers. At the present time, however, the cost of maintenance has become so great as to impose no small burden upon local taxpayers. Take the case of Newark, for example. It cost for the year 1911–12, to maintain the Newark Normal School, no inconsiderable sum to be taken from the pockets of taxpayers. But, in addition to this, Newark helped support two State normal schools, with the probability that other State normal schools are soon to follow. Why should not the cities of the State that support their local normal schools receive a rebate of some amount, either a certain fixed percentage of the amount expended or a per capita allowance, to be fixed by the legislature, based upon the number of pupils taught? The State of New York long since recognized this equity and pays an annual per capita allowance to school districts maintaining teachers' training classes.

The answer usually made to this question of allowance is that the local normal schools are not governed and administered by the State. In a sense they are governed and in a certain sense they are administered by the State. Thus, the qualifications necessary for a license to teach are fixed by the State. The course of study requires the approval of the State. If it were thought best, as in New York State, to have local boards of trustees appointed to assist the State department in the administration of these schools, legislation to that effect might perhaps be secured.

The objection might be raised on the part of cities that in alienating control the advantages now enjoyed of exclusive use for local needs would be lost. But little weight should be given to this objection. The city of Newark is only interested in securing a sufficient supply of trained teachers. A full normal school would fairly imply an adequate number of teachers, provided the salaries paid were kept at a reasonably high figure. A State normal-school diploma would qualify the holder to teach in any part of the State as well as in Newark. While this would be an advantage to the holder, it would not in all probability lessen the proportion of graduates who would prefer to teach in Newark.

What, then, are the objections, if any, to this plan on the part of the city of Newark? They may be summed up briefly as follows:

(1) Local control would be lost.

(2) Exclusive enjoyment and use would be lost.

Both these objections would be fully compensated for by the reduced cost to the city in the training of its own teachers.

The objection, if any, on the part of the State would be the additional expense to the State. To this objection it is urged that the State is equitably bound to supply trained teachers to all the schools of the State, cities included.

Very likely the city of Newark is quite willing to go on doing what it has so generously done in the past; that is, pay liberally for the support of State normal schools while assuming the whole burden of training the majority of its own teachers.

What would happen if Newark and the other cities of the State were to cease maintaining their local normal schools and were to look for their supply of trained teachers to the State normal schools? A dearth of teachers would at once be felt in school districts that could not successfully meet the competition. Now, the city of Newark is supplying its own teachers wholly at its own expense, and is brought into competition with other school districts only to a relatively small extent.

The situation is one that will sooner or later receive the attention of local taxpayers, and will result, no doubt, in an effort being made to secure some kind of remedial legislation. Either the State should assume control of city normal schools, as it seems to me, or should contribute an equitable sum for their maintenance.

In 1911 the board of education of the State of Massachusetts reported on the desirability of a State normal school in or near Boston, as the schools nearest Boston (Framingham, Salem, and Bridgewater) are crowded even to a greater extent than are the other State schools. The State normal schools are free to residents of the State, but students from outside Boston must pay $100 tuition in order to attend the city normal school. In 1910 the Boston finance commission, in a special report rendered to the mayor relative to the Boston Normal School, recommended that Boston retain control of the school and that the State be asked to contribute to its support.

In the opinion of the (State) board the Commonwealth should not contribute to the support of the Boston Normal School unless that school becomes a State institution, controlled by the State as are the present State normal schools. Only in this way can a general standard be developed and maintained and the necessary correlation of all the schools as to scope, character of work, and accessibility to residents of Massachusetts be secured. (House Doc. No. 4, January, 1912.)

In January, 1913 (House Doc. No. 421), the State board reported that it had reason to believe that the school authorities of Boston coincide in the recommendation made by the finance commission.

Under the circumstances, therefore, the board does not deem it expedient to make recommendations regarding the transfer of the Boston Normal School to the State. The board will doubtless give consideration to this subject again when the question of a new location and building for the Normal Art School is before it, and in this connection will confer with the Boston school authorities.

In the State normal school at Worcester there is a three-year course. About one-fifth of the students come from that city. In Milwaukee 160 teachers are assigned each half year to city schools for a half day's teaching for 20 weeks. In Los Angeles four city buildings are used by the State normal, and cadets are placed in other schools of the city. The critic teachers employed are paid in part by the city.

In other State normal schools the following relationships are reported: Bridgewater critics are paid in part by the State; New Britain and Fitchburg pay per capita rates for the children in the

practice schools; North Adams assigns one large elementary school to the State normal; Oswego uses elementary schools for practice; Ypsilanti Normal uses rooms in the public schools for which the city pays half; Greeley has a city school including kindergarten, elementary, and high-school sections assigned to it; St. Cloud sends each student for six weeks' teaching in the city schools, following the work in the practice school—the normal selects teachers and pays part of their salaries; San Jose has a city school for its use and the city furnishes part of the teaching force; Chico Normal has a city school set apart for it. The city of Chico pays $3,200 a year. The normal students serve as substitutes in the city school.

STATE CONTROL.

The large city is usually in advance of the other units of a State in its requirements and salaries, so that much of the State legislation concerning schools has little effect upon it.

Returns from a questionnaire and further correspondence indicate little relation in most of the States between the city training schools and the State authorities. In answer to the question, "Does your department exercise any direct control over the work of city training schools as to funds, teachers, courses of study, examinations, the issuing or validation of certificates, etc.?" only Indiana, New Jersey, New York, and Virginia answered in the affirmative. Yet in one of the States which replied in the negative, a city superintendent informed me that in his city the training school had been closed because of the limitations imposed by the State. A more extended study would need to go into the limitations imposed by statute as well as those more immediately in the hands of the State board of education.

The lack of relationship was further shown by the fact that in several States the authorities were unable to report what cities have training schools, and even in some cases reported schools as still existing which have been closed.

It has proved to be somewhat more difficult for graduates of city schools to secure credit for their certificates when they desire to teach in other sections of the country than it has for graduates of State schools to do so. This has led at times to anomalous situations. Thus in one case a graduate of a city school was refused recognition in one of our best organized States, but was told that her certificate would be recognized if it came from the State normal school, although it was possible in the latter case to have completed the course in two years less than the time required in the city.

In the matter of certification, New York exercises the most definite control over the graduates of city schools, fixing minimum require-

ments which the cities may increase if they desire to do so. Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, under the new code, have power to regulate certificates. In Illinois cities having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants have their own certification. Certificates issued by city training schools are accepted in other schools without further examination in Delaware, Minnesota, New York, South Carolina, and Virginia. Missouri issues to graduates of the St. Louis school State licenses for one year. Massachusetts reports that probably city certificates would be accepted elsewhere in the State. In that State, except in the case of State-aided high schools, certification is left to the local authorities.

The State of California publishes an accredited list of schools, which in 1913 included those in the cities of Washington, Philadelphia, Chicago, Baltimore, Boston, St. Paul, New York City, Columbus, Dayton, Cleveland, and Toledo. The extent of this list indicates that many teachers seek employment in sections of the country other than the cities in which they were trained. In addition to California, the States reporting that city training school certificates are accepted by them are Missouri, Wyoming, and Virginia. The last of these requires formal recognition by the State in which the school is situated.

The relative standing of city certificates in the city in which they are issued, as compared with those coming from the State-supported schools, is reported as follows: Higher—Alabama, Georgia, Maryland, Pennsylvania (this for Philadelphia only, in other cities equal or lower); equal—South Carolina, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Jersey, New York; lower—Ohio, New Hampshire, Virginia, Indiana (except for Indianapolis). The same question with reference to other schools in the State gives: Higher—Alabama; equal—New York, South Carolina, Pennsylvania (equal or lower); lower—Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, Ohio.

A comparison of city certificates from cities in other States with those issued by State schools shows the following replies: Equal—Arizona, California; lower—Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Maine, Missouri, New Hampshire, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota. The following States give no recognition: Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, West Virginia.

In Minnesota the State aids the city training school by a yearly grant of $750, for apparatus and supplies. In 1910 this had not been used for four years, so that $3,000 had accumulated.

TRAINING CLASSES.

Frequently a training class[1] has been the natural forerunner of a training school. At present few of the larger cities use this plan. Memphis reports as follows (December 17, 1912):

> We have no regular course for training young teachers. Our aid teachers for the past three terms have nearly all been taken from this training class, though some of them have remained in this class only a few weeks. The young ladies must be graduates of a good high school or its equivalent before they are permitted to take up this work. While they are in training the strongest are being sent out daily to do substitute work in the different schools where teachers are sick or out for some reason. They are paid only for the time they are doing substitute work; then they are paid at the rate of $35 per month. First-year aids receive $35; second year, $40; third year, $45; fourth-year aids in charge, $50; and first-year regular teachers, $55 per month for 12 months. After this the salary increases at the rate of $5 per month each year until a maximum of $10[illegible] reached in the grades. Our training class now has about 16 members, [illegible]t 12 have been elected aids since the opening of school.

One of the [illegible]d teachers is placed in each first primary classroom, and others assist in crowded classes. The training class work preceding this aid period is conducted by principals and superintendents. One week is spent with each instructor in turn, and written reports are required on the work done.

Pittsburgh, until 1912, had a training class in a high school. In 1909 there were 36 graduates, four "with honor" and one "with great honor." In one of the recent years the enrollment showed 21 students, while 20 members of the high-school corps were listed for teaching in the normal department. An extended account of the situation appears in the report of the Pittsburgh schools for 1909–10. Many of the graduates of the normal department were compelled to go into the suburban service, as the city boards required experienced teachers. The plan for 1911 called for an added year with a cadet organization, but a year later a two-year training course was opened in a separate school.

Portland, Oreg., has a pupil-teacher training class, but the establishment of a city normal school is under consideration.

Houston reports that the normal work of the high school consists of courses in school management and psychology for those students who intend to teach. The superintendent, in his annual report of 1911–12, makes a recommendation that a training course of one year including some practice teaching be provided.

[1] "To furnish a supply of at least partially trained teachers for the rural schools, 18 States have organized teacher-training courses either in or in connection with public high schools." Besides these schools authorized by the State departments, "training courses are reported in one or more high schools in every State except in Arizona, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island." (Monahan and Wright, "Training Courses for Rural Teachers, 1913.")

In Atlanta it is possible for a teacher to enter the city service either by means of two years' preparation in the normal school, or two years' experience, or one year in the normal and one year of supernumerary teaching, in which no pay is received except for actual substituting and $2 a month car fare.

In the report of the superintendent of schools in Saginaw (E. S.), Mich., for 1911, the following items concerning a training class appear:

Item 28. Paid current expenses teachers' training school, $3,525.
87. Average number in daily attendance teachers' training school, 10.
57. Number of pupil teachers, 10.
70. Salaries paid supervisor, manual training teachers, principal of training school, gymnasium teachers, and parochial teachers, per month, $2,003.50.
70. Salaries paid pupil teachers, $475.
77. Average salaries paid pupil teachers, per month, $5.

Gloucester, Mass., has a training class. Its membership in 1912–13 was 14. These "have been assigned to schools in various sections of the city. They are alive with interest and seem impressed with the importance of the work for which they are preparing."

In the report for 1911–12, of the schools in Canton, Ohio, the following reference is made to a scheme of training:

> The assistant teachers have for the most part been greatly interested in the work, and the training they have received will be beneficial not only to them but to the schools. Almost all of the assistant teachers who took up the work for training were given regular positions before the year closed. These took the places of the regular teachers who resigned or were given charge of the additional rooms opened during the year. The fact that these had training relieved the situation considerably, as it is difficult to secure good teachers during the year from other cities.
>
> The plan adopted in June, of paying the assistants $1 per day, will make it necessary to appoint them to rooms in which the number of pupils is above the average. However, this will not prohibit the placing of young teachers who desire to learn the work and who show exceptional ability. I am anticipating good results from this plan.

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR COLORED TEACHERS.

There are 26 cities in the United States of America which have from 18,000 to 94,000 negro population.[1] Some of the large groups, as those in Chicago, Philadelphia, and New York, ranging from 40,000 to more than 90,000, form a small proportion of the total population (in New York less than 2 per cent). In these cities the problem is great, but in many ways the situation is more serious in those cities having a larger percentage. Thus, Indianapolis has less

[1] See details in table on page 105.

than 10 per cent of negroes, yet they make up a body of more than 20,000 persons and require a large force of trained teachers. In this city the few new local teachers needed are still trained with the white teachers in all but their practice work. Farther south, where there is a rigid separation not only in the elementary schools but in secondary schools as well, the possibilities of training are limited usually to the high school, with at times a cadet or supernumerary system, and to the denominational colleges.

There is in Washington City a colored population about equal to the size of the city of Trenton; that of New York is not far from equaling Salt Lake City. In Memphis, Birmingham, and Atlanta the colored groups are about the population of Pawtucket, Saginaw, and South Bend. Richmond, Chicago, and St. Louis correspond very nearly to Haverhill, Mass., and Springfield, Ohio. Louisville's colored colony is the size of Kalamazoo, and that of Nashville equals Chelsea.

The highest percentage of colored population is that of Charleston (52.8), but several other cities have nearly as large a proportion. The percentage of the negro population in school runs as low as 8.6 in Charleston and 9 in New Orleans. Macon reports the very high rate of 19.2, but the mode of those cities from which records are available is 11 to 13. This rate will no doubt increase in time and become more uniform. The total number of negroes also, while relatively decreasing, is still absolutely on the increase.

Relative population of whites and negroes in certain years.

Years.	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*		
1790	80.7	19.3	3,172,006	757,208
1850	84.3	15.7	19,553,068	3,638,808
1900	87.9	11.6	66,809,196	8,833,994
1910	88.9	10.7	81,731,957	9,827,763

For 40 years there was little change, but from 1860 to 1910 the white increase was 203.6 per cent, while the colored was 121.3.

Increase, 1900 to 1910:	Per cent.
Native white	20.8
Foreign-born white	30.7
Colored	11.2

In every Southern State, except West Virginia, Oklahoma, and Arkansas, the proportion of whites was appreciably higher in 1910 than in 1900.

While the church schools have done an important work in preparing a certain proportion of teachers, it is possible that in some

cases they have retarded State and municipal responsibility. Then, too, as the range of occupation opportunity increases, the teacher problem will become more acute here, as it has become in the white schools. Extensive studies and careful planning are needed to meet this situation in a reasonably adequate manner.

As a large proportion of colored teachers come from the class having some admixture of white blood, it is worth noting (p. 105) that this group of mulattoes[1] makes up at least 20.9 per cent of the colored population, as against 12 in 1870 and 15.2 in 1890. This does not necessarily mean an actual increase in mixed unions, as the children of parents either one or both of whom are mulattoes are all classed in this group.

In the table below the proportion of negroes in the five cities having training schools is compared with that of foreign-born whites in the same cities. Thus, St. Louis has three times as many foreign immigrants as negroes. In Baltimore the two parties are nearly equal. In the other cities the negroes are greatly in excess. In none of these cities is either problem at the extreme pole, for the highest rate of negroes—36.6 in Richmond—is far below that of 52.8 in Charleston, as is the highest rate of immigrants, 18.3 in St. Louis, compared to the maximum, 52 in Passaic.

Negro and foreign-born population of certain cities compared.

Cities.	Total population.	Negro.	Per cent.	Foreign-born white.	Per cent.
St. Louis	687,029	43,960	6.4	125,706	18.3
Baltimore	558,485	84,749	15.2	77,043	13.8
Washington	331,069	94,446	28.5	24,351	7.4
Louisville	223,928	40,522	18.1	17,436	7.7
Richmond	127,628	46,733	36.6	4,085	3.2
Passaic	54,773	.....	.....	28,467	52.0
Charleston	58,833	31,050	52.8	.....	.....

The two following tables are given in order to bring together some of the most important data needed in giving consideration to the situation:

[1] "The term 'mulatto,' as used in the census of 1910, includes all persons not full-blooded negroes who have some proportion or perceptible trace of negro blood."

