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A SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN HAWAII

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., July 15, 1920.

SIR: I am transmitting herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education the report of a survey on education in the Territory of Hawaii, made under my direction as Commissioner of Education at the request of the governor and the superintendent of public instruction of the Territory, which request was made in compliance with an act of the legislature, which act also appropriated money to pay the incidental expenses of the survey.

The survey was made under the immediate direction of Dr. Frank F. Bunker, specialist in city school administration of the Bureau of Education, assisted by Dr. W. W. Kemp, chairman of the education department, University of California; Dr. Parke R. Kolbe, president of the Municipal University, Akron, Ohio; and Dr. George R. Twiss, professor of secondary education and State high-school inspector, Ohio State University. It includes both public and private schools of the islands, the private schools being included at the request of representatives of these schools.

Many conditions and problems connected with these schools, particularly the fact that a large majority of the children are of other races than those which are dominant in the United States, made the work of the survey unique and difficult; but I believe most of the problems have been solved wisely, and that this solution will have interest and value not only for the people of Hawaii but for students of education in the United States.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

A SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN HAWAII.

INTRODUCTION.

Every American public-school system has abundant reason for making sharp analyses of the peculiar needs to which it should be ministering; yet, in practice, the kind of training provided by the schools of one section is very similar to that given by the schools of other regions, though it must be apparent that occupations may differ widely. The ability to render a service in an agricultural district does not mean that one can render equal service in a mining region, or in a cattle country, or in a section given over to fruit growing or lumbering or fishing. The penalty for a failure to recognize the larger occupational needs of a local community on the mainland, however, is partly removed because of means of rapid interchange and of intercommunication and because of the ease with which individuals shift from place to place. Because of the multitude of opportunities for service there to be found, individuals quickly make adjustments, find their own niches, and become relatively satisfied and satisfactory workers in needed vocations. So far, with little difficulty, the mainland has been able to absorb all who have the desire to serve and to put them at the things which they can do best.

Not so, however, with Hawaii. Set down midway of the Pacific; with six days and 2,100 miles separating her from her nearest neighbor; with a total population no larger than a number of mainland cities, the larger proportion being orientals; with but two industries of first magnitude, though with vital connections with the Orient and with America and having a future of wonderful possibilities, obviously Hawaii does not so readily and easily come within the influence of the balancing and adjusting flow of human currents. By force of her situation Hawaii must be largely self-sufficient and self-contained. She can hope for little aid from outside her borders; she can expect to render little assistance to her neighbors in their problems of vocational relationships and of occupational adjustments. Her isolation, then, conditioning all her problems, must be taken account of in every phase of her thinking. It is this that demands that the public-school system of Hawaii, perhaps beyond that of any other American commonwealth, shall give to the question of its proper function a penetrating examination and analysis.

THE FUNCTION OF A SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Every school system that is going about its work intelligently and effectively is subserving at least three important interests: The Nation, through preparing, along with other agencies, dependable, patriotic, and worthy citizens; the community, through shaping the training it gives, so that the community will have competent leaders and efficient workers in all its occupations; the individual himself, through helping him to find his aptitudes and abilities and through providing him with the means for so developing these that thereby he is enabled to render a service alike satisfying to himself and to society. The citizenship needs of the Nation, the occupational needs of the community, and the tastes, aptitudes, abilities, and ambitions of the individual, then, are the guideposts which point the pathway of the public school; and these are the considerations, likewise, which must be held in clear view in any appraisal of the work of the schools of Hawaii.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out, the system that holds unswervingly to this threefold purpose, intelligently shaping its practice the while by these ends, can never be charged, rightly, with influencing its children to turn away from legitimate labor of any kind. The influence of a system dominated by such high purpose will be not to free men from work but to free them in their work.

This is the function of education, and it is a spurious education, an education unworthy the name, that teaches, even by implication, that in this democracy of America there are necessary occupations unworthy of any but the ignorant and the illiterate or that there is room anywhere in this country for a group of men, however small, who shall be forced to their occupation through dire need. Men who work in occupations deemed unworthy, and who do so only because driven to it by the biting lash of necessity, are in reality not free men. They work only in the spirit of the slave. There is no place in America for such, and it is as much the business of education to teach men this as it is to make them literate.

Children growing up in Hawaii, coming as they do in their plastic years under the influence of the public school, preparing themselves for the assumption of the responsibilities which life in Hawaii demands, should come to feel that, in cutting cane on the plantation, in driving a tractor in the fields, in swinging a sledge in a blacksmith shop, in wielding a brush on building or fence or bridge, as well as in sitting at a doctor's or merchant's or manager's or banker's desk, there is opportunity for rendering a necessary as well as an intelligent, worthy, and creative service. Reciprocally, they should likewise recognize that they have a right to follow such occupations under fit and tolerable conditions and to receive as a tangible reward

for service rendered a wage that is more than an existence wage, more even than a mere thrift wage; in fact, that it shall be a cultural wage, one which may be defined as a wage which not only brings relief from worry but provides a margin sufficient for recreation, self-improvement, spiritual uplift.

When, in the islands, education shall have fully functioned in the lives of both those who serve by employing and directing others and those who serve through toiling with the hands, then all will be working as free men. Then all will be doing that which they can do best, and doing their best at that which they undertake. Then, too, there will disappear from the minds of the men of Hawaii the thought that the great enterprises of the islands are dependent for success upon successive waves of cheap, ignorant, illiterate, alien laborers who stick at their jobs only through fear of want and through inability to do anything else. In short, when education shall have accomplished its true purpose there will be conferred upon man, whatever his occupation, an enlarged individuality, a wider range of thought and action, a higher and more permanent peace. And when this consummation shall have been achieved no longer can the public schools of Hawaii be justly charged with educating the youth of the islands away from those occupations which require toil with the hands and making of them relatively inefficient "white-collared folk."

CHIEF FEATURES OF THE REPORT.

Chapter I sets forth the significant facts about the population elements of Hawaii, their interrelationships, their rates of growth, the part they are likely to take in the affairs of the Territory as citizens, the occupational needs of the islands, and the agencies at work upon the problems which race and occupational needs have raised.

Chapter II treats of the administrative machinery of the school system of the islands, the Territorial Normal School, and of the financial support accorded the schools, showing how, in the judgment of the survey commission, changes can profitably be made, thereby enabling the schools to function more efficiently.

Chapter III deals with a serious obstacle in the way of the work of the public school in its task of Americanization—the system of foreign-language schools, which exists nowhere else in the United States.

The remaining chapters of the report treat, successively, the details of the work of the elementary school, the high school, the university, and the private schools—all with the question in mind as to how well they are meeting citizenship, occupational, and individual needs, and how school practice can best be modified to secure improvement in results.

COMMENDABLE FEATURES IN TERRITORIAL SCHOOLS.

It must not be inferred that, because this report gives much space to a discussion of means for securing improvements in results, the commission is blind to the many features of excellence already incorporated in the work of both the public and private schools. The rôle of constructive critic demands that recommendations for changes in the established order be accompanied by reasons; that which is sound in accepted practice requires no such detailed comment. For this reason, then, a survey report may appear to be unduly critical when in reality it is only calling the attention of interested authorities in an earnest way to opportunities for improvement in a system genuinely sound in its structure and work.

In point of fact there is very much about the schools of Hawaii which deserves positive commendation. The leadership of the schools is in excellent hands, the citizens of the Territory are taking a much greater interest in the education of the children of alien parents than ever before, the very fact that a public school has been placed within the reach of practically every child in the islands, however remote his home, is an achievement as well as a testimonial to the earnest work of school administrators and of the school corps, while in the erection of teachers' cottages and in improving the living conditions of teachers the Territory has outstripped all other of the chief divisions of the United States. A glance at the list of items marking recent educational advance in the islands affords ample proof that the school authorities are alert to the need and determined to meet it. Such a list of actual or prospective advances includes among other items: Insistence upon informing the public about everything the department does; securing the counsel and advice of representative laymen of the various racial groups; eliminating obsolete offices from the organization; advancing teachers' salaries and doing more for their comfort; raising the standards of training and qualification required of teachers; making a beginning in the incorporation of the kindergarten as an integral part of the school system; reducing the size of elementary school classes; providing school buildings of a more permanent and more modern type; creating a division for organizing work of industrial character; modifying a rigid and inflexible promotion system; decentralizing a highly centralized and mechanical system; and providing opportunity whereby teachers and other members of the school corps may have more of a voice in determining educational policy.

This study of the schools of Hawaii, moreover, is intended to be a study of policies and practices, not of persons. The survey commission has consciously avoided either praising or blaming, crediting, or discrediting individuals. The matter of placing an estimate upon

the value of the services which individuals are rendering is the duty of local authorities; it falls outside the province which has been set for the survey commission and has not been attempted.

THE SURVEY COMMISSION.

The survey was made under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Education upon request of the governor of the Territory of Hawaii, the legislature, the school commissioners, and the superintendent of public instruction. To assist the Commissioner of Education in making this study he appointed the following commission:

Frank F. Bunker, Bureau of Education, director of the survey.
W. W. Kemp, chairman education department, University of California.
Parke R. Kolbe, president Municipal University, Akron, Ohio.
George R. Twiss, professor of secondary education and State high-school inspector, Ohio State University.

APPRECIATION.

The survey commission desires to express its appreciation of the courtesy and consideration shown its members by the citizens of Hawaii universally. A special word of thanks is due the governor, the officers of the Territorial government, the members of the board of school commissioners, and the superintendent of public instruction and his staff, for the interest which they have individually taken in the survey and for the help and cooperation which they have severally extended. The commission is also indebted to Miss Faast for the use of the copyrighted picture, "The Melting Pot," and to Mr. Alexander Hume Ford, secretary of the Pan-Pacific Union, for the use of other photographs.

Chapter I.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM OF HAWAII.

CONTENTS.—1. The race mixture: Early attempts to assist immigration; Japanese immigration; Portuguese immigration; immigrants from northern Europe. 2. The character of present population: Birth and death rates of the races; momentum of Japanese race; Japanese entering many vocations; explanation of Japanese activity; Japanese political control of the islands; nationalities in the public schools; Judge Vaughan's court decision. 3. Intermarrying of races: Japanese picture brides; progeny of racial intermarriages. 4. Occupational needs and opportunities of the islands: The small farmer; plantation and milling activities; the public school in relation to island needs; a lengthened school day required. 5. Situation contrasted with that of mainland: Children ignorant of English; no English-speaking children on playground; an unstable teaching force; many poorly qualified teachers; inadequate supervision; the foreign language schools; schools inadequately supported; compensations. 6. Agencies dealing with the problem: Private schools; Kindergarten Association; Young Men's Christian Association; Young Women's Christian Association; welfare activities on Maui.

I. THE MIXTURE OF THE RACES.

The deliberate and persistent efforts, extending over the past half century, made by the various governments of Hawaii, to secure cheap laborers in sufficient numbers to care for the crops of sugar cane have resulted in a racial situation in the Hawaiian Islands probably nowhere else to be found in the world, certainly in no other of the chief political units of the United States.

Prior to 1850 the population of the islands was relatively homogeneous, although in consequence of the trade in sandalwood which sprang up at the beginning of the century and because the islands later came to be looked upon as a desirable rendezvous and refitting station for the great north Pacific whaling fleets, there was in the population a sprinkling of sailors of many nationalities, who for one reason or another had left their ships and were living among the natives. With the rapid development of the sugar industry, which set in strongly about the middle of the century, and in view of the steadily and rapidly decreasing native population, it became evident that a supply of new and cheap labor must be found.

EARLY ATTEMPTS TO ASSIST IMMIGRATION.

The first step was taken by the Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society, which, in 1852, employed a shipmaster to bring to the islands 180 Chinese coolies on a five-year contract at $3 per month, in addition to passage, housing, food, clothing, and medical attention. Within a few months 100 more were brought over on the same terms. This was the beginning of Chinese immigration, which was encour-

aged for a time, only to be restricted at a later period and finally prohibited, but not until a population of some 21,000 had been brought to the Territory.