The 26 cities having the largest negro population, arranged in order of that population, and showing number of negro pupils, teachers, and principals.[1]

Cities.	Total population.	Number of negroes.	Per cent.	Total pupils.	Negro elementary pupils.	Per cent of negro population in elementary schools.	Negro elementary teachers.	Negro principals.
Washington	331,069	94,446	28.5	.....	16,714	.....	37	43
New York	4,766,883	91,709	1.9	.....	[2]	.....	[2]	1
New Orleans	339,075	89,262	26.3	.....	8,105	9.0	[3]85	10
Baltimore	558,485	84,749	15.2	.....	9,276	10.9	178	3
Philadelphia	1,549,008	84,459	5.5	.....	9,928	11.7	72	6
Memphis	131,105	52,441	40.0	.....	5,984	11.4	110	9
Birmingham	132,685	52,305	39.4	.....	7,320	13.9	148	15
Atlanta	154,839	51,902	33.5	.....	5,924	11.4	74	8
Richmond	127,628	46,753	36.6	.....	5,442	11.6	111	0
Chicago	2,185,283	44,103	2.0	.....	[4]2,000	.....	[4]25	0
St. Louis	687,029	43,960	6.4	83,889	6,096	13.9	136	8
Louisville	223,928	40,522	18.1	.....	5,153	12.7	117	13
Nashville	110,364	36,523	33.1	.....	5,103	13.9	92	12
Savannah	65,064	33,246	51.1	8,232	.....	.....	48	3
Charleston	58,833	31,056	52.8	.....	2,673	8.6	2	0
Jacksonville	57,699	29,293	50.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pittsburgh	533,905	25,623	4.8	73,587	[5]	.....	.....	.....
Norfolk	67,452	25,039	37.1	.....	3,350	13.4	0	0
Houston	78,800	23,929	30.0	13,060	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas City, Mo	248,381	23,566	9.5	.....	3,344	14.2	88	[6]10
Mobile	51,521	22,763	44.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indianapolis	233,650	21,816	9.0	.....	2,874	13.1	66	10
Cincinnati[7]	363,591	19,639	5.4	43,869	[5]	.....	24	1
Montgomery	38,136	19,322	50.7	1,765	.....	.....	35	4
Augusta	41,040	18,344	44.7	7,625	3,645	19.9	35	6
Macon	40,665	18,150	44.6	.....	2,941	19.2	57	8
	13,176,118	1 124,900	8.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[1] Taken from reports received from superintendents of public schools in answer to questionnaire sent.
[2] No record.
[3] 31 white teachers and 4 white principals in colored schools.
[4] Estimated.
[5] No statistics.
[6] Included among teachers.
[7] Cincinnati has one negro school which enrolled 844 pupils in 1912–13. "We have negroes in practically every elementary sch[illegible] in the city, but have no statistics showing the number of them."

Negro and foreign-born population of United States compared.

	Total population.	Negroes.	Per cent.	Foreign-born white.	Per cent.	Mulattoes.
United States	91,559,720	9,827,763	10.7	13,343,583	14.5	[1]2,050,086
229 cities having over 25,000 population[2]	28,543,810	[3]1,625,640	5.7	[4]7,479,033	26.2	.....

[1] Being 20.9 per cent of negro population.
[2] These 229 cities have 31 per cent of the entire population.
[3] Being 16.6 per cent of total negro population.
[4] Being 55 per cent of all foreign-born whites.

Five of the larger American cities have special training schools for colored teachers. These cities are St. Louis, Baltimore, Washington, Louisville, and Richmond. Others, as Birmingham, have classes in connection with high schools, but definite data have not been forthcoming from them. The schools in St. Louis, Louisville, and Richmond are still connected with high schools, but in these cities the courses are two years in length, and in general the standards are, as far as possible, the same as those of the schools for white

teachers. In Baltimore it has been but a few years that the training school was removed from direct administrative association with the high school.

Washington has the largest colored population of the cities of America. Its school was organized as a private institution in 1851. Twenty years later it became semipublic and was taken over entirely by the Government in 1888. It is the best-equipped of colored training schools and pays the highest salaries.[1]

Washington also has the only colored school which maintains a graduate course for the training of college graduates. This course was established in 1909 and covers one year. Only graduates from regular and accepted four-year-course colleges are registered. Eighteen weeks are given to theory and the same time to observation and practice in the grammar grades. The course consists of (1) history of education; (2) educational psychology; (3) philosophy of education; (4) study of the adolescent; (5) research in some educational problem; (6) school and class management; (7) psychology of number; (8) grammar-grade methods, given in connection with the teaching of the subject itself by the teacher of the subject in the respective grade, followed by conference between student, teacher, and normal instructors in psychology and class management; (9) theme on selected problem submitted for graduation.

There were in January, 1913, 12 graduates, all of whom were teaching in grammar or high schools. The colleges in which the students had taken their preparation are Amherst, Brown, Rutgers, Howard, Cornell, Oberlin, and Syracuse.

There are enrolled in these five schools about 250 students, a little over a third of the number in the corresponding white schools, while the colored population in these cities is less than one-sixth of the total. Probably the overenrollment is due in part to the greater shrinkage among colored students and to the desire to keep down the average cost per pupil. Naturally the expense of training colored teachers in a large city is greater proportionally than that of training the much larger number of white teachers.

The number of students enrolled, as shown on page 150, has been: Washington, 1,200; Baltimore, 383; and Louisville, 274. Of these, there are now in service in the three cities, respectively, 302, 161, and 59. There are reported in these cities 375, 239, and 117 colored teachers; so that in the first two a large proportion of those who are in the city schools have come through the training course.

Many of those trained in the city schools teach in schools outside the city in which they were prepared. This is particularly true of Washington. In the report of the principal for 1909 a recommenda-

[1] The details of the reports for these schools will be found in the table on pages 145–149.

tion was made that this wider function of the school be recognized and extended by the establishment of an employment bureau to place teachers in neighboring States. An argument for this was based on the fact that the Nation pays half the cost of maintaining the normal school. One difficulty that has arisen in this larger field has been due to the fact that many teachers keep their residence in Washington and spend as little time as possible outside of school hours in the communities in which they are teaching. The range of social development is wide between the children of families of most opportunity in Washington and those at the lower end of the scale in that city and in other urban and in rural communities. The need of all the cultural contacts possible by the students naturally tends to draw them away from the associations which help to prepare them to meet the needs of social groups on lower levels.

For many years after the colored elementary schools were established in various cities the teachers were white. It will be observed that New Orleans, the third largest colored community, has still one-fourth of its colored schools in the care of white teachers. In some cities the transition was made somewhat abruptly and standards were lowered, so that a number of inferior teachers secured positions. In other cities for a number of years uncertificated substitutes were used until the supply of better trained teachers was sufficient. Thus, in Baltimore the colored elementary schools were authorized in 1867; colored teachers began to be appointed in 1889; white teachers were eliminated from colored schools in 1907; it was not until 1911 that there were enough qualified teachers to fill all positions.

In Washington, Baltimore, and St. Louis practically no discrimination is made in salaries on the basis of color. In many of the cities a considerable difference is made.

One difficulty that arises in many cities is that of determining the number of teachers needed, and so preventing overstocking. The effect both upon the teaching force and the candidates looking forward to the work, of an oversupply of teachers, is bad. Probably this problem has been fully as serious in colored schools as elsewhere. In St. Louis it is reported that until the reorganization of the course on a two-year basis, in 1911–12, the students, after finishing the single year, remained at home or took work where they could find it and then were called in when needed for a half year of apprenticeship, leading to permanent employment.

The argument for pay during the practice term is usually made upon the basis of the need for some remuneration or subsidy by the students who have usually remained in school longer than other members of their families. The economic sacrifices made by many

colored families to enable their children to take the training course are certainly as great as those in any group, yet in one of our largest cities no pay is given to colored students for practice teaching, while the white students are all paid.

Naturally more young colored men than white are available for teaching. It is interesting to note that of the five cities, only Baltimore and Washington take advantage of this possibility and enroll men as students.

St. Louis is the only city which reports extension courses for the further training of teachers in service. In 1912, 20 courses were offered in advanced psychology, theory of the practice of teaching, educational classics, physics, nature study, English grammar, German, composition, chemistry, geography, arithmetic, history, literature, physical training, art, and domestic science. This would seem an extensive bill of fare for a system of something over 100 teachers. In another year, when six courses were offered, but three were taken, enrolling but 27 in all, with an average attendance of 17, and certificates given to but 5.

The following historical notes are taken from the annual report for 1911–12 of the St. Louis schools:

Preparation of teachers for grades.—The first mention of provision for colored schools is on page 7 of the annual report for 1865–66. These schools were established in 1866–67. (An. Rept., 1866–67, p. 10.)

From the opening of these schools to the year 1877–78 they were taught by white teachers selected through examinations covering grade subjects.

In the year 1877–78 (An. Rept., 1877–78, p. 128) the board began the replacing of white teachers in these schools by colored teachers selected through the kind of examination that had been used in the past. In a short time all white teachers were replaced.

The Sumner High School was established in 1875, but had no graduates till 1885 (An. Rept., 1891–92, p. 58). During this interval of 10 years candidates for teachers' examinations were required to have preparation equivalent to two years of high-school work; from 1885 to 1889 they were required to have the equivalent of four years.

In 1889–90 an additional year of normal training was added to the four-year high-school course, and graduates from this normal course were placed on the eligible list of teachers. In 1907–8 (An. Rept., p. 286) the number admitted to the normal course was restricted to three highest from each of the semiannual classes graduating, and all graduates from the normal course were required to apprentice a year before being called into substitute service.

In September, 1908, all women candidates who had finished successfully the four-year high-school course were admitted to the year of normal course, but the board reserved the right to select from them at the completion of the normal year, only such number as it might need to fill vacancies. In 1911–12 a course of one-half year was offered to teachers who had finished the apprenticeship and were waiting to be called into service.

TRAINING OF MALE TEACHERS.

A study of the young men who are of the social classes to which the young women in training schools belong shows many at the age of 25 to 30 no better off financially than are the teachers of the same ages. Neither are they certain of advancement beyond that given by the maximum salary paid to elementary teachers. They have, however, been self-supporting for a longer time, and, had they taken the additional years required for entrance into the training school and completion of its course for further study, they could have prepared themselves in other lines for positions which would be much more remunerative than teaching. There is no lack of splendid young men who would make excellent teachers and to whom the work would be fully as satisfying or more satisfying than is their present employment.

Our boys and girls at all ages need association with strong men as well as women, but society has not learned how to make it possible for these men to enter the school service without sacrifices which do not seem to be justified.

According to the report of the committee on teachers' salaries and cost of living (National Education Association, 1913), the proportion of male teachers in the United States in 1908–9 was 21.4. In the cities studied the rate was: Cincinnati, 30.2; Hamilton, 20; Denver, 10.4; New Haven, 7.8; Atlanta, 4.9. This is not a large proportion, but the percentages shrink rapidly when the returns are taken from elementary schools only: Cincinnati, 6; Hamilton, 9.7; Denver, 1.7; New Haven, 0.9; Atlanta, 0.

The proportion of men teachers in the elementary schools in 12 large cities in which there were any in 1910, was 5.3. Several cities, however, report no men in these schools. The largest number given was 1,093, in New York City, but these were but 7 per cent of the total number of teachers. Cincinnati had the largest rate, 18.5.

Only one city maintains a school devoted entirely to the training of men teachers. This institution is the School of Pedagogy, at Philadelphia. The rate in that city in 1910 was 3.8. Of the large cities, only 8 report male pupils—a total of 223 in 11 schools. One third of these were reported from New York City, and all but 33 were in New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia. Chicago, through the contributions of a wealthy citizen, has at times had a subsidy to offer men preparing to teach manual arts, yet it has not succeeded in securing any considerable number.

Students in schools for training teachers.

Cities.	Male.	Female.	Cities.	Male.	Female.
Brooklyn	26	1,073	Baltimore:		
New York	45	831	White	4	150
Jamaica	2	214	Colored	7	52
Chicago	26	680	Buffalo	1	39
Philadelphia	91	674	Newark	7	336
Boston	10	215	Washington (colored)	4	123
			Total	223	3,387

Elementary teachers in certain cities, in 1910.

Cities.	Men teachers.	Total elementary teachers.	Cities.	Men teachers.	Total elementary teachers.
Baltimore	83	1,512	Newark	3	1,041
Boston	94	1,917	New Orleans	0	852
Chicago	61	5,003	New York	1,093	14,122
Cincinnati [1]	197	1,063	Philadelphia	135	3,518
Cleveland	1	1,398	Pittsburgh	0	1,134
Detroit	17	1,037	St. Louis	0	1,380
Indianapolis	1	618	Toledo	14	549
Jersey City	0	664	Washington	59	1,099

[1] In Cincinnati, in 1908-9, there were 271 males in a total of 1,215, a percentage of 22.3; in 1909-10 there were 307 in 1,296, or 23.6 per cent. September, 1913, there were 234 men in elementary service. "Principalship and assistantships are made exclusively male positions, with increased salary as a special concession to secure men in the service."

It is evident from the following table that the large supply of men elementary teachers in New York City is decreasing since the reduction was made in the salaries of men.

Men elementary teachers in New York City.

Year.	Men applicants.	Men admitted.
February, 1908	40	26
September, 1908	65	31
February, 1909	51	29
September, 1909	53	21
February, 1910	25	11
September, 1910	38	17
February, 1911	15	4
September, 1911	12	2
February, 1912	4	0
September, 1912	5	2

This leaves the Philadelphia school as the only significant effort to influence men to enter elementary service.[1] A statement of the aims and organization of the school is herewith given.

PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY.

The School of Pedagogy of the City of Philadelphia was first organized October 5, 1891. It was reorganized June 1, 1896, as a graduate department of the

[1] The State of Massachusetts has under consideration the establishment at Worcester of a State normal school to which only male students will be admitted.

Central High School, and at this time the course of instruction was increased from one to two years. On January 1, 1906, the School of Pedagogy was placed by the board of public education under the immediate administration of its committee on normal school and qualification of teachers. On July 12, 1898, the board authorized the establishment of a school of practice in connection with the school, to consist of two grammar classes. * * *

The School of Pedagogy admits graduates of the Central High School without examination. No applicant, however, is admitted unless recommended by the faculty of the high school and approved by the faculty of the School of Pedagogy. Graduates of the manual-training high schools of Philadelphia become eligible for admission by entering the Central High School and completing satisfactorily the work of the senior year. Graduates of other institutions requiring an equivalent course of study are also admitted, but not without examination. Satisfactory evidence must be furnished as to moral character as well as to fitness to pursue the course.

The primary purpose of the course of instruction is to afford young men an opportunity to fit themselves for the work of teaching and supervision in elementary public schools. The course of study embraces technical and scholastic studies. The technical courses aim at a thorough training in educational theory and practice. The scholastic courses aim to advance the scholarship and perfect the skill of the student in the subjects that he is planning ultimately to teach, as well as to complete the foundations of a liberal education. First-year students, besides the required work, must elect one course, and may in addition pursue one of the optional electives. Second-year students must elect two courses in addition to the required work, and may take, by special permission, a third optional elective. Students who complete this course receive the trial collegiate certificate.

The school of practice of the School of Pedagogy, located at 1327–1329 Spring Garden Street, affords ample opportunity for training in the art of teaching. Besides actual teaching, the practical work includes observation of good teaching and special training in the principles and methods of organization, discipline, and instruction in elementary schools. The work of observation is carried on in public elementary schools in different sections of the city especially designated by the board of public education for this purpose.

The School of Pedagogy in September, 1913, went into new quarters containing a demonstration room sufficiently large to hold a model class and a class of observers. "Supplementary teaching" is added to the practice scheme.

For a three-weeks' period we send our second-year students to a regular school for observation and practice under a regular teacher and regular conditions. We have nine selected schools appointed by the department of superintendence for this purpose. The scheme is working well and rounds out finely our previous arrangements.

MARRIED WOMEN AND WIDOWS AS TEACHERS.

The young woman who begins to teach is not apt to look forward to the possibilities that are open to her in case she marries or becomes a widow. To the student of the general problem, however, this is not an unimportant consideration. The general tendency has

been to look upon school positions as jobs which should be held by those who need them most. Thus in smaller cities it is not unusual to find that the daughter of wealthy parents who wishes to teach is not permitted by public opinion to do so, although from the standpoint of the culture she could bring into the lives of her pupils no member of the teaching force may have so much as she has to offer. The same prejudice often applies to married women as teachers. Not infrequently it is the unmarried teacher who opposes the continued service of other teachers who have married.

In the city of Bristol the mover of the resolution opposing married teachers found his best support in the organization of teachers.

Of the cities having more than 100,000 population, 10 seem to place no limitation upon the married teacher. These are Chicago, Newark, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Indianapolis, Denver, Toledo, Oakland, New Haven, and Grand Rapids. In most of the others marriage is equivalent to resignation. Milwaukee reports occasional exceptions. Washington has a "few" married teachers. In Columbus appointment requires a two-thirds vote. In Nashville appointment is "not customary." In Bridgeport "married women are continued, but prefer not."

New York City has had a stormy experience. Article IX (Married Women), section 67, subdivision 12, of the by-laws of the board of education, reads as follows:

> No married woman shall be appointed to any teaching or supervising position in the day public schools unless her husband is incapacitated from physical or mental disease to earn a livelihood, or has continuously abandoned her for not less than three years prior to the date of appointment, provided proof satisfactory to the board of superintendents is furnished to establish such physical or mental disability or abandonment.

The failure of the courts to sustain the board in its effort to prevent the employment of married women as teachers has been followed by a successful appeal to the courts to prevent the discharge of married women who desire to have leaves of absence in order to bear children.

In cities of less than 100,000 inhabitants having training schools, five report "yes" in answer to the question, "Are married women employed as teachers?" These are Wilmington, Elizabeth, Muskegon, Macon, and Burlington (Iowa). Cambridge employs women "forced to support." Yonkers answers "Rarely;" Akron and Bay City, "Not often;" Chelsea, "not usual." Most of the others are unqualifiedly opposed.