Kamehameha III made an unsuccessful effort to bring to the Hawaiian Islands the entire population of Pitcairn Island. The project failed, however, because the British Government would not permit these people to transfer their allegiance from Britain in order that they might become Hawaiian subjects. In 1855 Kamehameha IV appointed a commissioner to study the question of the suitability as immigrants of Polynesian peoples. As a result, in 1859, about 20 South Sea Islanders were brought in, likewise under contract. Others were imported in 1868 by the "Bureau of Immigration," organized to superintend the introduction of immigrants. During this period, among other groups, some 84 Manahikis from Reirsons Island and Humphreys Island and 42 Bukabukas from Danger Island were brought in. These people proved most unsatisfactory, and the plan of bringing in Polynesians was dropped for more than 10 years. In 1877, however, the plan was resumed, and a sea captain was sent to Fiji and New Zealand to secure emigrants. During 1878 and the six years following nearly 2,000 Polynesians, mostly from the Gilbert Islands, but with some Melanesian cannibals, were brought into the country. This was a costly experiment, for neither as laborers nor citizens did they give satisfaction.

JAPANESE IMMIGRATION.

The next race sought was the Japanese. In 1868, 48 laborers, under a three-year contract which called for $4 per month, besides food, lodging, and medical assistance, were brought in from Japan. They gave excellent satisfaction, but reports of ill treatment reaching Japan brought about an investigation by that country with the result that, although no grounds for complaint were found, some 40 of this group were permitted to return to their homes on the naive condition, however, that each was to work three years for the Japanese Government in order to reimburse it for the expense of the return passage.

In 1884, after a long correspondence with Japan, consent was obtained for bringing Japanese to these islands. Under this arrangement nearly 1,000 came over, but the emigration was stopped temporarily because of the fact that many misunderstandings with the Japanese Government arose. In 1886 an emigration convention was concluded and ratified with Japan, after which time and until annexation to the United States immigration was large and constant.

A COLONY FROM THE STATES.

In the meantime (in 1870) a little colony of white immigrants from the United States was brought in, settling on Lanai. The con-

tract under which the members came obligated each person to take up at least 12 acres of land for at least 12 months, the proprietor to supply the tenant with lodging, working animals, seed, and tools. The crop was to be equally divided between landlord and tenant. In the event that the latter failed to carry out the terms of the contract, his deposit of $35, passage money, was to be forfeited. Severe droughts prevailed during the year of the trial, and the experiment was abandoned.

In 1872 the Hawaiian Immigration Society was organized. This was composed of the chief business men of the country, who discussed at considerable length the relative merits as immigrants of laborers from China, Japan, Malay, Hindustan, the Azores, and the islands of the south Pacific. This society made great efforts to persuade the island government to enter into an arrangement with England for securing Hindu coolies from India, but met with no success.

PORTUGUESE IMMIGRATION.

At the same time arrangements were made to secure Portuguese from the Azores and Madeira. The pioneer company of 180 arrived in 1878, followed by 750 others a little later. In 1882 an understanding with Portugal was reached which resulted in some 7,000 Portuguese being brought over from the same islands during the next six years. By 1899, through immigration activities, nearly 13,000 Portuguese had been imported, chiefly from Madeira and the Azores.

Though not a race cognate to the Hawaiians, they proved to be a valuable addition to the Territorial population. The early comers began work on the plantations as laborers at the monthly rate of $10 for males and $6 for women. Later many succeeded in reaching better situations on the plantations as "lunas," teamsters, and mechanics, rising to positions in some instances commanding $125 per month. A few among the first of these immigrants were expert stonecutters and builders, giving the first impulse in the Territory to the erection of substantial buildings out of the hewn lava rock. Later still, many became storekeepers, typographers, stenographers, and sales people, and many came to accept positions of trust in banks and offices. Others gained high place on the bench, in the Territorial legislature, on county boards, and as lawyers. Altogether, the experiment of importing the Portuguese has been distinctly successful.

IMMIGRANTS FROM NORTHERN EUROPE.

The experiment was also tried of bringing in Norwegians. In 1880 the board of immigration agreed to assist in procuring immigrants from Norway, offering to pay one-half the passage of women and full passage of all children under 12 years. About 600 persons were brought over at the time under this arrangement and given

employment on the plantations. It was found, however, that a few only of the number were really agriculturists, the remainder having been recruited from the idle class of towns. This experiment proved unsatisfactory.

Similar assistance was given in procuring laborers from Germany. About 900 Germans came over in response, but they proved to be restless and discontented, giving their employers no peace until their contracts were canceled, whereupon the majority emigrated to the United States. The experiment of bringing in peoples from northern Europe, as with the attempt to secure a satisfactory class of laborers from the South Sea Island races, cognate to the Hawaiians, proved on the whole to be unsatisfactory.

As a result of a half century of effort, on which the Hawaiian people expended more than $2,000,000, the population of Hawaii, according to the 1896 Territorial census, was as follows:[1]

Native Hawaiians	31,019	Germans	1,432
Part-Hawaiians	8,485	Norwegians	378
Japanese	24,407	French	101
Chinese	21,616	South Sea Islanders	455
Portuguese	15,191	Others	600
American	3,086		
British	2,250	Total	109,020

2. THE CHARACTER OF THE PRESENT POPULATION.

Through the natural growth of population and because of influxes of peoples which have taken place since annexation, the estimated population of the Hawaiian Territory in 1919, segregated according to racial groups, is as follows:

Estimated population of the Hawaiian Territory,[a] June 30, 1919.

Nationality.	Total.	Percentage of total.
Asiatics	159,990	60.6
Japanese	[b] 110,000	41.7
Chinese	22,800	8.6
Korean	5,360	1.9
Filipino	22,030	8.4
Polynesians	38,260	14.6
Hawaiians	22,600	8.6
Caucasian-Hawaiians	10,760	2.2
Asiatic-Hawaiians	5,900	4.0
Latins	32,300	12.4
Portuguese	25,000	9.5
Spanish	2,400	.9
Porto Rican	5,400	2.0
Americans, British, Germans, Russians, etc.	31,600	11.8
Other nationalities	700	.4
Total	263,866	100.0

[a] From the Territorial Board of Health Report, 1919.
[b] The acting Japanese consul reports, 114,127.
[1] See Blackman, "*The Making of Hawaii.*"

It is of interest in this connection to examine the school enrollment in both the public and private schools of the islands, distributed according to nationality, to see to what extent these racial groups have contributed to school population.