With reference to the employment of widows, Pittsburgh alone answers the question with an unqualified negative.

ALUMNI AND ALUMNAE ASSOCIATIONS.

There are demands upon the graduates of the training schools, made, on one hand, by the various teachers' organizations and, on the other, by the alumnæ associations of the high schools from which the students come. This fact accounts in part for the limited number of training-school alumni and alumnæ associations. Only two years away from the high school in the same city the student feels pressure, in some cases from rival societies, for membership in organizations which aim to take care of the teacher's economic and leisure needs.

Indianapolis, Rochester, Columbus, and the Sumner School in St. Louis report no organization. In Jersey City an association is forming. The New York Training School for Teachers has an association of 2,000 members. Its activities are largely social and literary. In Baltimore the Colored Training School has recently organized its alumnæ; the Teachers' Training School has had an active society for several years. Two scholarships for summer-school courses are awarded each year by its executive board. The association has aided through prizes and other means in securing for the school designs for a seal and for a pin, school colors, school songs, etc.

The following letter from Headmaster Wallace C. Boyden shows the movement in Boston:

I received your circular with inquiry concerning our alumnæ association, and, as president of the Boston Normal School Association, I make this reply. Our association was founded in 1883 and has had one annual meeting ever since and during the past two years two meetings per year. These meetings have been general, containing an educational address, short after-dinner speeches by the alumnæ, and sociability. A special bit of work which this association has done is perhaps worthy of mention. In the year 1907–8, which was the first year in this new building, the association got up a splendid dedicatory exercise in the form of a large educational pageant which was given on two days in the courtyard of our group of buildings. It was the first pageant on education on this continent and possibly in the world. Six or eight hundred characters were involved in the performance and an audience of nearly fifteen hundred accommodated each day. It received a great deal of notice at the time and was the beginning of a movement which has spread very widely throughout the country.

The membership included all the graduates of the school, numbering now some 3,400, until three years ago, when we reorganized and asked every graduate to indicate whether she wished to be considered a permanent member of the association. By this means the number was reduced to about 1,100, which is approximately the number at the present time. The constitution of the association states this as the object: "The object of this association shall be to promote, by means of annual meetings, friendship among the graduates and to keep alive a spirit of progress and mutual interest in their common work."

In Chicago there has arisen, through the interest of old students, a celebration called "Chicago Teachers' Day." President Sumner, of the alumni association, writes:

In answer to your letter of May 16, I will say that the alumni association of the Chicago Normal School has been in existence 45 years. In the beginning it consisted of alumni from Col. Parker's normal school and met with him and his faculty annually in June, in a great tent on the school campus. That school has since become the training college for Chicago's teachers. The membership now consists of about 5,000 men and women, most of whom are employed in Chicago's public and private schools. The superintendent, some district superintendents, many principals and supervisors are members, while quite a few of the faculty of the school of education of the University of Chicago belong to the association. Other members are scattered from New England to California, one even being located in Australia.

Until five years ago our annual meetings were purely social affairs, consisting of a banquet and an address by some prominent educator. But as the normal school is now a place for training teachers for this city, we have been developing along the line of service to the city schools.

We have an annual meeting, but now call it Teachers' Day and invite every teacher in all the public, parochial, and private schools to attend. The meeting is held at the Chicago Normal College, and we invite certain schools throughout the city which have done excellent work in certain lines to present that work on Teachers' Day. The normal school and its practice schools also give examples of their work. This with a number of line exhibits given at the same time is the alumni association's contribution toward the advancement of education in our city.

The school for men at Philadelphia organized an association in 1894. There are now 259 members. The special activities are (1) a series of round tables held each year as an especial help to the younger grade teachers among the members; (2) the presentation of a $10 gold medal to the member of the graduating class of the School of Pedagogy writing the best essay on a pedagogical subject; (3) the circularizing, by means of a letter, of the graduating classes in the higher schools of Philadelphia relative to the opportunities offered in the School of Pedagogy; (4) the holding of one business meeting and one educational meeting a year, at the latter of which it is customary to have as speakers prominent educators of Philadelphia and the vicinity.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATUS OF 1,776 TRAINING-SCHOOL STUDENTS.

The most important study of the social groups included among the teachers in American schools has been made by Dr. L. D. Coffman.[1] The following quotations from his excellent study will present some

[1] "The Social Composition of the Teaching Population." By L. D. Coffman, Columbia University Contributions to Education, Teachers' College Series No. 41, 1911.

important aspects of the situation as he finds it among the teachers who have come from rural into city schools.

In light of these facts the following fundamental conclusions are defensible: (1) The teaching force is being recruited from large families—probably the most fecund element of our total population; (2) the transmission of our best culture is turned over to a group of least favored and cultured, because of its economic station; (3) even considering that those who enter teaching are the best from these prolific families, they represent on the whole an unmarried group which does not perpetuate itself. In other words, the intellectual possessions of the race are by rather unconscious selection left to a class of people who by social and economic station, as well as by training, are not eminently fitted for their transmission (p. 70).

The typical American female teacher is 24 years of age, having entered teaching in the early part of her nineteenth year when she had received but four years' training beyond the elementary schools. Her salary at her present age is $485 a year. She is native born of native-born parents, both of whom speak the English language. When she entered teaching both of her parents were living and had an annual income of approximately $800, which they were compelled to use to support themselves and their four or five children. The young woman early found the pressure, both real and anticipated, to earn her own way very heavy. As teaching was regarded as a highly respectable calling, and as the transfer from the schoolroom as a student to it as a teacher was but a step, she decided upon teaching.

Her first experience as a teacher was gotten in the rural school, where she remained but two years. If she went from there to a town school, her promotion was based almost solely upon her experience, as no additional training was required by the officials of the town. If she desired to teach in a city school, she was compelled to secure at least one more year of training in all; but each additional year of training she found increased her salary.

So far she has profited each year of her brief experience by having her salary increased, and this will probably be true for the next two years should she find it necessary to remain in teaching that long.

Into the hands of teachers who more or less nearly conform to the above description is given the duty of transmitting the culture of the race to the youth of the land, of training them in habits of thinking, in modes of behavior, in methods of work, and in intelligent appreciations. Some of the unanswered questions are: What initiative and resourcefulness have such teachers? What perspective due to thorough preparation have they secured? What vision of the possibilities of the calling do they possess? What modicum do they add to our professional inheritance? What chance has the average American boy or girl of being wisely and intelligently educated by the average American teacher, male or female? (P. 80.)

Dr. Coffman's study has little reference to those city teachers who have not come into the city service from smaller communities. In studying the social composition of the membership of city training schools, in addition to inquiries with reference to the occupations of fathers and mothers, information has been secured about the occupations of brothers and sisters. It is believed that this material concerning the contemporaneous generation ought to have special value. In all, 1,776 cases have been reported from 25 cities.

Reports as to social conditions of membership of city training schools.

Cities.	Cases.	Cities.	Cases.	Cities.	Cases.
Akron	20	Dayton	42	Richmond	21
Albany	29	Elmira	11	St. Louis (colored)	28
Atlanta	22	Erie	15	Trenton	49
Baltimore:		Evansville	22	Washington:	
White	120	Fall River	45	White	158
Colored	29	Fort Wayne	15	Colored	95
Buffalo	36	Indianapolis	50	Watertown	24
Charleston	21	Newark	27	Youngstown	15
Cleveland	155	New Orleans	115	Yonkers	26
Concord (N.H.)	11	Philadelphia	569		

Deducting 52 cases in which two members of the same family are in the schools, there are data from 1,724 families, including 1,365 fathers, 1,411 mothers, 4,514 brothers and sisters, and 1,776 training-school students; a total of 9,066. There were 114 reports in two lots in which no reference was made to the parents. Allowing for these, there are returns for 85 per cent of the fathers and 87 per cent of the mothers.

The classification used by the Thirteenth Census of the United States, as given in its index to occupations, has been used as a basis. Some modifications and additions have been found advisable.

Probably the results, as given in the accompanying tables, indicate a somewhat higher social condition than the actual facts would represent. In some cases it may be that individuals classed as storekeepers, for instance, may have been clerks, although great care has been given to organize the data as represented in the papers sent in.

The largest single item which can not be reduced further is that of mothers reported to be housekeepers (1,181). Of the total number of living mothers (1,411), only 91 are reported in occupations taking them outside the home. Many of the 139 mothers reported at leisure are probably housekeepers. With the 1,181 mothers who are housekeepers should be considered the 470 sisters in the same occupation. Many of these are in homes of their own, and others are in the homes of their parents.

The number of sisters and brothers reported at leisure is 209. Probably the greater number of these are young women. This is a little over 3 per cent of the total number of children in the families, a smaller proportion than would be expected. There are in attendance upon one or another type of school 1,832 brothers and sisters, not including the 1,776 cases studied. There are 103 in colleges and universities representing literary and arts courses, law, medicine, theology, etc. In elementary schools there are 957, and in high schools 658. The total number of cases of training-school students is only 161 more than the total number of brothers and sisters in elementary and secondary schools.

Only 52 brothers and sisters are reported in attendance upon normal schools, and but 312 are teachers. The number of parents who are teachers (36) seems very small. Another item which is less than would be expected is that of brothers and sisters under 6 years of age (118), about equally divided at 3½ years.

A large number of the students at State normal schools come from farms. Naturally the number in city schools would be small, but a total of 39 (fathers 24, brothers 15) concerned with farm, garden, dairy, etc., is surprisingly small.

The number reported in one form or another of service (33 brothers and sisters and 47 fathers and mothers) is slightly increased by the inclusion of the members of two colored schools.

The miscellaneous group of men includes nearly all who can claim connection with the professional classes. Even including 6 brothers and 1 father, who are college instructors, there are less than 100 brothers and about the same number of fathers who belong to these groups. The largest group is that of fathers in the ministry and in social work. Teaching is evidently no longer the main resource of ministers' daughters.

Government service is increased by the inclusion of the city of Washington. The largest numbers, given in their respective order according to size, are in the various departments of the national service, the post office, and the city police.

A comparison of the three tables showing the occupations of fathers, brothers, and sisters, collectively, and fathers, brothers, and sisters, separately, shows the trades leading among fathers and clerical work leading among brothers and sisters. More than two-fifths of the latter group and more than one-third of all are in the class including clerks, stenographers, cashiers, bookkeepers, and agents. As would be expected, not more than one-fifth of the fathers are in this group. More than one-fourth of the fathers are in trades, as are one-fifth of the brothers and sisters. The manufacturers, contractors, builders, and storekeepers include nearly a fourth of the fathers and a twelfth of the brothers and sisters. The teachers among the fathers and mothers are a negligible group, but those actually in teaching service compose one-sixth of the brothers and sisters in the various occupations. Government service enlists one-tenth of the fathers and one-thirtieth of the brothers and sisters.

The more detailed lists show that storekeepers make up nearly three-fourths of the proprietary group. Clerks form nearly half of the clerical and agent group. In so far as classification of clerks was given, a larger proportion of fathers are in stores and of brothers and sisters in offices.

Of the trades, engineers, machinists, dressmakers, and plumbers lead in both sections. Draftsmen, milliners, electricians, and printers

include more brothers and sisters; while more fathers are carpenters, tailors, and painters.

Answers to definite inquiries with reference to the social status of teachers and the social groups to which they belong were not forthcoming. The superintendent of one large southern city writes: "Teachers here are usually of a very high class. As a rule they stand very high socially."

In England there is a feeling that the change from a pupil-teacher system with early remuneration on the basis of little or no preparation to a longer preparation with deferred remuneration has brought in an improved class of teachers from a cultural standpoint. On the other hand, the withdrawal of members of poorer families from candidacy has reduced the number of applicants to such an extent that there is alarm lest the supply be insufficient.

The wide social range of families from which the young women preparing to teach in our large cities come is significant from the standpoint of democracy. But as the demands for more cultural work in the elementary schools increase, the opportunities for other occupations than school-teaching also increase, and naturally those young women of the best ability and background soonest break into the new fields. There are many openings which require college training. Among these is teaching in high schools. A study of the social status of the families of high-school teachers would be interesting for comparison with the results here presented.

The enlargement of opportunity for young men has practically removed them from the elementary schools of America. In England the scarcity of men candidates is apparent. Even in other European countries where women are at present confined to certain of the lower grades in schools for boys, the problem is evident, and plans have been made for opening higher grades when this change becomes necessary.

Neither by payment for practice teaching nor by bursarships and student teacherships has the supply been kept up to the demand. It is only a matter of time when more than the present requirement of two years' preparation beyond the high school will be made. Cincinnati has already, by its preferred-list plan, succeeded in taking this step. For several years on a maximum salary of only $1,000 a year nearly all of its new elementary teachers have been college graduates. Reasonable standards of maturity and experience, and the increasing demands made on the elementary school by society, will move rapidly in this direction. Naturally the first advances are made in the larger cities, and there is need of extended studies on which to base an adequate policy. No country is meeting the need on as high a plane as it is conducting military defense.

The economic questions at issue are many and involved. More money will have to be spent on schools, but much of this increased

expenditure will be wasted until we have learned how to spend much more than we are spending upon the training of teachers. A large number of the teachers in our city schools have raised their social status by entering this work. The payment made for their services is in many cases more than the young teachers would receive in other positions. It is usual for a person who may be a mediocre or poor worker in his own occupation to compare himself with the more successful members of other groups, and as the result of this comparison he feels great dissatisfaction with his own income. Elementary schools can not make the progress the times demand without the wise expenditure of much more money than is now spent, but one of the first steps toward the necessary larger investment will be the recognition that the average young woman within two years of the high school is not ready to meet the large responsibilities elementary education places upon the teacher.

In his Introduction to Economics, Dr. Seager states:

> In practice capital invested in training affords a very high return, because so many of those who might benefit most from training are too poor to obtain it. * * * Unless the earnings in the industry requiring specific preparation promise to be large enough to repay them for the investment, they will not make it.

The demand for increased maturity and experience is deeply concerned, in the case of women, with the issues now pending in certain cities with reference to the relation to teaching of married women and especially of the mothers of children.

Occupations of members of families of training-school students.

Classified list of occupations.[1]	Fathers.	Mothers.	Brothers and sisters.	Total.
(A) Proprietary, official, supervisory, and clerical positions as—				
Owners, operators, and proprietors (manufacturers, etc.)	324	12	151	487
Managers and superintendents	31	.....	33	64
Foremen and overseers (bosses)	30	2	17	49
Accountants (auditors), cashiers, bookkeepers	47	3	120	170
Clerks	92	7	332	431
Stenographers, secretaries	7	2	190	199
Agents (traveling salesmen: Insurance, real estate, etc.)	126	.....	75	201
(B) Trades	363	30	375	768
(C) Service (maid, cook, porter, etc.)	39	9	33	81
(D) Other occupations (laborers, drivers, etc.)	55	.....	73	128
(E) Government service	118	4	62	184
(F) Farming, etc	23	1	15	39
(G) Teaching	21	15	312	348
(H) Miscellaneous	89	6	97	192
(I) Leisure	.....	139	209	348
(J) Housekeeping	.....	1,181	470	1,651
(K) At school	.....	.....	1,832	1,832
(L) Aged 6 years or under	.....	.....	118	118
	1,365	1,411	4,514	7,290
Training school students	.....	.....	.....	1,776
Total membership of 1,724 families	.....	.....	.....	9,066
Counted twice	.....	.....	.....	52
Net	.....	.....	.....	9,014

[1] Thirteenth Census of the United States, Index to Occupations, p. v.

Occupations of members of families of training-school students—Continued.

Occupations.	Brothers and sisters.	Fathers and mothers.	Total.
(A) Proprietary, official, supervisory, and clerical:			
Owners, operators and proprietors—			
Bankers	6	4	10
Brewers	.....	1	1
Manufacturers	16	45	61
Contractors and builders	14	42	56
Brokers	5	11	16
Storekeepers, dealers, etc.	110	233	343
Managers and superintendents	33	31	64
Foremen and overseers	17	32	49
Accountants, auditors, bookkeepers, cashiers	120	50	170
Clerks—			
Store	68	41	109
Office	85	19	104
Unclassified	179	39	218
Stenographers	165	2	167
Secretaries	25	7	32
Agents—			
Unclassified	75	38	113
Manager	.....	20	20
Inspector	.....	9	9
Traveling salesmen	.....	24	24
Insurance	.....	15	15
Real estate	.....	15	15
Buyers	.....	5	5
(B) Trades:			
Unclassified	111	196	307
Machinists	33	21	54
Engineers	44	57	101
Mechanics	6	3	9
Plumbers	25	14	39
Draftsmen	32	.....	32
Carpenters	14	35	49
Printers	15	.....	15
Electricians	21	.....	21
Painters	.....	19	19
Tailors	.....	17	17
Nurses	14	3	17
Dressmakers and seamstresses	37	24	61
Millinery	23	4	27
(C) Service (maids, cooks, porters, etc.)	33	48	81
(D) Other occupations (laborers, drivers, etc.)	73	55	128
(E) Government service:			
United States—			
Mail	18	27	45
Army and Navy	10	.....	10
Unclassified	19	63	82
State	4	5	9
City—			
Police	6	18	24
Unclassified	5	9	14
(F) Farming (gardeners, dairymen)	15	24	39
(G) Teaching—			
Unclassified	294	31	325
Music	12	.....	12
College	6	1	7
Principals	.....	4	4
(H) Miscellaneous:			
Ministers, priests, nurses (4), missionaries, social workers, evangelists	13	30	43
Lawyers	12	20	32
Physicians	19	17	36
Dentists	5	4	9
Opticians	3	1	4
Architects	4	3	7
Authors	1	1	2
Newspaper men, publishers, etc.	15	8	23
Experts (dynamite, wool, water)	1	2	3
Music and stage	13	3	16
Landscape gardeners and florists	.....	3	3
Inventors	.....	3	3
Librarians	11	.....	11
(I) At leisure	209	139	348
(J) Housekeeping	470	1,181	1,651
(K) At school (1,132):			
College and university (law, theology, medicine, arts, etc.)	103	.....	.....
Normal schools	52	.....	.....
High schools	658	.....	.....
Elementary schools	267	.....	.....
Apprentices and at trade schools	10	.....	.....
Nurses	3	.....	.....
Music	4	.....	.....

Occupations of members of families of training-school students—Continued.

Occupations.	Brothers and sisters.	Fathers and mothers.	Total.
(K) At school (1,832)—Continued.			
Art	5	.....	.....
Missionary	2	.....	.....
Business colleges	30	.....	.....
Unclassified	3	.....	1,832
(L) Aged 3½ to 6	58	.....	58
Aged 3 and under	60	.....	60
Total	4,514	2,776	7,290
Brothers and sisters (including training school students) at school:			
Normal and training school	1,776	.....	.....
Elementary school	957	.....	.....
High school	668	.....	.....
College and university	103	.....	.....
Business college	30	.....	.....
Miscellaneous	32	.....	.....

Occupations of fathers.

Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.
In trades	363	27
Manufacturers, contractors, builders, storekeepers, etc.	324	24
Cashiers, bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, agents	272	20
In Government service	118	9
Managers, superintendents, foremen, overseers	61	4
Laborers, drivers, etc.	55	4
Miscellaneous	89	7
In service	39	3
Farmers	23	2
Teachers	21	2

Occupations of mothers.

Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.
Housekeepers	1,181	84
At leisure	139	10
In trades (dressmakers, millinery, tailors)	30	2
Teachers	15	1
Proprietors of stores, etc.	12	1
In service	9	.....
Clerks	7	.....
In Government service	4	.....
Nurses	3	.....
Missionaries, church, and social workers	3	.....
Bookkeepers	3	.....
Stenographers and secretaries	2	.....
Forewomen and overseers	2	.....
Farmers	1	.....

Occupations of brothers and sisters, excluding housekeepers, those at leisure, at school, and aged 6 years and under.

Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.
Cashiers, bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, agents	717	38
In trades	375	20
Teachers	312	17
Storekeepers, manufacturers, etc	151	8
Laborers, drivers, etc	73	4
In Government service	62	3
Managers, superintendents, foremen, overseers	50	3
In service	33	2
Miscellaneous	97	5

Occupations of fathers, mothers, brothers, and sisters, excluding housekeepers, those at leisure, at school, and aged 6 and under.

Occupations.	Number.	Per cent.
Cashiers, bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, agents	1,001	31
In trades	768	24
Manufacturers, storekeepers, etc	487	15
Teachers	348	10
In Government service	184	5
Laborers, drivers, etc	128	4
Managers, superintendents, foremen, overseers	113	3
In service	81	2
Miscellaneous	192	6

Place in family of 1,776 training-school students.

Place in family.	Number of cases.	Per cent.
Oldest	687	39
Second	408	23
Third	285	16
Fourth	157	9
Fifth	103	6
Sixth	73	
Seventh	32	
Eighth	9	7
Ninth	8	
Tenth	3	
Eleventh	1	
Whole number	1,776	100
Only child		12
Youngest		25

Size of 1,714 families.

Children in family.	Number of families.	Children in family.	Number of families.
1	221	8	22
2	381	9	14
3	337	10	5
4	234	11	3
5	241	[illegible]	2
6	87		
7	47	Total	1,714

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APPENDIX A.

List of cities with over 100,000 population having city training schools.

Albany, N. Y.	Columbus, Ohio.	Omaha, Nebr.
Atlanta, Ga.	Dayton, Ohio.	Paterson, N. J.
Baltimore, Md.	Detroit, Mich.	Philadelphia, Pa.
Birmingham, Ala.	Fall River, Mass.	Pittsburgh, Pa.
Boston, Mass.	Indianapolis, Ind.	Richmond, Va.
Bridgeport, Conn.	Jersey City, N. J.	Rochester, N. Y.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Kansas City, Mo.	St. Louis, Mo.
Cambridge, Mass.	Louisville, Ky.	St. Paul, Minn.
Chicago, Ill.	Newark, N. J.	Syracuse, N. Y.
Cincinnati, Ohio.	New Orleans, La.	Toledo, Ohio.
Cleveland, Ohio.	New York, N. Y.	Washington, D. C.

List of cities with over 100,000 population having no training schools.

Denver, Colo.	Minneapolis, Minn.	Scranton, Pa.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Nashville, Tenn.	Seattle, Wash.
Memphis, Tenn.	Portland, Oreg.	Spokane, Wash.

APPENDIX B.

List of cities with over 100,000 population where State normal schools are located.

Los Angeles, Cal.	New Haven, Conn.	Worcester, Mass.
Lowell, Mass.	Providence, R. I.	
Milwaukee, Wis.	San Francisco, Cal.	

APPENDIX C.

THE NORMAL ARTS AND GYMNASIUM BUILDING OF THE CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL.

The board of education of the city of Chicago is carrying out the policy inaugurated about a decade ago of supplying the Chicago Normal School with a material equipment in the way of buildings that leaves little to be desired. The latest action of the board is to appropriate three-quarters of a million dollars for a high-school building to be placed on the grounds. During the present

school year the Normal Arts and Gymnasium Building, begun in the autumn of 1912, will be completed, furnished, and equipped. In 1905, when the present college building was dedicated, it was thought that provision had been made for the needs of the school for years to come. The changes in our educational procedure since that time, particularly in the direction of emphasizing school hygiene, the arts, and industrial education, have led to the erection of the new building, which is designed to house the four departments of industrial arts, household arts, art, and physical education. The cost of the building is upward of $450,000; of the equipment, somewhat under $150,000.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS.

The college, upon the completion of the arts and gymnasium building, will be prepared, through the cooperation of its several departments with that of the department of industrial arts, to give training to students and workmen, as follows:

I. *Professional training* to those who desire to teach in—

(*a*) Elementary and high-school shops.

(*b*) Trade schools.

Candidates for such training may be chosen from—

(1) Graduates of technical high schools.

(2) Students from departments of architecture and engineering in colleges.

(3) Teachers with more or less technical training.

Two courses are open to those selected from the above groups: (1) A two years' elementary-certificate course, admitting to elementary shops. (2) A four years' course admitting to technical high and trade schools.

The two and four year courses may be worked out on the basis of three-fifths time for mechanical drawing, shopwork, and practice teaching, and two-fifths time for literature, mathematics, science, and education.

Candidates for elementary certificates will be required to teach classes in shopwork in the elementary practice school. Those taking the four-years' course must take charge of classes in the shops of the practice high school.

Courses are planned covering the lines usually taught in the public schools. These include the woodworking group, involving carpentry, cabinet and pattern making, forge foundry and machine-shop group, electrical construction, together with jewelry making and printing.

Courses in lettering and mechanical drawing supplement all shop courses. Engraving and photography are required in connection with printing and bookbinding.

All shop courses involving design are under the direction of two instructors; one representing the design side, the other the construction. Controlled by this idea design rooms have been placed side by side with shops from floor to floor.

II. *Trade training* in carpentry, cabinet and pattern making, forge, foundry, and machine-shop practice, electrical construction, and printing.

Classes may be formed of half-time apprentices, boys from shops, boys from elementary and high schools. Three-year courses are outlined for those registering for the trades. The school day of eight hours—8 to 5—makes it necessary to plan half time for shop and half time for academic work.

Night-school classes make it possible for men in the trades, and boys serving as apprentices, to advance more rapidly along their given lines or to work into entirely new fields without loss of time.

III. *Continuation classes* for boys from the elementary and high schools.

These classes offer opportunities for pupils to make up work lost in one way or another.

To gain advance credit.

To work toward a trade without interfering with regular school work.

The range of activities that can be arranged in continuation classes is that of the public-school curriculum.

The college, together with its art and industrial school, its elementary and high-practice schools, offers great possibilities of advancement for the school boy, the apprentice, and the tradesman.

DEPARTMENT OF HOUSEHOLD ARTS.

The new building affords unlimited possibilities for the training of teachers in household arts for the public schools in Chicago. This training is to be as broad as it can be made.

The educational world is waking up to the fact that it is economy in education to take into account the physical needs of the child. Fresh air, water, and food are now recognized prerequisites to effective mental work. Chicago has been among the first to recognize this fact and to take steps toward meeting this problem. The schools have introduced household arts courses in both elementary and high schools; and this work in training children in the preparation of food and clothing, together with their economic and physiological values, has increased very rapidly. At present there are over 125 teachers in the city, where a few years ago there were but 20, and the department at the normal school has grown to meet this increasing demand.

The actual feeding of children in penny luncheons, open-air school and lunchrooms, has been undertaken by women's clubs and concessions. The household arts department at the normal school hopes to prove that it is a practical and economic undertaking for the schools to take over this other phase of the work, and as a step in this direction the penny luncheon at the Haines Practice School is to be under the direction of the department. The dietetic class, consisting of university graduates, will plan the diet, and this will necessitate a careful study of foods, not only as to calorific value, but as to mineral content, which is now recognized as an important element in child nutrition. The students in practice teaching will devote one-half day a week to assisting with the actual serving of the luncheons, credit being given toward their practice teaching.

This new venture means a broadening out of the work in this department, and we hope that the next step, which will be the undertaking of the running of the lunchroom in the new high school, will demand courses which will adequately prepare teachers to meet all phases of the work in the public schools.

THE DEPARTMENT OF ART.

Manufacturers the world over are keenly aware of the need for art in their products. The art schools and the schools of industrial arts of other countries have been more prompt to recognize this need in planning and equipping their institutions than we in America have been.

In the Normal Arts and Gymnasium Building the studios and designing rooms are distributed throughout the building from ground to roof, so as to bring the art work into the closest possible relation to the various industries which are so constantly an embodiment of it. On the third floor of the building are grouped those studios in which more specialized art study will be carried on.

In addition to the workrooms, a well-equipped industrial museum is being established, where both modern and historical types of industrial products having artistic character will be on view. It is planned in this museum to lay especial stress upon the application of art in modern every-day products, in its most democratic applications. These exhibits will be arranged in frequently-changing groups and will be interspersed occasionally with collections of works of fine art.

Among the richest possibilities for service the art department is planning a library of pictures. These pictures, suitably framed and ready for hanging, will be available for school and home decoration and will be loaned for 30-day periods. If the experiment proves successful, the collection will be expanded so as to include ultimately all available examples of contemporary and classical art.

A figure drawing-room sufficiently large so that running and other actions can be carried on before the classes is a part of the equipment, which will also include a complete pottery laboratory and a sculpture studio.

To meet the most typical of needs a five-room apartment has been included in the building. The art department's use of this will consist in making it a laboratory for experiments in interior decoration.

THE PHYSICAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

The gymnasium proper, 197 by 60 feet, is divisible by drop curtains into two or three rooms as may be found necessary for simultaneous class work; while on the other hand it may be opened to its full size for use as the social center of the college and normal school. Near by, also on the ground floor, is the swimming pool, reflecting from its shining white tile the bright skylight, the water of the pool being constantly clarified by filtration and overflow. Ample provision for bathing and privacy in dressing for the students is found in the 100 showers and dressing rooms, which will always stand as a memorial to those who are willing to plan for an ideal, intensive work, unlimited in its possibilities for hygiene, health, and happiness. The physical education classrooms and instructors' offices, the medical suite, and the rest room are situated on the first floor, thus providing geographically the easiest and quickest accessibility for students from the gymnasium as well as from other college building. The equipment of the department has been planned with a view to carrying on (1) the college and normal work as heretofore, (2) the training of specialists in physical education, and (3) evening classes for social and educational training. A special "exercise room" in the medical suite is to be fitted up with corrective apparatus, where orthopedic cases may receive attention and help in working out individual prescriptions.

It is well-nigh impossible in a short summary to mention all those niceties of construction and equipment upon which considerable time and thought have been spent. Suffice it to say that whether in arrangements for hair drying or the disinfecting and clarifying of the pool water, an effort has been made to use only modern "efficiency methods."

APPENDIX D.

OBSERVATION AND PARTICIPATION IN THE BOSTON NORMAL SCHOOL.

The model school connected with the Boston Normal School is used primarily for observation by first-year students, although it offers opportunities for other work in connection with the study of method in the second year of the normal-school course and the practice in the third year. The Martin Grammar School and the (Farragut) primary school connected with it constitute the model school, so called, and represent a typical Boston school district. The number of pupils to a teacher is the same as in other public schools in the city, and in nearly every way the school is subject to the regulations as to course of study and methods of administration that govern other schools. The teachers, who are the best that can be obtained from the city schools, are paid $8 a month in addition to the regular salary of their respective ranks, and the school was this year granted $400 in addition to its per capita allowance for equipment and supplies.

In its operation the school is independent of the normal school, and its policies are determined by a director, who acts as principal of the Martin and Farragut Schools and is nominally head of a department in the normal school and a member of its faculty, although at the present time he does no teaching in the normal school. Since no instruction in methods of teaching is given during the first year of the normal-school course, the observation work of this year is intended to give students a general survey of the field of elementary education rather than specific methods in teaching different subjects.

Briefly stated, the aim of first-year observation is to furnish students with a broad range of ideas concerning the fundamental principles involved in teaching and to give opportunities for contact with individuals and groups of children in as many ways as possible in order that they may have a background of (mental) experience to which they can refer in their later study and practice in the second and third year of the normal-school course.

This is accomplished in two ways:

A. Observation of work as carried on by teachers in the model school, followed by conference with these teachers or with the director of the model school.

B. Combined observation and participation.

The nature of the work carried on is described below under these two heads.

OBSERVATION OF WORK CARRIED ON BY TEACHERS IN THE MODEL SCHOOL.

Students visit the school in divisions of 20, and are generally divided into groups of 10 for observation. This arrangement is carried out one period a week for 36 weeks; 80 students visit the school one period each week in groups of 20 on four successive days; and as each group is generally divided into two parts, only two rooms a day are under observation.

For the first three weeks, students observe in Grade I; the next three in either II or III; next in either IV, V, or VI; and next in VII or VIII. When 12 weeks have passed, the same course is followed again, but the kindergarten is included in the first period. Another series of 12 observations completes the year's work.

Generally speaking, the students who visit Grade IV in the first series are assigned to Grade V in the second series and Grade VI in the third series, and so on; so that every student observes all grades in the course of the year and sees the progressive development of three or four important subjects through four grades, excepting, of course, that in the kindergarten and first grade the differentiation of subject matter has not been carried very far.

In each visit a variety of activities may be observed, but the school program of the rooms under observation is reorganized for the three weeks when students are present, so that students give chief attention to subjects as follows:

Series I—12 weeks—English.
Series II—12 weeks—Arithmetic.
Series III—12 weeks—History and geography.

This observation occurs during the first period in the morning and students report 15 minutes before the opening of the session. During this time they are brought into direct contact with the children as much as possible, and nearly always watch individual children or help them in work that they are doing before school. The daily correction and discussion of the diaries of children in the third grade is an example of the kind of work thus carried on outside of the regularly arranged subjects for observation. The teachers frequently use part of this time for talks with the students, and both the teachers and the director try in every way to have the students feel at home in the schoolroom and get into the spirit of friendly professional relationship with everyone.

There is little, if any, departure from the regular plan of work in the model school when students are observing excepting the change of time before mentioned.

Since the director is present for a portion of the time at nearly all the periods of observation, his conferences are largely an outgrowth of the particular activities occurring in each room from day to day; but frequent conferences with teachers on all phases of the work, with particular reference to the interpretation of general principles, have given rise to a unity of purpose and a common understanding, so that it is possible for the director to organize the material at hand in a fairly clear and coherent manner in his conferences with students.

Take, for example, the second series of observation, dealing primarily with arithmetic, and including the kindergarten. The outlines given below show the nature of discussion carried on with students in conference after observation in the grades designated in each case.