School enrollment in public and private schools,[1] *June 30, 1919.*

Nationality.	Total.	Percentage of total.
Asiatics	23,580	54.5
Japanese	17,546	40.6
Chinese	4,491	10.3
Korean	620	1.5
Filipino	903	2.1
Polynesians	9,161	21.1
Hawaiians	3,800	8.7
Part-Hawaiians	5,361	12.4
Latins	7,986	18.5
Portuguese	6,334	14.7
Spanish	513	1.2
Porto Rican	1,139	2.6
Americans, British, Germans, Russians, etc.	2,391	5.5
Other nationalities	173	.4
Total	43,271	100.0

[1] From Rep. of Territorial Supt. of Pub. Instruction, 1919.

An examination of the two preceding tables discloses the interesting fact that, while the group of Asiatics comprises 60.6 per cent of the population, the children of this group comprise but 54.5 per cent of the school population. With the Polynesians, however, the situation is reversed, for, while this group constitutes 14.8 per cent of the population, the children of the group constitute 21.1 per cent of the total number of school children. Likewise, the proportion which the Latins contribute to the school population exceeds the proportion which the group bears to the entire island population, for, with 12.4 per cent of the population, their children comprise 18.5 per cent of the school population. The Caucasian group, however, comprising 11.8 per cent of the population, are credited with but 5.5 per cent of the aggregate school enrollment.

On the face of it this might indicate that the Asiatics are less prolific than the Polynesians and the Latins, but a closer study of the tables shows that in the case of the Asiatic group the proportion of Japanese, Chinese, and Koreans in the population and in the schools is nearly the same, while the Filipino group, having 8.4 per cent of the population, contributes but 2.1 per cent of the school enrollment. This is partly explained by the fact that the Filipino group has only very recently been brought to the islands, and there is, in consequence, a much larger percentage of unmarried males in this group.

than in the other racial groups which have been in the islands longer, and who, therefore, have established families. Even though the Filipinos be excluded from consideration, it is clear that the remaining races of the Asiatic group are still outstripped by the Part-Hawaiians, the Portuguese, and the Spanish, for whereas the Japanese, the Chinese, and the Koreans barely hold their own in their contributions to school population, children of the Part-Hawaiian, Portuguese, and Spanish groups greatly exceed the proportion these groups bear to the total population. Doubtless this fact, too, is to be explained by facts of immigration rather than because the Japanese, Chinese, and Koreans are less prolific.

BIRTH AND DEATH RATES.

A table showing the number of births per 1,000 of population, distributed by nationalities and extending over a period of years, will throw light on this point. Such a table, showing also the death rates and the increase of birth rates over death rates, follows:

Birth rates and death rates per thousand, and net increase distributed by nationalities, Territory of Hawaii, 1914-1919.[1]

	1914			1915			1916			1917			1918			1919		
	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.	Birth rate.	Death rate.	Increase of population.
Asiatics:																		
Japanese	33.87	14.45	19.42	36.91	14.22	22.69	37.75	14.28	23.47	41.57	12.16	29.41	42.87	12.76	30.11	39.92	13.35	26.57
Chinese	25.33	11.42	13.91	27.88	12.68	15.20	29.84	12.48	17.36	30.77	12.26	18.51	29.93	14.88	15.05	31.45	14.12	17.33
Korean										30.42	9.93	20.49	39.60	14.60	22.00	34.31	14.31	20.00
Filipino	10.27	14.87	(2)	14.39	13.73	.66	11.85	13.20	1.65	18.12	11.99	6.13	22.35	17.84	4.51	21.36	18.55	2.81
Polynesians:																		
Hawaiian	19.80	39.35	(2)	22.10	36.82	(2)	25.96	39.63	(2)	25.46	35.99	(2)	27.79	38.64	(2)	29.16	39.42	(2)
Caucasian-Hawaiian	49.73	14.19	35.54	53.11	12.70	41.41	54.32	17.93	36.39	53.20	14.47	38.73	60.52	17.21	43.31	56.04	16.17	39.87
Asiatic-Hawaiian										66.49	16.22	50.27	63.65	16.84	46.81	67.46	14.58	52.88
Latins:																		
Portuguese	39.10	14.85	24.25	37.34	12.81	24.53	39.82	15.95	23.87	40.48	11.55	28.93	43.22	13.65	29.57	38.00	12.48	25.52
Spanish	56.61	18.69	34.92	63.18	12.35	50.83	71.29	22.09	49.20	68.15	19.86	48.29	70.93	18.50	52.43	52.50	9.58	42.92
Porto Rican	42.74	15.63	27.11	34.66	18.70	15.95	45.50	20.63	24.87	36.45	10.88	25.57	45.58	17.88	27.70	46.11	13.70	32.41
Americans, British, Germans, Russians, etc.	11.86	8.34	3.52	12.30	6.33	5.97	12.98	8.07	4.91	12.55	6.97	5.58	13.68	7.47	6.21	12.90	6.26	6.64
Other nationalities	13.17	12.41	.76	22.02	15.56	6.46	23.05	14.27	8.78	37.15	30.96	6.19	46.97	42.42	4.55	36.83	35.41	1.42
All races	29.71	16.30	13.41	31.48	15.38	16.10	33.24	16.58	16.66	34.74	13.96	20.78	36.71	15.65	21.06	31.76	15.36	19.40

[1] Compiled from the reports of the Territorial Board of Health; rates based on the board of health population estimates.
[2] The death rate is higher than the birth rate.

This table shows that in every group except the Hawaiian the births exceeded the deaths; with the Hawaiians, however, deaths greatly outnumbered births, which, if continued, dooms the race to extinction. Taking the birth rates for all races as a norm, it is obvious that for all years covered by the table the following groups exceed the norm of births: Japanese, Caucasian-Hawaiian, Asiatic-Hawaiian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Porto Rican. Taking the death rate for all races as a norm, it is seen that the following races are fortunate enough to fall below it for all years: Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Portuguese, and the group to which belong the Americans, British, Germans, and Russians. The only groups appearing in both these lists are the Japanese and Portuguese, showing that these are the only ones in which a high birth rate is combined with a low death rate.

It is true that an examination of the figure showing net increase of the birth rate over the death rate discloses the fact that the births to the Caucasian-Hawaiians and the Asiatic-Hawaiians so far outnumber the deaths, even though these are high, as to place these two groups in the lead in the matter of net increase; however, the groups are small in number, 10,760 in the one case and 5,900 in the other, and while they are potentially important, yet for the purpose of this study they can properly be eliminated, as they comprise too small a proportion of the population.

COMPARISON OF THE JAPANESE AND PORTUGUESE GROUPS.

A comparison in detail of the records of the Japanese and the Portuguese, shown in the preceding table, discloses the fact that the situation for both is nearly the same, with the odds slightly in favor of the Japanese. The number of Japanese births reported to the Territorial Board of Health, which action the law requires, falls short of the actual number registered by the Japanese consul by several hundred annually. For example, the number registered with the consul in 1916 exceeds the board of health aggregate by 977; in 1917, by 658; in 1918, by 407; and in 1919, by 416. Were the corrected aggregates used in the foregoing tabulations, the fact would be established that, with respect to birth and death rates, the Japanese race is the most favored race of the islands, having, among all the races, made the best adjustment to all those conditions affecting race multiplication; furthermore, with an actual population now in the islands (1919) of 114,137, as reported by the acting Japanese consul, against 25,000 Portuguese, the next largest group, it is clear that the Japanese race has acquired a momentum which puts all the other groups out of the running in respect to numbers.

MOMENTUM OF THE JAPANESE RACE.

That this momentum will inevitably carry the Japanese race into an increasingly dominant numerical position, if continued, is clearly shown by the table on a later page, which gives the actual number of male Japanese births during a period of 32 years. This table was compiled from information obtained from the office of the Japanese consul and from the records of the Territorial Board of Health. It is accurate except that, from 1913 on, the proportion of males and females may be slightly in error.

A parallel between the Japanese and the Portuguese in their adjustment to those island influences which condition birth and death rates has been noted. Another striking parallel between the two races is also to be observed in this, that while both groups originally were brought into the islands to satisfy the need for cheap labor on the plantations, there is with both a pronounced tendency to seek a better economic position by breaking away from the plantations at the first opportunity and engaging in other occupations and activities giving promise of a freer and more ample life.

JAPANESE ENTERING MANY VOCATIONS.

Similarly, the Japanese are ambitious to become tenants, to own land, to set up a business, to enter a profession, to rise above the category of unskilled labor, and as they individually achieve their ambition, they are, like the Portuguese, participating more and more in the affairs of the islands, socially, educationally, politically. Furthermore, they are all at work; there are few triflers and idlers among them. There are now approximately 38,000 male and 27,000 female adult Japanese in the islands. The table which follows, based upon information obtained from the office of the Japanese consul, shows that 50,149 of them are employed in gainful occupations.

Distribution of Japanese according to occupations, 1919.

Officials	6	Farm laborers	1,759
Clergymen	91	Stockmen	147
Teachers	356	Dairymen	82
Physicians	43	Fishermen	1,053
Dentists	8	Carriage makers	34
Veterinarians	2	Dyers	89
Chemists	24	Blacksmiths	62
Nurses and midwives	51	Book-shop keepers	34
Masseurs	33	Peddlers	68
Newspaper and magazine publishers	93	Bank employees	383
Interpreters	58	Clerks in stores and business houses	2,349
Farmers	3,740	Persons who rent their properties	116

Railroad employees	394
Draymen	344
Chauffeurs	540
Hotelkeepers	36
Restaurant and café workers	99
Billiard parlor and theater workers	81
Bathhouse keepers	28
Barbers	275
House servants	4,141
Actors	62
Geishas and helpers	2,391
Plantation laborers	26,867
Sawyers	197
Carpenters	506
Painters	123
Photographers	24
Tailors	63
Laundry men	218
Laborers in factories	320
Civil engineers and contractors	80
Fuel dealers	73
Jewelers	30
Druggists	28
Dry-goods merchants	14
Shoeshop keepers	4
Dealers in fancy goods, toilet articles, etc	62
Vegetable dealers	51
Butchers and fish dealers	101
Bean curd manufacturers	49
Soy merchants	7
Candy manufacturers	95
Artisans, various miscellaneous laborers	2,791
Miscellaneous occupations	641
Number with no occupation reported	599
Total employed	50,149
Women and children and other unemployed members of households	61,909
Grand total	112,058

EXPLANATION OF JAPANESE ACTIVITY.

Furthermore, it should be said in fairness that there are few Japanese children in the juvenile courts and in institutions for delinquents; and there are proportionally very few Japanese among the convict labor gangs and in the jails. Few, if any, are supported by public charity; nor are any begging on the streets. Their per capita savings bank deposits rank third among those of the island races, being exceeded by the Americans and Portuguese only. All of which activity, laudable in itself, can be explained adequately on the basis of the racial qualities, inherent in the Japanese, of patience, persistence, thrift, initiative, endurance, ambition, group solidarity, coupled with acumen and astuteness, which give them the ability to get on where other races have failed. Indeed, so well have the Japanese adjusted themselves to island conditions, and so rapidly are they increasing in the number of Hawaiian-born children, that this group will soon have a majority of the voters of the islands.

JAPANESE POLITICAL CONTROL OF THE ISLANDS.