It will be noted: (1) That the influence of the kindergarten or the development of the individual along the lines of natural interests are generally dwelt upon; (2) that attention is called to the growth of power in oral or written expression (the chief subject of the first 12 weeks of observation); and (3) that stress is laid on points observed in arithmetic.

Students are asked to give illustrations of the different points from their recollection and from notes taken in class. At the end of this series (12 weeks) students write a paper discussing any single lesson or series of lessons, so as to show that they understand the significance of the three elements summed up in the outline headed "General conference on arithmetic."

These outlines are not presented as final. They represent the development of a point of view that has grown out of the work of the school, and include such ideas as seem to have been within the reach of first-year students and likely to aid them to a thoughtful consideration of their later work. At best a formal outline can only suggest the nature of the discussion.

The memorandum on page 136 illustrates the nature of instructions issued to teachers, though it should be understood that suggestions of this sort are much better conveyed in personal conferences from day to day.

OUTLINES OF CONFERENCES.

I. KINDERGARTEN.

1. Play a universal form of activity—
   (a) With young animals.
   (b) With children.
2. Reason for and meaning of education through play.
   (a) Active participation and original personal effort are always characteristic of play.
   (b) Kindergarten activities result in adjustment to environment of varied character: Size, color, form, number, weight, etc.; animate and inanimate things; human activities and social usages.
3. Individual development a result of natural adjustment.
   (a) Development of initiative through reasonable freedom from artificial restraint, exercise of individual choice, opportunity for individual expression.
   (b) Danger of too much unregulated individual freedom.
4. Social development the result of the right kind of individual development; significance of the idea of social development.

II. FIRST GRADE.

1. Underlying principles of kindergarten maintained to some extent in Grade 1—
   (a) games, etc., (b) songs, (c) story telling, (d) dramatization, (e) constructive activities.
2. Beginning of conventional class work.
3. Reading: (Review of previous discussion.)
   (a) Originates from story telling and repetition.
   (b) Deals with sentences and words as wholes.
   (c) Supplemented by study of sounds of letters and phonograms.
   (d) Aims always to express complete thought in a natural manner.
4. Number:
   (a) Origin of number ideas.
   (b) Number combinations learned by manipulating objective material in great variety.
   (c) Addition, subtraction, multiplication not taught as separate processes (by tables), but the number facts are grasped.

III. SECOND AND THIRD GRADES.

1. Evidences of adaptation of school program and methods to life of children.
2. Development of reading and language abilities (comparison with stage of development earlier in year).
3. The teaching of number.

(a) GRADE II.

Learning about number combinations. Number facts and relations associated directly with objective material.

(1) Numbers dealt with serially; variety of material.
   (a) Number stories with sticks, cubes, square inches, circular tablets, chalk, pencils, buttons, etc.
   (b) Number stories using, for example, 18 children: 9 groups of 2; 6 groups of 3; 2 groups of 9; 3 groups of 6; 10 and 8; 21 less 3. (Responsibility of whole number and of each group.

(c) Number stories expressed on board by drawing number groups of objects, lines, circles, etc.

(2) The way opened for formal addition, subtraction, multiplication, division. (Recognition of necessary facts.)

(3) Work with figures.

(b) GRADE III.

Facility in number combinations.

(1) Familiarity with tables as such.

(2) Oral work in multiplication; division.

(3) Written work in addition, subtraction, multiplication, short division.

(4) Informal recognition of fractional relation. (Objective.)

(5) Drill work—kinds.

(6) Application of number to measurements of length, area, weight, money value.

(7) Original number stories. (Should be a natural growth from early stories and constructive work.)

IV. GENERAL CONFERENCE ON ARITHMETIC.

(A) Acquisition of ideas about number and number relations.

1. Use of objects; kind; variety.
2. Use of lines, surfaces, volumes, having common unit of measure.
3. Use of representations, drawings, folded paper.
4. Use of symbols; their meaning.
5. The figure as an expression of a number idea.

(B) Drill in the use of figures and processes.

1. Aim: Formation of habit.
2. Drill in the fundamental operations and processes.
   (a) (Grades II and III.) Addition, subtraction.
   (b) (Grade III.) The tables.
   (c) (Grades IV, V, VI.) Extension of drill work, and its application to fractions and decimals.
   (d) (Grades VII and VIII.) Extension of drill work with special reference to percentage relations.
3. The organization and motivation of drill.
4. Speed and accuracy. (A discussion of relative values.)

(C) Application of arithmetical knowledge.

1. Just as all ideas of number originate from objects and magnitudes, so the use of these ideas terminates in their appropriate application to concrete situations involving number relations.
2. Problem work:
   (a) Its increasing scope throughout the grades.
   (b) The relation of the problem to the child's experience. (Store problems.)
   (c) The original problem; its significance.
   (d) Work in actual measurement.
   (e) Drawing to scale; construction.
   (f) Explanation of the problem. (Avoid so-called formal explanation with its language difficulties.)
3. The final aim of work in application.
   (a) Adjustment to actual environment.
   (b) The production of "social efficiency."

Teach children to know in order that they may use knowledge.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS, GRADES IV, V, AND VI.

1. Natural interests of children.

Consideration for these ought to be in evidence incidentally in many forms of school work and in the recreation periods, as well as in the regular class work. Teacher can suggest specific ways in which she considers these interests, in addition to any that the students have an opportunity to observe.

2. Oral and written expression.

A few moments devoted to recitation, story-telling, personal narration, or reproduction of stories read will serve to keep in mind some of the aims sought and the development accomplished in silent reading and oral expression. Some interesting compositions may be examined.

3. Teaching of arithmetic.

(*a*) Figure work to illustrate processes taught and facility gained in whatever stage of development children have reached. Oral and written abstract work to show nature and quality of performance. Review and new work both desirable.

(*b*) Practice with addition drill sheets and Thompson drill sheets with chance for individual drill, this being the only way to discover and eliminate individual faults.

(*c*) Problem work, both assigned by teacher and devised by pupils. Any process well understood by children should soon find expression in their original problems, stated, solved, and criticized by the children themselves.

(*d*) Special work in measurement in which application is made of tables learned and involving whole numbers and fractional relations, the aim being to show that we teach children to know in order that they may apply.

These suggestions are intended to be applied within the field of actual work in each grade. Teachers may well consult Smith's Teaching of Arithmetic and Suzzalo's Teaching of Primary Arithmetic for illuminating suggestions. Teachers in Grade IV will probably emphasize the long-division process and the approach to and development of formal work with simple fractions for process work; in Grade V decimal notation and processes; in Grade VI the formal application of fractional operations; but there is no fixed demand upon the teacher to depart from progressive work with the class merely for the sake of illustration.

All forms of work require such frequent review and application that it is believed to be possible to interpret practically all the above-mentioned ideas in the period of observation.

COMBINED OBSERVATION AND PARTICIPATION.

One hour a week nominally is devoted to this phase of work, although some of this time is given for written work, as students are allowed no outside time for that purpose. One hour is taken also for each of the following selected exercises with groups of children:

1. A walk in Fenway Park in October.
2. Bulb planting in November.
3. Preparation of dramatization.
4. Seed planting (when time allows).
5. An outdoor arithmetic lesson.
6. A walk in Fenway Park in April or May.

These special exercises will be referred to later.

The first hour in the afternoon (the last hour in the normal school program) is given to combined observation and participation. Students are assigned in

pairs to 10 rooms each day four days a week, each one of the 80 students visiting the school once a week. At first they are given very little to do, except in assisting the teacher in small duties or helping individual children; but after one or two visits they begin to conduct some of the easier exercises, such as a spelling or writing lesson, dictation, gymnastics, and review drills. The purpose of this work is to give each student a chance to face the class; to learn how to speak with ease and clearness, and to come easily into the necessary relations of room management. Gradually the students are given a wider opportunity. A story is told, a poem read and talked over with the children, and sometimes a regular lesson is taught in some subject in which the student is particularly interested. No attempt is made to give definite training in "method," because the purpose of the exercise is to establish simply a natural and easy relationship with the class through the medium of a subject that is well enough understood to enable the student to express herself without undue restraint and to begin to appreciate from experience some of the requisites which may or may not be present in her conduct of the exercise attempted.

This work invariably results in a quickened interest in observation and a better comprehension of what constitutes good teaching. A vague question or an ineffective illustration, a tone of voice that does not carry to all parts of the room; these defects and others, generally noted by the student herself, awaken her to the need of careful study of the child's mind, careful preparation of the lesson, and vigorous personal effort. On the other hand, if she succeeds in holding the attention and stimulating the interest of a class of children, she comes away from the experience with a new sense of power and a new interest in her work. The pupils in the school have a decided spirit of cooperation, and it is seldom that they fail to assist the beginner in every possible way.

In about half of the participation exercises students are allowed to work with small groups of pupils, either giving lessons in reading in the lower grades or helping individual children in arithmetic or in the correction of written work.

The assignment of these exercises is left to the discretion of the teacher, influenced to some extent by the student's choice and special adaptability. Their chief value lies in the fact that they are not formal imitations of copyings of a "model" lesson, but are intended, so far as possible, to bring students into such relations with the pupils as will best enable them to observe and study the working of children's minds under the conditions described. This is believed by the director of the school to be the natural mode of approach to teaching.

This procedure is based on the belief that teaching is and always will be more of an art than a science; that the establishment of personal mental relationships based on an informal study of individuals and groups, and supplemented by limited experience with whole classes, is the proper introduction and incentive to the study of the scientific side of education; and that exercises of the character above described furnish ample opportunity for self-examination and stimulate a desire for the study of educational psychology and special method. There is certainly some appreciation of "method," and there is much that associates with the study of psychology, but the formal study of neither of these things is sought. The purpose is rather to enable the student to pursue certain definite aims under conditions that stimulate the study of individual children and at the same time accustom her to some of the necessary restraints and formalities that are, for the present at least, a necessary accompaniment to the teaching and management of large numbers of children in the schoolroom.

While the room teacher frequently offers suggestion and advice, it is generally understood that it shall be encouraging rather than too critical, and the student is rated on her power of adaptability and self-expression rather than her mastery of any formal instructions.

SPECIAL EXERCISES.

The autumn walk in Fenway Park, the bulb planting, the sowing of seeds, and the walk in the springtime are all managed so as to emphasize not any set methods conducting such exercises, but the underlying principle that makes them valuable.

Children are naturally interested in all forms of life, but nature lessons presented in the schoolroom frequently result in little or no real stimulus or development of this natural interest. The chief value of these exercises lies in the active participation of children in securing the end sought, and there must be present on the part of the teacher a real enthusiasm and interest that enables her to meet her pupils on the level of a common interest.

The walk in the autumn aims to establish an appreciation of the approaching period of dormant life in nature. Any or all of the following conditions may form subjects of conversation and objects of observation:

(1) The scattering of seeds and their protection.
(2) The falling of leaves and the formation of dormant buds.
(3) The migration of birds.
(4) The metamorphosis of insects.

If later on the interest aroused results in further inquiries by the children which can be satisfied by more careful study and discussion of specimens in the classroom, the purpose of the excursion will have been realized.

The same spirit animates the other exercises. In every case each student has charge of from three to five pupils. A brief report is made by the student, and children are encouraged to write the story of what they have seen and done. This gives students a chance to see how much (or little) the children have really got as a result of their efforts, and furnishes them with their first opportunity to help children organize their ideas. So there is developed the conception of an exercise in written language based on a mutual experience; and the correction and discussion of the results bring students face to face with some of the problems of securing correct form and orderly thought in oral and written expression.

Besides all this, students have an excellent chance to see what children are like out of school, and to enter into much more natural relations with them than they are apt to acquire in the schoolroom. It is believed that the kind of contact thus established is of the greatest possible value in its influence on the point of view that the young teacher adopts in her later relations with pupils.

In the bulb-planting project four students are joined with the same number of children chosen from all rooms in the school. The soil is prepared, and bulbs are planted in 8-inch and 10-inch bulb pots. Their habit of growth is explained, and the bulbs are put away (generally in a pit out of doors). In December they are distributed among the rooms, and their development is watched with interest and satisfaction by all concerned. In this way about a thousand bulbs are brought to bloom in the darkest and dreariest part of the year. The different varieties of Narcissus are most used, and their beautiful blossoms are the chief attraction and decoration of the schoolrooms for several weeks in January and February.

The arithmetic field lesson requires a brief description because of its significant influence on all teaching which involves measurement.

Each student is assigned to a group of three pupils. She provides a stout cord 1 rod long, marked off in yards. One of the children brings a foot rule. A distance is selected for measurement, and each member of the group records a preliminary estimate. It is then measured and the result recorded. The idea of measuring by pacing the distance is then developed. The length of each one's pace is determined by pacing a measured distance several times and the result recorded. The next distance selected is first estimated, then paced, and lastly exactly measured. In the course of this exercise it is easy to see that several practical examples in multiplication, division, and reduction may arise. The real significance and relation of inches, feet, yards, and rods begin to become matters of interest. In the higher grades the scope of the exercise is extended to include areas. An interesting field of experience is opened up and the foundation is laid for useful application of facts learned. It not infrequently happens that some of the children are keener than the students themselves in judging distances. The whole exercise stimulates keen interest and attention, and results in definite satisfaction and growth of power.

ACTIVITIES OF THE SCHOOL.

In addition to the activities designed especially for the training of students, it is the purpose of the school to be responsive to a broad range of educational ideas and to work out some practical problems in education each year. It is not an "experimental" school and can not be so under present conditions; nor is it a "model" school in the sense of being a perfect school. In many ways it is difficult to secure more than average results in school work, owing to the location and equipment of the building, the school population, and other conditions outside of administrative control. It is believed, however, that any good school should do some work of an experimental character, that it should have some definite constructive aims, and that its teachers should be animated by a spirit of professional study. In these respects and in others that pertain to progressive school management and practice, the school maintains a standard of effort that may well serve as an example for students in the normal school and others interested in education. Three general lines of effort have characterized the work of the past year:

1. Work in connection with standard measurements of school efficiency.
2. Dramatization in connection with reading and literature.
3. Special projects with classes and groups of children.

1. Standard measurements.

(*a*) *English.*—The Courtis tests in English have been given in all grades above the third, largely for the purpose of determining their value for practical use. The nature of these tests, the fact that they were new to teachers and children, and the character and amount of correction and computation required in connection with them, made this a task of really tremendous difficulty to carry on, in addition to the regular work. The tabulations of results from these tests were analyzed, and a report is being prepared for the school department chiefly for the purpose of presenting an estimate of the value of these particular tests and some suggestions as to the kind of English tests that may be wisely undertaken.

(*b*) *Arithmetic.*—The Courtis tests in arithmetic have been given for two successive years by normal-school students, under direction of a department in the normal school. This year an attempt has been made by the model school to

improve the performance of pupils in the four fundamental operations in arithmetic by means of practice sheets similar to the Courtis tests, but presented and used in a manner suited to drill rather than simply to testing of ability. These sheets were printed and distributed at cost to other schools in the city and elsewhere. Nearly 350,000 of them were used in Boston, Cambridge, Fall River, Lawrence, Newton, Everett, New Bedford, and other places. The same forms will be issued again next year. They have proved to be valuable for the purpose intended, especially when used as directed in connection with the individual score sheet designed to accompany them. There are 16 sheets of addition combinations and 8 sheets each of subtraction, multiplication, and division. Information concerning these may be had by addressing the director of the model school.

(c) *Reading list on standard measurements.*—The following books and pamphlets have been added to the school library this year, and a list of them has been distributed to large numbers of teachers and principals with a view to encouraging reading and study of available sources. Some of these books are valuable in this connection only in small part, but all have been found to contain matter of considerable usefulness either of an elementary or advanced character.

READING LIST.

Russell Sage Foundation publications:
- Bulletin [illegible]226. The Spelling Vocabularies or Personal and Business Letters.
- A Scale for Measuring the Quality of Handwriting of School Children. L. P. Ayres.
- Bulletin No. 113. Department of Child Hygiene.
- Scientific Management in Education. J. M. Rice.

Teachers College publications:
- Contribution to Education, No. 48.
- Handwriting. E. L. Thorndike.
- Scale in Handwriting. E. L. Thorndike.
- A Scale for the Measurement of Quality in English Composition. M. B. Hillegas.
- Arithmetical Abilities and Some Factors Determining Them. C. W. Stone.
- Spelling Ability. B. R. Buckingham.
- Stevens—The Question.
- Experimental Studies in Kindergarten Education.
- Kindergarten Problems. J. A. MacVannell-Hill.
- Teachers College Record. Educational Surveys and Vocational Guidance.
- Teachers College Record. Comparative Experimental Teaching in Spelling.
- The Curriculum of the Horace Mann Elementary School.
- The Speyer School Curriculum.

Special Method in Reading for the Grades. McMurry.
The Examination of School Children. Pyle.
The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. Huey.
Reading. Branson.
Reading. Hall.
Reading. Laing.
How We Think. Dewey.
The Teaching of Arithmetic. Smith.
The Teaching of Primary Arithmetic. Suzzallo.

The Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education—Part I.

Manual of Mental and Physical Tests. G. M. Whipple.

Report of Committee of National Council of Education on Standard Tests for Measuring Efficiency of Schools or Systems of Schools. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 521. Washington, D. C.

The Binet-Simon Measuring Scale for Intelligence: Some Criticisms and Suggestions. L. P. Ayres.

The Futility of the Spelling Grind. Rice. Forum, April—June, 1897.

Report of Committee on School Inquiry. New York City. Part II, Subdivision 1, Section D.

Spelling in the Elementary School, 1902. Cornman.

The Effect of Practice in the Case of a Purely Intellectual Function. Thorndyke. American Journal of Psychology. XIX. 374–384.

Spelling. Wallin. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1911–12.

Educational Administration. Strayer and Thorndike.

Published by the Psychological Clinic Press, Philadelphia, Pa.: Some Results of Standard Tests. D. C. Bliss. The Psychological Clinic. March 15, 1912. Vol. VI, No. 1.

Published by Harvard College: Proceedings of the Harvard Teachers' Association. 1913.

Published by Department of Cooperative Research, Detroit, Mich.: Bulletin No. 2. Courtis Standard Tests. Second Annual Accounting, 1912–13.

2. *Dramatization.*—Dramatizing stories has long been a part of the work in reading in the lower grades. This year an attempt has been made to carry on such work rather freely in all grades in the school. Nearly all the reading matter suited for use in elementary schools ought to stimulate visualization and imagination and arouse a desire for natural and vigorous interpretation. That it does not always tend to do so is due in large part to the fact that so little opportunity is given the child to express himself in the manner most natural for children, i. e., by physical action. When children are encouraged to so express themselves, to create a setting appropriate for the reproduction of a story, and to devise means of carrying out the action and conversation necessary for its proper interpretation, the desire for intelligent and forceful expression is increased. Initiative, resourcefulness, and self-confidence are developed. The spirit of team work and mutual helpfulness is aroused. Opportunities abound for leadership and for cooperation.

The experiments tried in various rooms and in hall exercises have given teachers a good idea of the possibilities and limitations of independent work by the pupils, and have enabled them to make the most of the creative instincts of children without sacrificing the guidance, suggestion, and training that need to come from the teacher.

In the following partial list of stories dramatized this year will be found some that were taken from history work, others from reading-books, and still others from dramatic readers and books of plays. Many of these stories have been acted in the hall at Friday afternoon exercises, and out of the practice of "Friday afternoon dramatics" has grown the plan of having one or more rooms furnish a little entertainment each Friday for the rest of the school and for such parents as may come.

In general it is not too much to say that the larger use of dramatization has greatly increased the interest of children in oral reading and in each other. It has helped bring teachers and children into closer and more companionable

relations and has socialized the spirit of the school. Several of the children have written or adapted little plays. It is believed that the influence of this work carries over into the life of all the children to a considerable extent, even when they do not frequently take an active part in it.

A PARTIAL LIST OF STORIES DRAMATIZED.

Grade I.

Grade II.
- Three Piggy Wigs.
- The Gingerbread Man.
- The Three Goats.
- The Three Bears.
- The Country Mouse and the City Mouse.
- The Boy who cried "Wolf."

Grade III.
- The Rich Goose.
- The Stone in the Road.
- Johnny Cake.
- Billy Binks.
- The Three Little Pigs and the Ogre.
- The Wolf and the Kid.
- The Ant and the Mouse.
- The Marriage of Robin and Wren.
- The Tar Baby.
- The Wish Bird.

Grade IV.
- Little Pilgrims.
- Jack Horner's Pie.
- Reynard the Fox.
- The Sleeping Beauty.
- Wise Men of Gotham.
- The Gorgon's Head.
- Daniel Boone.
- Daniel Webster's First Plea.

Grade V.
- The Gingerbread Man.
- The Three Bears.
- Cinderella.
- Abraham Lincoln.
- Cosette.
- Little Snowdrop.
- Brought to Trial.

Grade VI.
- His Word of Honor.
- Sleeping Beauty.
- William Tell.
- William Haverly.
- The Bird's Christmas Carol.
- The Three Wishes.
- The Soldier's Reprieve.
- Dinner at the Cratchits'.
- A Brave Boy.
- Scrooge and Marley.
- Hansel and Gretel.

Grade VII.
- Cinderella.
- Persephone.
- Columbus Seeking Assistance from Royalty.
- The First Thanksgiving.
- General Gage and the Boston Boys.
- Nimble Wit and Fingerkins.
- A Lesson on George Washington.
- Scrooge's Christmas.
- The Boston Tea Party.
- The Capture of Fort Ticonderoga.
- Opportunity.

Grade VIII.
- The Vicar of Wakefield.
- Little Men.
- The Sleeping Beauty.
- Nathan Hale.
- The Diamond Necklace.
- The Treason of Benedict Arnold.
- Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm.

3. Special projects.

Under this head a great variety of activities might be included, but only a few can be referred to here.

(*a*) *Nature study and gardening.*—It is believed by the writer that no argument is needed to support the theory that an appreciation of nature and an interest in growing things are vital, practical elements in any complete scheme of education. That they are difficult of accomplishment in a city school should

not prevent some effort being made to at least partly achieve results by suggestion and demonstration, even though every child can not participate largely. A small garden is maintained in both of the school yards in the district, and a considerable number of children plant seeds every year and bring plants from their home gardens. Seeds are started in boxes in the school, and although the results are not very satisfactory, owing to poor conditions, it is surprising to see how many children are encouraged to do some planting at home, and how interested they are in the process. In addition to the seeds sent from Washington every year for free distribution, several hundred small packets are made up by the children from seed bought at wholesale and sold at cost to pupils.

The most successful form of gardening for city children in school has been found to be bulb growing, both because the results are fairly certain and because the operations are easily arranged anywhere, and may be duplicated successfully in the home.

In accord[illegible] with its policy of cooperation, the school extends to all teachers in the city the opportunity to share in the results of its efforts in this direction. Bulbs and pots are furnished at cost to all who want them. In this way about 8,000 bulbs and several hundred pots were distributed last fall.

If the school department would furnish proper potting soil and take charge of the distribution of bulbs and pots, a long step forward would be taken in establishing a permanent interest in indoor gardening of a practical character. As to the educational value of bulb growing, one has only to visit the Martin School when the bulbs are in flower to be convinced of the influence that this enterprise has upon the children individually and upon the school as a whole.

About a thousand bulbs are grown at the school each year. All these varieties have been found suitable for indoor use except the Darwin tulips, which are only for outdoor planting. Of the other tulips, Yellow Prince seems to be the best for indoors.

The situation of the school, near the Fenway, makes it possible to encourage bird study. Although no attempt is made to follow any set course of instruction, children are quick to develop an intelligent interest in nature in any form, and it is noticeable how often those who go on a field trip while in a primary grade will refer to it in the following year or two years afterwards. The attitude taken by the teacher on such excursions is not wholly that of an instructor, but rather that of an intelligent parent or companion of the children interested to help the little ones to share in an appreciation of the truly wonderful life that is revealed to the observant mind.

(*b*) *Miscellaneous field trips.*—Field work with classes of 40 or 50 children presents some difficulties, but most of them are soon overcome when the teacher and children become accustomed to the changed situation and adjust themselves to it. The most important thing to be assured of is that the teacher has a definite and comprehensive knowledge of what she wants the children to get from the trip. Of course, it is important that the thing should be worth getting and that it will contribute to better comprehension of social, political, industrial, historical, or commercial facts. Teachers who have done the most in this line of work with children find increasing interest and satisfaction in it. Not a great deal is attempted by any one teacher, but this form of education is encouraged in the school, and its extension is believed to be desirable.

In this account of the activities of the school emphasis has been laid upon several features that are still spoken of by a few people as "fads" and "frills." It should not be supposed that the school believes in sacrificing the intellectual

discipline that comes from careful study and systematic drill or the development of character that results from obedience to authority and from the performance of required tasks, whether they are interesting or not. A great deal of the work in any school is bound to make demands upon the will power and determination of pupils. It ought so to do as a preparation for the requirements of practical life. But if, in addition to this, a spirit of social and individual activity can be encouraged and wholesome interests aroused and quickened by other means than textbook study and schoolroom recitation, then these other aims are worthy of encouragement and emphasis. It is the conscious aim of the school to utilize as many of the natural interests of children as possible; not to weaken, but to reinforce and invigorate the process of education in those fundamental facts that constituted almost the sole aim of the "education of yesterday."

APPENDIX E.

TABLE 1.—*Teachers' training schools—Salaries, membership, graduates, etc.*

Location.	Institution and principal.	Date founded.[1]	Years in normal course.	Students in training courses for teachers.		Graduates from teachers' training courses.		New teachers required in city each year.	Daily pay of practice teachers.	Salary of principal.	"Theory" teachers.		"Practice" teachers.		Supervisors.		"Special" teachers.		Clerks, librarians, etc.	
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.
New York	Brooklyn Training School for Teachers—*Emma L. Johnston.*	[2]1885	2	26	1,073	11	560	.....	$0.75	$5,000	49	$1,400 3,250	.....	.....	7	$1,600 1,850	.....	.....	 3	$900 1,300
Do	New York Training School for Teachers—*E. N. Jones.*	Sept., 1898.	2	45	831	13	345	1,568	.75	5,000	39	3,250	.....	.....	6	1,850	.....	.....	3	1,400
Do	Jamaica Training School for Teachers—*A. C. McLachlan.*	1906	2	2	214	.....	105	.....	.75	5,000	14	2,150 3,250	.....	.....	2	1,610 1,850	1	$2,750	1	1,050
Chicago	The Chicago Normal College—*W. B. Owen.*	1856 1893 1896	2	26	680	.....	.....	350	.....	5,500	34	1,400 3,000	104	$950 1,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	960 1,900 90
Philadelphia	School of Pedagogy—*Francis Brandt.*	[3]1891 1896	[3]2	91	.....	.....	.....	.....	0	3,500	5	1,900 2,200	2	1,550	.....	.....	3	1,000	1	800
Do	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls—*J. Eugene Baker.*	1818 1848 1893	2	.....	871	.....	293	300	0	4,500	33	.....	73	950 1,150	4	1,400	16	1,200 700 1,576	7	600 1,400
St. Louis	Harris Teachers College—*John W. Withers.*	Sept., 1905.	2	.....	293	.....	86	101	(4)	4,500	12	1,576 3,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	2,200	2	1,100
Do	Normal Course in Sumner High School—*Frank L. Williams.*	.....	2	.....	29	.....	.....	9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Boston	Boston Normal School—*Wallace Boyden.*	1852 1872	[5]3	10	215	10	101	100-216	0	4,068	14	1,620 3,204	.....	.....	5	1,500 3,780	4	.....	1	720
Cleveland	Cleveland Normal Training School—*James M. McLane.*	Sept., 1874.	2	.....	200	.....	82	100	0	.....	11	.....	.....	1,100	1	2,000	4	1,100 1,800	 2	500 1,000
Baltimore	Baltimore Teachers' Training School—*Frank A. Manny.*	1851 1872 1901	2	4	50	.....	57	58	1.00	3,800	5	1,100 1,200	10	750 900	3	900	.....	.....	.....	.....

[1] Where more years than one year are given, reorganizations are indicated.
[2] Central High School teachers give 12 hours a week of service.
[3] One-year course from 1891-1896.
[4] For half year, $100.
[5] Three-year course since 1912.

TABLE 1.—*Teachers' training schools—Salaries, membership, graduates, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Institution and principal.	Date founded.	Years in normal course.	Students in training courses for teachers.		Graduates from teachers' training courses.		New teachers required in city each year.	Daily pay of practice teachers.	Salary of principal.	"Theory" teachers.		"Practice" teachers.		Supervisors.		"Special" teachers.		Clerks, librarians, etc.	
				Male.	Female.	Male	Female.				Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.
Baltimore	Baltimore Colored Training School—*J. H. Lockerman.*	Jan., 1901.	2	7	52	3	15	28	0	$2,400	3	$700–1,000	7	$750–900	2	$900 1,200	4	.....	1	(1)
Pittsburgh	Pittsburgh Training School for Teachers—*H. B. Davis.*	Sept., 1912.	2	.....	176	.....	.....	100	0	.....	14	1,200 2,500	.....	.....	2	2,500	6	.....	1	$750
Detroit	Washington Normal School—*J. F. Thomas.*	[2]1882	3	.....	280	.....	83	100	2.50	3,000	7	1,300 1,800	[3]K. 4 E. 16	900 1,300	.....	.....	6	.....	2	.....
Buffalo	Teachers Training School—*Byron H. Heath.*	Sept., 1898.	2	1	39	.....	.....	50–75	(4)	2,500	3	1,200 1,500	10	1,050 1,300	.....	.....	5	$600 2,200	0	.....
Cincinnati	University of Cincinnati College for Teachers—*W. P. Barrus.*	1868 1905	4	42	243	.....	33	.....	.....	4,200	3	1,600 3,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	9	600 3,500	(5)	.....
Newark	Normal and Training School—*A. Spade Willis.*	1855 1870	2	7	336	.....	45	108–186	0	3,800	8	1,800 2,100	11	1,600	.....	.....	3	2,000 3,000	2	830 880
New Orleans	New Orleans Normal School—*Margaret Hanson.*	Oct., 1895.	2	.....	351	.....	(K. 16) 79	50	0	1,700	15	900 1,150	12	800–1,200	4	850 1,150	3	900 1,150	1	700
Washington	J. Ormand Wilson Normal School—*Anne M. Goding.*	1873	2	.....	152	.....	(K. 17) 84	.....	0	2,500	6	1,000 1,800	8	1,000 1,800	.....	.....	4	1,000 1,800	0	.....
Do	Normal School No. 2—*Lucy E. Moten.*	[6]1851 1871 1888	2	4	123	.....	77	75	0	2,500	7	1,000 1,800	3	1,800	.....	.....	3	1,600	0	.....
Jersey City	Teachers' Training School—*J. H. Brensinger.*	Sept., 1896.	2	.....	130	.....	72	66	0	4,000	.....	1,040 4,000	14	1,400	2	1,552 2,000	.....	.....	1	744
Kansas City (Mo.)	Training School—*Gertrude E. Greene.*	1900	1½	.....	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,400	1	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indianapolis	City Normal School—*Marion Lee Webster.*	1867	2	.....	110	.....	57	40	2.00	2,000	.....	.....	18	1,025 1,500	.....	.....	[7]10	50 200	0	.....

Louisville	Louisville Normal School—*Elizabeth Breckenridge.*	1876	2		30		20		0	2,000		1,200	7	900			4	1,500	1	450
								75		2,500	2	1,500		1,000				1,650		
Do	Colored Normal School—*Albert E. Meyzeek.*	1897	2		21				0	1,500	1		6	550			1	300	1	250
														750						
Rochester	Training School for Teachers—*Edith A Scott.*	1898	[2]		90		34	25–30	0	2,100	7	[7] 625	17	850	6	1,100	1	1,250	0	
												1,500		1,050		1,500				
St. Paul	Teachers' Training School—*L. L. Everly.*	1882	[2]		63		23	25–50	0	2,500	8	1,000	9	1,000			5	1,600	1	700
												1,500		1,300						
Columbus	Columbus Normal School—*M. W. Sutherland.*	1893	2		108		44	50–60	0	2,000	[10] 1	1,500	9	900			6	900	0	
														1,350				2,000		
Toledo	Toledo Normal School—*Ella M. R. Baird.*	1893 1898	2		62		39	30–40	0	1,600			3	1,000			5		0	
Atlanta	Normal Department Girls' High School—*Jessie Muse.*	1909	1½		22			24–25	0	1,800			3				3		0	
Syracuse	Syracuse Teachers' Training School—*G. A. Lewis.*	1880 1887	2		54		17	12–15	0	1,800	2	1,000	1	1,200						
												1,200								
Birmingham	Training School for Teachers—*Rosa Strickland.*	1887 1895 1908	2		33			60		1,200	2	540	12				5		0	
												900								
Richmond	Teachers' Training School—*Jas. Saunders.*	1911	2		50			25	0	2,100	2	1,100	3	660			6	450	1	25
														765				2,100		
Do	Armstrong High School—*S. D. Turner.*	1911	2		24				0	2,250	2	900	4	600			3	900	0	
												1,000								
Paterson	Paterson Normal Training School—*Frank Webster Smith.*	1870	2		119	1	55	40	0	2,700	5	1,000	19	900	4	1,500	0		0	
												1,200		1,050						
Omaha	Teachers' Training School—*Clara F. Cooper.*	1905	2		43			5–50	[11]	1,550			1	1,550			5	1,550	0	
Fall River	City Normal School—*Anna W. Braley.*	1888	2		47			12–15	0	1,800	1	1,200	2	1,000			3	1,500	0	
Dayton	Dayton Normal Sch'l—*Grace A. Greene.*	Sept. 1869	2		58		41	20	0	1,500	2	1,000	4	800			6	800		
												1,365		900				1,300		
Cambridge	Wellington Training School for Teachers—*Herbert H. Bates.*	Sept. 1884	1					30–40	[12]	2,800	0				2	1,000			1	650
Bridgeport	City Normal School—*Bessie Howes.*	1889	2		55		19	45	[14]	1,800	5	900		900			4	1,200	1	[14] 240
												1,100		1,100				1,500		

[1] $1.50 per day.
[2] Kindergarten course opened in 1895.
[3] K., kindergarten course; E., elementary course.
[4] Receive pay only when substituting.
[5] University staff.
[6] 1851, private school; 1871, semi-public; 1888, public.
[7] Additional for normal work.
[8] Primary-kindergarten combined course 2½ years.
[9] For half year.
[10] Instructor from university gives half-day service.
[11] $100 per year.
[12] $150 first half year; $200 second half.
[13] $2,000 all.
[14] For half time.