Contrary to international practice, which holds that regardless of where a child is born he takes the nationality of his parents, the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States declares that every child born within the jurisdiction of the United States is a citizen of the United States. In another particular in this

connection the law of the United States is in conflict with the theory and practice of governments which hold to the principle of dual citizenship: for the act of Congress of July 27, 1868, declares the right of expatriation to be a natural and inherent right of all people and that anything to the contrary is "inconsistent with the fundamental principles of this Republic." In consequence, then, of these laws the Japanese as well as all other people born in United States territory are citizens of the United States, which status obtains until by definite act taken by the individuals themselves citizenship is renounced. This being true, it is of great importance, in our analysis of the problem of the schools, to give consideration to the possibilities of the domination of the Territorial electorate by representatives of a single racial group, such as the Japanese.

The table on a subsequent page showing the birth and death rates of the several races, and the table which follows, giving the number of male Japanese births each year since the Japanese have been in the islands, are significant in this connection. This latter table is of particular interest, for from it can be determined the number of Japanese citizens who come of voting age each year.

Probable Japanese additions to the electorate. Territory of Hawaii.[1]

Year.	Japanese male births.	Year entitled to vote.	Year.	Japanese male births.	Year entitled to vote.
1898	234	1919	1910	1,790	1931
1899	256	1920	1911	1,679	1932
1900	318	1921	1912	2,031	1933
1901	608	1922	1913	2,162	1934
1902	878	1923	1914	2,251	1935
1903	1,889	1924	1915	2,487	1936
1904	1,329	1925	1916	2,808	1937
1905	1,177	1926	1917	2,653	1938
1906	1,158	1927	1918	2,746	1939
1907	1,233	1928	1919	2,595	1940
1908	1,534	1929			
1909	1,605	1930	Total, 10-year period	22,921	
Total, 12-year period	12,216		Grand total, both periods	35,137	

[1] Record of births obtained from the office of the Japanese consul.

From this table it is clear that 12,216 Hawaiian-born Japanese will have become old enough to vote by 1930; 22,921 more will have been added to the list of eligibles by 1940, making a total during the 22-year period of 35,137. Some will leave the Territory, going to Japan or to the States; some will die. It is conservative to say that the Japanese death rate, about 13 per cent per decade, will amply cover such possible losses, remembering that the death rate is reckoned for the entire Japanese population, old and young. Deducting, then, 13 per cent to cover possible losses by removal and death, and

there remain as eligible to the electorate during the first period, 10,628; and during the second period, 19,942, or an aggregate by 1940, including 287 now registered, of 30,857.

The present Territorial electorate (1918), exclusive of the Japanese, who number 287, is 19,837. During the past 10 years the increase in the electorate, exclusive of the Japanese, has averaged 685 per year. If this increase continues, in 1930 there will be 28,057 voters in the Territory, exclusive of the Japanese; and by 1940, 34,907, not including the Japanese. Summarizing the foregoing facts it would seem reasonable to believe that the situation in 1930 and in 1940 will stand approximately as follows:

Estimated electorate in 1930 and 1940. Territory of Hawaii.

	Electorate in 1918.	Estimated additions, 1918–1930.	Estimated total electorate, 1930.	Estimated additions, 1930–1940.	Estimated total electorate, 1940.
Electorate, exclusive of the Japanese	19,837	8,220	28,057	6,850	34,907
Japanese coming of age, less 13 per cent for deaths and removals	287	10,628	10,915	19,942	30,857
Total	20,124	18,848	38,972	26,792	65,764

By 1930, then, it seems probable that the Japanese may comprise about 28 per cent of the electorate, a sufficiently large proportion to constitute a force that must be reckoned with if it acts as a unit. By 1940 about 47 per cent of the electorate may be expected to be composed of voters of this race. From that time on, their numerical superiority will grow very rapidly, the voters doubling every 21 years, as children of children enter the electorate.

The probability of the approximate accuracy of the foregoing estimate is shown by the following tables, which give the nationality of all children enrolled in the public and private schools since 1910 and the percentage of the whole which each group comprises. The proportionate growth of the Japanese, 27.72 per cent in 1910; 29.12 per cent in 1911; 31.09 per cent in 1912; 33.37 per cent in 1913; 34.57 per cent in 1914; 37.47 per cent in 1915; 38.79 per cent in 1916; 38.06 per cent in 1917; 39.42 per cent in 1918; and 40.55 per cent in 1919, indicates that the place in the electorate which the Japanese will occupy in 1930 and again in 1940 may, indeed, be underestimated. These tables follow.

Comparative table of nationalities of pupils attending all schools in the Hawaiian Territory.

Nationalities.	1910			1911			1912			1913			1914		
	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.
Hawaiian	3,527	827	4,364	3,301	800	4,301	3,453	800	4,253	3,446	844	4,290	3,288	661	3,949
Part Hawaiian	2,594	1,124	3,718	2,750	1,310	4,060	2,765	1,310	4,075	2,881	1,265	4,146	3,089	1,076	4,165
American	458	598	1,056	481	710	1,191	439	710	1,169	516	723	1,239	635	768	1,403
British	88	64	152	82	52	134	85	52	137	83	68	151	102	71	173
German	156	105	261	187	129	316	179	129	308	162	108	270	164	99	263
Portuguese	3,733	1,157	4,890	4,036	1,117	5,153	4,214	1,117	5,331	4,341	1,156	5,497	4,329	1,071	5,400
Japanese	6,567	705	7,262	7,670	930	8,600	8,368	930	9,298	676	2	678	10,329	1,179	11,508
Chinese	2,184	688	2,872	2,383	801	3,184	2,471	801	3,272	9,454	1,526	10,980	2,638	974	3,612
Porto Rican	308	42	350	464	68	532	510	68	578	2,536	1,247	3,783	717	50	767
Korean	164	106	270	220	119	339	274	119	393	213	21	234	304	127	431
Spanish										703	54	757	920	71	991
Russian										304	96	400	130	53	183
Filipino										102	6	108	207	36	243
Other foreigners	456	99	555	604	121	805	974	121	1,095	214	181	395	113	82	200
Total	20,245	5,525	25,770	22,458	6,157	28,615	23,752	6,157	29,909	25,031	7,307	32,038	26,990	6,293	33,283

Nationalities.	1915			1916			1917			1918			1919		
	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.	Public schools.	Private schools.	Total.
Hawaiian	3,203	663	3,866	3,222	603	3,825	3,131	619	3,750	3,216	689	3,905	3,177	623	3,800
Part Hawaiian	3,158	1,336	4,494	3,179	1,405	4,584	3,528	1,412	4,938	3,805	1,384	5,189	3,940	1,421	5,361
American	696	750	1,446	791	769	1,560	878	915	1,793	849	1,024	1,873	898	1,057	1,955
British	88	52	140	106	44	150	97	55	152	108	74	182	97	65	162
German	194	114	308	166	98	264	187	90	277	126	71	197	118	40	158
Portuguese	4,460	1,242	5,701	4,836	1,181	5,716	4,744	1,143	5,887	5,001	1,220	6,221	5,073	1,261	6,334
Japanese	11,567	1,996	13,563	12,564	2,156	14,720	13,904	1,038	14,942	15,101	1,315	16,416	16,295	1,251	17,546
Chinese	2,926	1,090	3,916	2,991	1,034	3,925	3,062	1,014	4,076	3,305	1,129	4,434	3,465	1,026	4,491
Porto Rican	880	54	934	911	53	964	1,043	68	1,111	1,032	68	1,100	1,075	64	1,139
Korean	207	175	462	327	185	512	361	154	515	409	131	540	446	174	620
Spanish	890	106	996	862	86	948	663	64	727	489	49	538	470	43	573
Russian	117	28	145	97	31	128	110	32	142	125	30	155	81	35	116
Filipino	860	50	410	444	55	499	334	51	385	626	72	698	836	67	903
Other foreigners	112	46	158	110	41	151	142	71	213	151	45	196	131	42	173
Total	28,827	7,702	36,529	30,205	7,741	37,946	32,282	6,746	39,028	34,348	7,301	41,644	36,102	7,169	43,271

Percentage of nationalities in the public and private schools of the Hawaiian Territory.

Nationalities.	1910			1911			1912			1913			1914		
	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.
Hawaiian	13.97	3.18	17.15	12.90	3.17	16.07	11.55	2.67	14.22	10.46	2.56	13.02	9.88	1.99	11.97
Part Hawaiian	10.24	4.81	15.05	9.97	4.34	14.31	9.25	4.38	13.63	8.75	3.84	12.59	9.28	3.23	12.51
American	1.67	2.54	4.21	1.67	2.29	3.96	1.53	2.37	3.90	1.57	2.20	3.77	1.91	2.31	4.22
British	.33	.31	.64	.35	.24	.59	.28	.17	.45	.23	.21	.46	.31	.21	.52
German	.61	.43	1.04	.61	.40	1.01	.60	.43	1.03	.49	.33	.82	.49	.30	.79
Portuguese	13.98	4.27	18.27	13.56	4.43	17.99	14.09	3.73	17.82	13.18	3.51	16.69	13.00	3.22	16.22
Japanese	24.92	2.80	27.72	26.42	2.70	29.12	27.98	3.11	31.09	28.70	4.67	33.37	31.03	3.54	34.57
Chinese	8.41	2.77	11.18	8.87	2.63	11.50	8.20	2.68	10.94	7.70	3.78	11.48	9.92	2.93	10.85
Porto Rican	1.21	.25	1.46	1.69	.16	1.85	1.71	.23	1.94	2.13	.16	2.29	2.15	.15	2.30
Korean	.63	.39	1.02	.68	.40	1.08	.92	.40	1.32	.92	.29	1.21	.91	.38	1.29
Spanish										2.05	.01	2.06	2.77	.21	2.98
Russian										.31	.02	.33	.45	.10	.55
Filipino										.65	.06	.71	.62	.11	.73
Other foreigners	1.99	.29	2.28	2.14	.38	2.52	3.26	.40	3.66	.65	.55	1.20	.35	.25	.60
Total	77.96	22.04	100.00	78.86	21.14	100.00	79.43	20.57	100.00	77.81	22.19	100.00	81.07	18.93	100.00

Nationalities.	1915			1916			1917			1918			1919		
	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.	Public schools.	Private schools.	All.
Hawaiian	8.92	1.58	10.50	8.49	1.59	10.08	8.02	1.59	9.61	7.72	1.66	9.38	7.34	1.44	8.78
Part Hawaiian	8.49	3.68	12.17	8.38	3.70	12.08	9.04	3.62	12.66	9.14	3.32	12.46	9.11	3.29	12.40
American	2.07	2.01	4.08	2.08	2.03	4.11	2.25	2.35	4.60	2.04	2.46	4.50	2.08	2.44	4.52
British	.26	.11	.37	.28	.12	.40	.25	.14	.39	.25	.18	.43	.22	.15	.37
German	.43	.26	.60	.44	.26	.70	.48	.23	.71	.30	.17	.47	.27	.09	.36
Portuguese	12.54	3.09	15.63	11.95	3.11	15.06	12.16	2.93	15.09	12.01	2.93	14.94	11.72	2.92	14.64
Japanese	31.83	5.64	37.47	33.11	5.68	38.79	35.37	2.69	38.06	36.26	3.16	39.42	37.66	2.89	40.55
Chinese	7.78	2.70	10.48	7.62	2.72	10.34	7.85	2.60	10.45	7.94	2.71	10.65	8.01	2.37	10.38
Porto Rican	2.38	.14	2.52	2.40	.14	2.54	2.67	.18	2.85	2.48	.16	2.64	2.49	.14	2.63
Korean	.86	.48	1.34	.86	.49	1.35	.93	.39	1.32	.98	.32	1.30	1.03	.40	1.43
Spanish	2.41	.22	2.63	2.27	.23	2.50	1.70	.16	1.86	1.18	.11	1.29	1.09	.09	1.18
Russian	.33	.08	.41	.26	.08	.34	.28	.08	.36	.30	.07	.37	.19	.08	.27
Filipino	1.14	.14	1.28	1.17	1.14	1.31	1.37	.13	1.50	1.51	.17	1.68	1.03	.16	2.09
Other foreigners	.32	.11	.43	.29	.11	.40	.35	.18	.54	.36	.11	.47	.31	.09	.40
Total	79.76	20.24	100.00	79.60	20.40	100.00	82.73	17.27	100.00	82.47	17.53	100.00	83.45	16.55	100.00