TABLE 1.—*Teachers' training schools—Salaries, membership, graduates, etc.*—Continued.

Location.	Institution and principal.	Date founded.	Years in normal course.	Students in training courses for teachers.		Graduates from teachers' training courses.		New teachers required in city each year.	Daily pay of practice teachers.	Salary of principal.	"Theory" teachers.		"Practice" teachers.		Supervisors.		"Special" teachers.		Clerks, librarians, etc.	
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.				Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.	Number.	Salaries.
Albany	Teachers' Training School—*Ida H. Latta.*	1884	2	.....	39	.....	13	15	$0	$2,500	2	$1,100	2	$1,100	.....	.....	5	$750 1,900	1	(1)
Trenton	Carroll Robbins Training School[2]—*Ella A. Macpherson.*	Oct., 1891.	[2] 2	.....	53	.....	.....	50–60	(4)	1,700	2	.....	23	.....	1	$1,500	2	800 1,200	0	.....
Reading	Normal Training School for Girls—*Martha A. Seiders.*	1908	2	.....	34	34	10	10–15	(4)	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Camden	Normal Training School—*Winifred L. Jones.*	1894	2	.....	30	.....	.....	30–35	0	1,100	1	1,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	1,000 1,800	.....	.....
Wilmington	Teachers' Training School—*Clara Mendenhall.*	1882	2	.....	41	.....	.....	20–25	0	1,200	2	800 900	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	900 1,600	1	.....
Kansas City, (Kans.)	Training School—*E. A. White.*	1900	2	.....	78	.....	.....	35–40	.50	2,136	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Yonkers	Training School for Teachers—*E. M. Taylor.*	Sept., 1909	2	.....	49	.....	.....	60–70	$2.00 (5)	1,500	3	1,000	3	.....	.....	.....	8	.....	.....	.....
Youngstown	City Training School—*Mary E. Weber.*	1912	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–30	[6] 2.00	1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Troy	Troy Training School—*Elizabeth L. Bradley.*	1894	2	.....	31	.....	15	5	0	1,200	2	900 1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	900 1,500	0	.....
Elizabeth	Elizabeth Normal and Training School—*Julius M. Winslow.*	Sept., 1907	2	.....	60	.....	13	15	1.50	2,700	2	1,200	6	700 950	.....	.....	4	900 1,500	1	$475
Schenectady	Teachers' Training School—*C. B. Jeffers.*	1896	2	.....	26	.....	18	35–45	0	2,200	2	800 900	6	700 800	.....	.....	0	.....	0	.....
Evansville	City Normal School—*Bobbins M. Hess.*	Sept., 1911	2	.....	31	.....	.....	10–25	0	1,100	2	[7] 950	3	800	.....	.....	4	1,000 1,600	0	.....
Akron	Perkins Normal School—*L. R. Knight.*	1895	2	.....	19	.....	.....	40	0	2,000	3	750 950	3	750 950	.....	.....	2	1,100 1,600	0	.....
Peoria	——— Normal School—*Mrs. Abbie A. Hunter.*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	[8] 1.50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Erie	Normal Class—*Celestia J. Hershey.*	Sept., 1903	2		24			10	0	1,045							8		0
Harrisburg	Teachers' Training School—*Annie U. Wert.*	1902	2		36			20-25	0	1,200			2	750			2	1,200 1,400	0
Fort Wayne	Fort Wayne Normal School—*Flora Wilber.*	1867 1886 1897	2		21			8-10	0		2		6	800 900			5		
Charleston	Memminger High and Normal School—*D. M. O. Driscoll.*	1911	1		24			5-10	0	1,400							9	495 675	
Bay City	City Training School	1890	2		15			15	(2)	1,200	6	750 800	(10)				8	700 1,200	
Davenport	Teachers' Training School—*A. O. Sheriff.*	1863	1		16			10-15	0										
Macon	Elam Alexander Normal School—*Pearl Stephens.*	1897	2		23			18	0	1,200							2	1,200	0
Elmira	Elmira Training School—*Esther E. Saiterlee.*	1895	2		13		9	5	0	1,250	1	750	5	600			3	1,050 1,250	0
Chelsea	Training School—*Et, miss S. Winship.*	Sept., 1898	2		6			25	(11)						1				
Watertown	Watertown Training School—*E. Mary Walradt.*	Sept., 1899	2		26		9	25	2.50	900	1	1,650	1	1,650			2	750	0
Burlington	Teachers' Training School—*Martha Cox.*	Sept., 1873	2		10			3-8	0	1,150							4	50 extra.	0
Muskegon	Normal Training School—*Marjorie Kerman.*	Dec., 1890	1½		24			6-10	0	1,200	1						5	700 1,100	0
Concord (N. H.)	Concord Training School—*Addie F. Straw.*		2		12			4	0	1,000							2	900 1,175	

[1] $1.50 per day.
[2] Formerly the Hewitt Training School.
[3] One year until May 3, 1900.
[4] Receive pay only when substituting.
[5] Seldom.
[6] Not less than 30 days.
[7] For part time.
[8] For 40 days.
[9] Second semester, $5 a month; third, $10; fourth, $15.
[10] Included in teachers of theory.
[11] $300 a year.

TABLE 2.—*Proportion of teachers in certain cities (1) untrained beyond high school; (2) trained in city beyond high school; (3) trained elsewhere beyond high school.*

Cities.	Teachers untrained beyond high school.							Teachers trained in city beyond high school.							Teachers trained elsewhere beyond high school.						
	White.		Colored.		Total.			White.		Colored.		Total.			White.		Colored.		Total.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Philadelphia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	115	2,812	45	6	160	2,818	2,978	27	701	7	4	34	705	739
Cleveland							173							1,562							702
Baltimore	28	621	12	28	40	649	689	26	593	21	104	47	697	744	0	5	0	17	0	22	22
Milwaukee																			60	928	988
Newark	12	32			12	32	44	2	845	0	5	2	850	852	70	443			70	443	513
New Orleans	0	0	0	23	0	23	23	15	850	0	60	15	910	925	16	177	5	20	21	197	218
Washington	0	107	0	22	0	129	129	6	601	47	332	53	1,023	1,076	0	55	6	11	6	66	72
Minneapolis	0	51	0	0	0	51	51	1	116	0	0	1	116	117	32	853	0	1	32	854	886
Jersey City	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	719	0	3	0	722	722	18	21			18	21	39
Seattle	0	98	0	0	0	98	98	0	0						0	618				618	618
Indianapolis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	263	0	31	0	294	294	0	282	6	23	6	305	311
Louisville	0	28	0	0	0	28	28	1	400	0	86	1	486	487	2	57	7	20	9	77	86
Rochester	0	0			0	0								400							300
St. Paul	0	46			0	46	46	0	339			0	339	339	13	221			13	221	234
Denver							200														800
Portland		152				152	152		169				169	169						290	290
New Haven	0	13	0	0	0	13	13	0	425	0	2	0	427	427	0	86	0	0	0	86	86
Birmingham		25	15	50	15	75	90	0	120			0	120	120	10	230	8	75	18	305	323
Scranton	0	86				86	86	2	218			2	218	220	52	232			52	232	284
Richmond	2	184	6	89	8	273	281	3	38	0	2	3	40	43	18	40	4	10	22	50	72
Paterson	0	0						2	450			2	450	452	0	10			0	10	10
Omaha	0	0							150				150	150		400				400	400
Grand Rapids		100				100	100		50				50	50		250				250	250
Nashville	2	108	15	29	17	137	154								35	160	14	34	49	194	243
Cambridge	4	14			4	14	18		207		1		208	208	51	182			51	182	233
Spokane	0	45			0	45	45	0	3			0	3	3	17	340			17	340	357
Albany	5	77			5	77	82	0	199			0	199	199	13	16			13	16	29
Trenton		32	1	1	1	33	34		178				178	178		154	1	4	1	158	159
Camden								0	154		4	0	158	158							
Wilmington	12	45	3	8	15	33	48														
Yonkers									40				40	40	11	350			11	350	361
Youngstown	4	86	0	0	4	86	90	0	0	0	0	0	0		27	176	0	0	27	176	203
Troy								1	180			1	180	181	13	33	46		13	33	46
Elizabeth	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	170	0	1	0	171	23	23	60	0	0	23	60	83
Schenectady	0	0						0	81				81	81	0	214			0	214	214

Evansville	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	10	10		175		25		200	200
Akron	0	0						0	77				77	77		250				250	250
Erie									260				260	260	12				12		12
Fort Wayne									87				87	87							
Charleston [2]																					
Bay City	0	5				5	5	0	52				52	52	8	115			8	115	123
Davenport	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	162			2	162	164	16	30			16	30	46
Macon				42		42	42		152				152	152	6	46	0	15	6	61	67
Elmira							0		78				78	78	7	69			7	69	76
Watertown		24				24	24		52				52	52	0	46				46	46
Muskegon							0		72				72	72	26	63			26	63	89
Concord (N. H.)		5				5	5		36				36	36		10				10	10
Total	69	1,964	52	292	121	2,256	[3] 2,750	176	11,498	113	637	289	12,135	[3] 14,386	523	7,170	58	259	641	8,647	[3] 11,090

[1] Twenty-seven months' experience required.
[2] All female teachers except two colored are graduates of the city normal school or of a college.
[3] Totals are greater than sum of males and females, as some cities did not classify by sex.

TABLE 3.—*Summary of data in Table 2.*

I. CITIES WITH LESS THAN 100,000 POPULATION HAVING TRAINING SCHOOLS.

	Untrained beyond high school.	Trained in city beyond high school.	Trained elsewhere beyond high school.
Trenton	34	179	159
Camden		158	
Yonkers		40	361
Troy		181	46
Elizabeth		171	83
Schenectady		81	214
Akron		77	250
Erie		260	12
Bay City	5	52	123
Davenport		164	46
Macon	42	152	67
Elmira		78	76
Watertown	24	52	46
Muskegon		72	89
Concord	5	36	10
Total	110	1,753	1,582

II. CITIES OF 100,000 POPULATION OR OVER HAVING TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Cleveland	173	1,562	702
Baltimore	389	744	22
Newark	44	852	513
New Orleans	23	925	218
Washington	129	1,076	72
Jersey City		722	39
Indianapolis		294	311
Louisville	28	487	80
Rochester	46	339	234
Birmingham	90	120	323
Richmond	281	48	72
Pittsburgh		452	10
Omaha		150	400
Cambridge	18	208	233
Albany	82	190	29
Total	1,603	8,173	3,264

III. CITIES OF 100,000 POPULATION OR OVER WITHOUT TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Minneapolis	51	117	886
Seattle	98		618
Denver	200		800
Portland	152	169	290
New Haven	13	427	86
Scranton	80	220	284
Grand Rapids	100	50	250
Nashville	154		243
Spokane	45	3	357
Total	893	986	3,814

TABLE 4.—*Number of elementary teachers employed in 1913, and of new teachers required each year; salaries of practice teachers and substitutes; minimum and maximum salaries of elementary teachers in 50 cities with over 100,000 inhabitants, and in smaller cities having training schools.*

Cities.	Population.	Elementary teachers.	New teachers required annually.	Salaries.					
				Of practice teachers.	Of substitutes.	In probationary period.	On election.	Annual increase.	Elementary maximum.
New York	4,766,883	15,182	1,568	*Per day.* (1)	*Per day.* $3.00	.....	$720	.....	[2] $1,500
Chicago	2,185,283	5,499	[3] 350	0	3.00	[4] $3.00	650	$50	1,830 1,175
Philadelphia	1,549,008	3,946	[5] 300	0	2.00	[4] 2.00	520	30	[2] 1,225 820
St. Louis	687,029	1,765	[6] 110	(6)	2.00	600.00	600	40	920 [7] 1,032
Boston	670,585	2,118	100–216	0	2.00–4.00	[4] 2.00	600	72	[8] 1,300
Cleveland	560,663	1,664	100	0	.....	[9] 500.00	550	50	1,000
Baltimore	558,485	1,601	[10] 84	[11] $1.00	1.00–1.50	(12)	500–600	50	800
Pittsburgh	533,905	1,287	100	0	.....	.....	500	50	[13] 900 [2] 1,050
Detroit	465,766	1,218	100	2.50	2.50	[14] 50.00	500	50	1,000
Buffalo	423,715	1,319	50–75	0	2.00	.....	500	50	[15] 1,100 900 950
San Francisco	416,912	963	80	.....	3.00	840.00	900–960	.....	[16] 1,164 1,224
Milwaukee	373,857	1,019	75–100	.....	2.00–3.00	.....	[17] 540 [18] 600	.....	[16] 960 [20] 1,020
Cincinnati	363,591	989	50–70	0	2.25	.....	[21] 450 [22] 600	50	1,000
Newark	347,469	1,230	108–186	0	2.00–3.00	[4] 2.00	580	.....	[23] 1,100 [2] 1,300
New Orleans	339,075	1,114	50	0	1.75	500.00	500	50	750 [8] 800
Washington	331,069	1,365	75	0	1.00–3.00	600.00	660	.....	1,350
Los Angeles	319,198	1,120	100	.....	(24)	744.00	.....	48	1,080
Minneapolis	301,408	958	150	.....	2.00–3.00	.....	600	.....	1,000
Jersey City	267,779	670	66	0	2.00	.....	600	48	1,200
Kansas City	248,381	929	40	.....	4.00	300.00–450.00	600	50	[2] 1,000
Seattle	237,194	681	80	.....	3.50	.....	810	.....	1,050
Indianapolis	233,650	751	75	2.00	2.50–3.00	450.00	500	.....	875 [25] 925
Providence	224,326	660	50	.....	2.00	[4] 2.00	500	.....	750 [2] 900
Louisville	223,928	589	35	.....	(26)	[14] 40.00–[14] 45.00	500	.....	800
Rochester	218,149	607	25–50	.....	.....	.....	500	.....	[27] 1,000
St. Paul	214,744	549	25–50	0	2.50	[28] 500.00	500	.....	1,000
Denver	213,381	747	80–100	.....	3.00	.....	600	.....	[29] 900
Portland (Oreg.)	207,214	602	65	.....	2.50–3.00	.....	725	.....	1,000
Columbus	181,511	.....	50–60	0	2.50–3.75	.....	825 500	50	[30] 1,100 850
Toledo	168,497	587	30–40	1.50	.....	400.00	[14] 50	50	850
Atlanta	150,174	376	24–45	0	1.50	[14] 40.00	[14] 57	.....	[31] 77.84
Oakland	150,174	412	60	.....	3.00–4.00	.....	780	.....	[32] 1,200

[1] $75 per year.
[2] For teachers of eighth grade.
[3] Includes 75 old teachers returned.
[4] Per day.
[5] 88 white teachers, 13 kindergarten, and 9 colored.
[6] $100 for half year.
[7] Second assistant.
[8] Head assistant.
[9] For 38 weeks.
[10] 58 white; 26 colored.
[11] For white teachers.
[12] $1.50 preliminary, then one year at $444 for women and colored men; $600 for white men.
[13] Teachers of grades one to seven.
[14] Per month.
[15] 13 assistants in grammar school.
[16] Reached in eighth grade.
[17] Teachers of grades two to seven.
[18] Reached in twelfth year by teachers of grades two to seven.
[19] Teachers of grades one and eight.
[20] Reached in twelfth year by teachers of grades one and eight.
[21] Noncollege graduates.
[22] College graduates.
[23] Teachers of grades one to six.
[24] Same as regular teachers.
[25] Teachers of 1 B and grades seven and eight.
[26] Three-fourths of regular pay.
[27] Eleventh year.
[28] Two years.
[29] Sixth year.
[30] Teachers of seventh to ninth grades.
[31] Eleventh year; colored, $310 to $430.
[32] Twelfth year.

TABLE 4.—*Number of elementary teachers employed in 1913, and of new teachers required each year, etc.*—Continued.

Cities.	Population.	Elementary teachers.	New teachers required annually.	Salaries.					
				Of practice teachers.	Of substitutes.	In probationary period.	On election.	Annual increase.	Elementary maximum.
				Per day.	*Per day.*				
Worcester	145,986	529	10–25	.....	$2.00	.....	$500	$50	$750
Syracuse	137,249	447	12–15	0	2.00	[1] $2.00	400	50	.....
New Haven	133,605	531	40	.....	2.00	.....	450	50	750
									[2] 850
Birmingham	132,685	474	40	.....	[3] 15.00	[3] 50.00	[3] 50	5	90
Memphis	131,105	337	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Scranton	129,867	487	20–30	.....	(4)	.....	[3] 49	.....	[5] 66
Richmond	127,628	329	25	.....	1.20	[4] 22.50	405	.....	720
									[6] 765
Paterson	125,600	430	40	0	1.50	.....	475	.....	900
Omaha	124,096	430	5–50	[7] $100.00	(4)	500.00	500	50	1,000
Fall River	119,295	496	12–15	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	[8] 500
									700
Dayton	116,577	358	20	0	2.00	[1] 2.00	[3] 50	.....	70
Grand Rapids	112,571	382	25	.....	1.75–3.75	.....	400	.....	[5] 800
Nashville	110,364	309	15	.....	[9] 2.00	.....	[3] 40	5	[5] 70
					[10] 1.50		[3] 30	5	[6] 55
Lowell	106,294	280	.....	.....	[3] 24.00	.....	500	.....	800
					[7] 300.00				
Cambridge	104,839	361	30–40	(11)	1.00	.....	510	60	750
Spokane	104,402	361	50	.....	3.50	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bridgeport	102,054	270	45	(12)	(4)	.....	500	.....	850
Albany	100,253	254	15	0	1.50	.....	500	50	700
Trenton	96,815	.....	50–60	0	1.75	[1] 1.75	440	40	840
									[13] 1,000
Reading	96,071	.....	10–15	0	1.50	.....	[14] 40	[15]	.....
							55		
Camden	94,538	.....	30–35	0	.....	.....	500	50	800
Wilmington	87,411	.....	20–25	0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas City (Kans.)	82,331	.....	35–40	.50–2.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Yonkers	79,803	.....	60–70	0	2.00–4.00	[1] 2.00	600	.....	[16] 1,000
									1,000
									2,000
Youngstown	79,066	.....	20–30	2.00	2.00	.....	400	50	900
Troy	76,813	.....	5	0	1.50	.....	400	.....	650
Elizabeth	73,409	.....	15	1.50	1.50	[3] 45.00	450	.....	850
Schenectady	72,826	.....	35–45	0	1.50	500.00	500	.....	750
									[17] 850
Evansville	69,647	.....	10–25	0	2.75	.....	.....	.....	750
Akron	69,067	.....	40	0	2.00	.....	500	.....	850
Peoria	66,950	.....	20	1.50	(4)	.....	450	.....	[18] 850
Erie	66,525	.....	10	0	2.00	[1] 2.00	[3] 42	30	.....
							[3] 50		
Harrisburg	64,186	.....	20–25	0	2.00	.....	40	.....	75
							50		80
Fort Wayne	63,933	.....	8–10	0	(4)	.....	.....	.....	.....
Charleston	58,833	.....	5–10	0	1.50	[1] 1.50	360	22	495
									540
Bay City	45,166	.....	15	[3] 5.00–15.00	2.00–2.50	[1] 2.00	350	.....	750
Davenport	43,028	.....	10–15	0	2.25	[1] 2.25	450	.....	[19] 650
									700
									750
Macon	40,665	.....	18	0	1.25	.....	450	.....	630
Elmira	37,176	.....	5	0	2.00	.....	40	.....	60
Chelsea	32,452	.....	25	[7] 300.00	[3] 2.50	500.00	550	50	750
Watertown	26,730	.....	25	2.50	1.60	.....	440	20	[20] 500
Burlington (Iowa)	24,324	.....	3–8	0	2.50	.....	.....	.....	.....
Muskegon	24,062	.....	6–10	0	2.00	[1] 1.50	350	50	.....
Concord	21,497	.....	4	0	.....	.....	400	.....	650

[1] Per day.
[2] Teachers of grades seven and eight.
[3] Per month.
[4] Regular pay.
[5] Reached in ninth year.
[6] If holding special certificate.
[7] Per year.
[8] Assistants not in charge of rooms.
[9] White.
[10] Colored.
[11] $150 first half year; $200 second half.
[12] $2,000 for all.
[13] Special schedule.
[14] $40 per month to teachers of first grade and $55 per month to teachers of grades seven and eight.
[15] Male school, $2 additional; mixed, $1.
[16] $1,000 for teachers of grades one to seven, and $2,000 for teachers of grade eight.
[17] For grammar and vocational teachers.
[18] Tenth year.
[19] $650 for teachers of grades one to six; $700 for grade seven; $750 for grade eight.
[20] Probable increase to $600.

TABLE 5.—*Persistence in service, and distribution in grades, of training school graduates in certain cities.*

Cities.	Training schools.		Graduates in service.	In kindergartens.	In grades.								Total elementary.	Teaching in high schools.	In teachers' training schools.	As assistant principals.	As principals.	As special or assistant.
	Date founded.	Total graduates.			I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.						
New York	1898	3,547	2,387															
Brooklyn	1885	7,040	5,600															
Jamaica	1906	2,171	1,364										1,317	10	5	2	20	
Philadelphia:																		
Women's	[1] 1818 / 1848 / 1893	[2] 5,093	2,700 / 3,000															
Men's	1891 / 1896	291	228															
St. Louis	1905	[3] 452																
Boston	1852 / 1872	4,377																
Cleveland	1874	2,600			291	208	204	191	179	154	132	108			40			
Baltimore:																		
White	1851 / 1872 / 1901	540	400		98	78	63	65	31	20	8	2		1	2			[4] 22
Colored	1901	169			38	36	34	27	13	10	4	1		4	2			
Detroit	1882	1,532	1,070												28	36	36	
Buffalo	1896	817	450											10	1	6	3	
Cincinnati		1,741	200															
Newark	1855 / 1879	863																
New Orleans	1895	[5] 1,455	[6] 780	80	150	150	100	50	50	40	25	14		35	16	[7] 40	30	
Washington No. 2 (colored)	1851 / 1871 / 1888		394	34	47	47	49	[8] 44	28	30	17	20		17	5		32	24
Jersey City	1896	1,021	763												1			
Indianapolis	1867	881	577										521	6	6		33	
Louisville:																		
White	1876		550													4		
Colored	1897	274	59		19	13	8	9	3	4		1					2	
Rochester	1898	474																
St. Paul	1882	[9] 340											320		5		15	

[1] Where more years than one are given, reorganizations are indicated.
[2] Since 1893.
[3] From 1906 to 1911.
[4] Since 1872.
[5] Fourteen as assistants.
[6] Since 1899.
[7] Since 1889.
[8] In 1910 had trained half of those in city.

TABLE 5.—*Persistence in service, and distribution in grades, of training school graduates in certain cities*—Continued.

Cities.	Training schools.		Graduates in service.	In kindergartens.	In grades.								Total elementary.	Teaching in high schools.	In teachers' training schools.	As assistant principals.	As principals.	As special or assistant.
	Date founded.	Total graduates.			I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.						
Columbus	1883	1,108	500	.....	62	54	67	60	60	51	40	20	.....	55	12	1	18	.....
Toledo	1893 1898	650	273	.....									.....	5	2	3	3	.....
Atlanta	1909	77	31	.....									.....					.....
Birmingham	1887 1895 1908			.....	15	12	10	8	10	10	12	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Paterson	1870	.....	440	38	56	52	59	58	49	47	36	31	.....	4	4	3	.....	3
Omaha	1905	.....	201	34									164	1	.....	.....	.....	2
Fall River	1888	348	191	.....	31	13	8	25	18	9	6	4	.....	.....	8	15	3	[1] 56
Dayton	1869	800	389	.....	50	50	40	40	40	30	25	20	.....	35	3	25	15	.....
Cambridge	1884	596	176	10	24	34	25	21	21	18	15	3	.....	4	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bridgeport	1889	444	240	.....	34	52	40	39	35	19	9	.....	.....	2	4	.....	6	.....
Albany	1884	.....	153	.....	22	25	23	15	25	17	7	7	.....	3	8	.....	1	.....
Reading	1908	107	24	.....	10	6	3	4	1				.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Camden	1894	[2] 204	167	.....	39	39	28	25	15	7	2	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9
Wilmington	1882	275	.....	.....									.....	4	11	10	5	.....
Kansas City	1900	180	120	.....									.....	.....	.....	3	2	.....
Yonkers	1909	112	53	.....	29	4	8	4	2	1	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[3] 3
Elizabeth	1907	75	69	.....	5	13	17	6	17	6			.....	.....	.....	5	.....	.....
Schenectady	1896	156	81	.....	20	17	27	5	7	4	1		.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Akron	1895	186	76	7	6	9	11	15	7	4	5	2	.....	6	1	.....	3	.....
Erie	1905	76	40	.....	3	15	7	5	4	4	2		.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Harrisburg	1902	120	76	.....	25	13	10	10	7	4	4	1	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Fort Wayne	1897	148	84	.....									.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bay City	1890	.....	.....	.....	7	8	6	5	7	4	3	4	.....	.....	1	.....	3	.....
Davenport	1863	800	.....	.....									.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Elmira	1895	230	133	.....	20	10	14	16	10	10	10	3	.....	7	1	4	3	10
Watertown	1899	150	81	.....	13	17	16	7	7	.....	17	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Burlington	1893	441	100	.....	14	14	13	10	10	11	11	3	.....	3	3	.....	6	.....

[1] Fifty-six as assistants.

[2] Since 1901.

[3] Three as assistants.

Per Capita Cost of Training Schools in Certain Cities.

There is not sufficient material available at present to make a fair comparison of the cost of training schools. The figures given in the table are sufficiently suggestive to be worthy of consideration, however. Thus, in the eight schools shown, there is a range of nearly 400 per cent in the total per capita cost, but one can not be sure of the range of items included. In Baltimore, for example, the charge for fuel and janitor service for the training schools is made against the elementary schools occupying the same buildings.

Then, too, the divisor used in determining the per capita cost makes much difference in the various cities. In some schools the proportion of graduates to enrollment is much smaller than it is in others. To give results that would be of real value in assisting school authorities to determine the relative cost in a number of cities, it would be well to show the per capita cost on the basis of graduates, as well as of total membership. Thus the amount paid by the city of Cincinnati for the work of the college of teachers, $10,500, if divided by the membership (243) would give a cost of $43, while a division on the number of graduates (33) would give $300.

There is special reason for working out formulæ for reporting the cost of small schools. The returns from some of the schools show very little charged against the training school except the salary of a principal, while a more exact accounting, such as was given in the 1911 report of the East Saginaw training school, shows an expenditure of $3,525 for 10 students.

Table 6.—*Costs of teachers' training schools.*

Cities.	Year.	Expenditure for salaries.	Total expenditures.	Per capita.		Per capita.	
				Salaries.	Total.	All secondary schools.	All elementary schools.
Baltimore:							
White	1910-11	$9,904	$11,913	$81.85	$98.45	.....	.....
Colored	1910-11	7,733	8,420	105.95	115.34	$68.40	$21.85
Chicago [1]	1906-7	.....	97,381	.....	220.87	58.56	29.44
Do	1907-8	.....	101,092	136.91	222.98	58.78	29.84
Do	1910-11	81,588	102,752	.....	175.24	67.73	34.40
Cleveland [2]	1899-1900	7,900	.....	40.30	.....	.....	.....
Do	1907-8	16,700	.....	90.76	.....	63.52	21.00
Do	1908-9	15,436	.....	71.46	.....	.....	.....
Do	1909-10	18,470	.....	90.09	.....	83.97	23.91
Louisville:							
White	1910-11	.....	.....	[3] 118.60	.....	72.68	.....
Do	1911-12	.....	.....	102.46	.....	.....	.....
Colored	1910-11	.....	.....	[3] 81.50	.....	61.58	20.88
Do	1911-12	.....	.....	89.30	.....	62.80	.....
Newark	1910-11	13,523	15,334	.....	74.13	.....	.....
Do	1911-12	12,976	15,125	.....	62.49	.....	.....
St. Louis	1909-10	.....	.....	189.39	241.86	72.65	.....
Do	1910-11	24,377	.....	165.01	206.76	76.30	.....
Do	1911-12	.....	.....	.....	.....	84.95	.....

[1] Inclusive of extension, but exclusive of practice. [2] Exclusive of practice. [3] Ordinary.

TABLE 7.—*Applicants, enrollment, and graduates of training schools.*

Cities.	Year.	Applicants.	Enrollment.	Graduates.	In service, 1913.
New York City		1,807	1,049	904	
New York	1910–11	705	369	358	
Brooklyn	1910–11	923	557	473	
Jamaica	1910–11	179	123	73	
Chicago	1903–4		230	74	
	1904–5		322	94	
	1905–6		435	124	
	1906–7		533	189	
	1907–8		601	219	
	1908–9		672	241	
	1909–10		700	270	
	1910–11		303		
	1911–12		216		
				June.	
St. Louis	1905–6		66	(31) 31	
	1906–7		84	(29) 54	
	1907–8		131	(41) 65	
	1908–9		145	(68) 101	
	1909–10		120	(49) 115	
	1910–11		175	(34) 80	
Cleveland	1899–1900		196	99	
	1908–9		216	85	
	1909–10		205	99	
Baltimore	1902	[1] 13			11
	1903	97			46
	1904	82			39
	1905	51			21
	1906	76			25
	1908	(7 men) 62		37	36
	1909*	84		68	61
	1910	(1 man) 100		75	64
	1911	(1 men) 88		65	53
	1912	89		50	
	1913	95		54	
	1914	87			
Newark	1902		119	45	
	1906		120*	45	
	1907		181	62	
	1908		247	80	
	1909		227	[2] 78	
	1910		232	84	
	1911		266		
	1912		310	97	
Jersey City	1910			[3] 94	
St. Paul	1909			27	
	1910			23	
	1911			25	
Trenton	1907			12	
	1908			15	
	1909			18	
	1910			19	
	1911			21	
Fort Wayne	1898			14	
	1899			16	
	1900			8	
	1902			8	
	1903			6	
	1904			12	
	1905			11	
	1906			10	
	1907			7	

[1] The numbers in applicant's column for Baltimore denote admissions for graduation in year given.
[2] Kindergarten 16.
[3] June, 44.

TABLE 8.—*Costs for Harris Teachers' College, St. Louis, Mo., by years.*

Year.	Total cost of maintenance.	Total salary cost.	Average membership.	Cost of maintenance per student.	Salary cost per student.
1905–6	$20,922.10	$11,764.35	66	$317.00	$178.23
1906–7	19,853.43	12,599.80	84	236.35	149.99
1907–8	23,290.57	16,398.35	131	177.79	125.18
1908–9	28,856.02	20,979.35	115	189.25	144.68
1909–10	29,212.78	22,727.20	120	243.44	189.39
1910–11	36,182.58	28,876.80	175	206.76	165.01
1911–12	37,228.99	29,252.20	196	189.89	149.28
Total	195,546.47	143,598.05			

The college has graduated 569 students. Therefore, the total expense to the city for each graduate is $343.66 and the salary cost $250.62. The salary cost is, therefore, less than 73 per cent of the total cost.

Distribution of teachers' salaries, Harris Teachers' College, St. Louis, 1911–12.

Men.	Women.	Wyman School of Observation.	
3 at $2,400	1 at $2,400	1 at $1,400	2 at $1,000
1 at 3,000	2 at 2,160	3 at 1,172	1 at 900
1 at 1,576	2 at 1,680	6 at 1,132	1 at 800
	1 at 1,580	1 at 1,072	3 at 740
	1 at 1,576		

Total additional cost above salaries as elementary teachers, 18 at $100=$1,800.

Average salary of all teachers:

Cincinnati—

1900	$805.00
1910	965.00

St. Louis—

1896–97	$600.99
1903–4	700.49
1910–11	1,040.17

Average salaries Chicago Normal College:

	"Practice."	"Theory."
1905–6	$1,043.54	$2,095.83
1910–11	1,213.19	2,250.00

(Elementary and kindergarten averages, $826.35 and $988.33.)

1910–11 (Chicago), 94 members of practice corps—Salary range, $850 to $3,250, including one principal at $3,250 and two at $3,100; mode, 53 at $1,300; 35 theory teachers, range $1,500 to $2,800; average, excluding principal, $2,250; mode, 11 at $2,800; next order, 7 at $2,300.

INDEX.

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

[NOTE.—With the exceptions indicated, the documents named below will be sent free of charge upon application to the Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C. Those marked with an asterisk (*) are no longer available for free distribution, but may be had of the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., upon payment of the price stated. Remittances should be made in coin, currency, or money order. Stamps are not accepted. Documents marked with a dagger (†) are out of print.]

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