THE EFFECT OF JUDGE VAUGHAN'S RECENT DECISION.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out, the foregoing estimates of the place the Japanese will occupy in Hawaii's electorate have not taken into consideration the actual and probable effect of the decision rendered January 17, 1919, by Judge Horace W. Vaughan, United States district judge for the District of Hawaii, in the matter of the application for citizenship made by a Japanese, a soldier in the United States Army, stationed at the Schofield Barracks, Island of Oahu, Territory of Hawaii. Judge Vaughan has interpreted the act of May 9, 1918, and the clause "any alien," therein, as granting the soldier in question the right of citizenship. The section of the act which has so been interpreted follows:

> Seventh. Any native-born Filipino of the age of 21 years and upward who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States and who has enlisted or may hereafter enlist in the United States Navy or Marine Corps or the Naval Auxiliary Service, and who, after service of not less than three years, may be honorably discharged therefrom, or who may receive an ordinary discharge with recommendation for reenlistment; or any alien, or any Porto Rican not a citizen of the United States, of the age of 21 years and upward, who has enlisted or entered or may hereafter enlist in or enter the armies of the United States, either the regular or the volunteer forces, or the National Army, the National Guard or Naval Militia of any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia, or the State militia in Federal service, or in the United States Navy or Marine Corps, or in the United States Coast Guard, or who has served for three years on board of any vessel of the United States Government, or for three years on board the merchant or fishing vessels of the United States of more than 20 tons burden, and while still in the service on a reenlistment or reappointment, or within six months after an honorable discharge or separation therefrom, or while on furlough to the Army Reserve or Regular Army Reserve after honorable service, may, on presentation of the required declaration of intention petition for naturalization without proof of the required five years' residence within the United States if upon examination by the representative of the Bureau of Naturalization in accordance with the requirements of this subdivision it is shown that such residence can not be established.

The immediate effect of this ruling was the naturalization to November 14, 1919, of 398 Japanese, 99 Koreans, 4 Chinese, and 200 Filipinos similarly situated. The more remote effect, the extent of which can not be estimated, is that it apparently points to a way by which in the future alien orientals may qualify for citizenship through joining the National Guard of the Territory or by serving on the merchant or fishing vessels of the United States of more than 20 tons burden, which limit includes many of the Japanese sampans now operating in Territorial waters, and the interisland passenger boats whose crews are largely made up of oriental seamen.

METHOD OF RELEASING CHILDREN FROM JAPANESE CITIZENSHIP.

Although Japan has made some concessions in the matter of the release of Hawaiian-born Japanese from Japanese citizenship, males 17 to 20 years of age are still held as Japanese nationals, according

to a digest of the Japanese law covering citizenship, prepared by the department of public instruction from translations of Japanese documents.

The only exception in the case of males from 17 to 20 is those who are physically unfit for military service, those who have served a limited number of years and those who have resided in a foreign country until the age of 32.

The original Japanese law classed all children of Japanese parents, regardless of where born, as Japanese nationals, but an amendment dating from 1916 allowed foreign-born Japanese to sever all citizenship ties with Japan, under certain conditions.

The following data concerning the filing of petitions for release from Japanese citizenship by Hawaiian-born Japanese was gathered by the school department:

1. Applicant must be born in Hawaii and must be an American citizen.

2. Applicant must be residing in Hawaii.

3. Female applicants and male applicants under 17 years of age are accepted without restriction. Male applicants over 17 years of age who will be accepted are those physically unfit for military service, and those who have served for a limited number of years, and those who have resided in a foreign country until the age of 32. Petitions from male applicants over 17 to 20 years of age, who do not belong to the above class, are not accepted.

4. In order to become legally discharged, consent must be obtained from the secretary of the interior of Japan.

To obtain consent: (*a*) If applicant is under 15 years of age he must obtain the consent of the parents or guardian.

(*b*) If applicant is over 15 years of age, he should be first O. K'd by the relatives.

(*c*) If applicant is under 15 years and under guardianship of stepfather, stepmother, widow, or legal guardian whose consent is necessary, the legally appointed guardian should make the application.

The application should be filed with the Japanese consulate of Honolulu and the following papers should accompany the petition:

(*a*) Registration Book of Japan (koseki toohon). Two copies.

(*b*) Hawaiian birth certificates.

(*c*) If applicant has taken any trip to Japan, he should state the number of trips and the approximate number of days spent in Japan during each trip, and if applicant did not travel, he should state so. Two copies.

(*d*) The dates of the arrival of the parents to Hawaii. Two copies.

(*e*) Names of relatives with whom the applicant resides, and their relation. Two copies.

(*f*) Minors under 17 years and over 15 years should send the consent in writing of the guardian. Two copies.

(*g*) In case the consent of the relatives are required, the applicant should present such consent. Two copies.

(*h*) When applicant is over 17 years of age, he should state whether he has served in military service, or if otherwise, stating reasons for being unqualified.

Any person thus having lost the Japanese registration can become a Japanese subject again if circumstances are such that he will have to reside in Japan.

3. THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE RACES ARE INTERMARRYING.

Whether or not the Japanese desire to achieve political control, without doubt within a few years they will be in a position to do so if they choose. In this connection the question of the degree and extent to which the various racial groups now living in the islands fuse through intermarriage is important. For, obviously, if a rapid fusion is taking place in this manner, the Territory of Hawaii will of necessity be looked upon as being unique in this, namely, that a new race of people would be in process of creation. If, on the other hand, racial groups maintain group solidarity and manifest no "chemical affinity," then we shall doubtless witness in the future, in the struggle for political supremacy, a contest among groups for group recognition or preferment.

An interesting and valuable study of the extent to which fusion by marriage has taken place in the Territory of Hawaii has been made by Mr. Vaughan MacCaughey, now superintendent of public instruction of the Territory.[2] The following comprises a brief summary of the conclusions which he reached from a study of the records of many hundreds of marriages:

THE PORTUGUESE.

1. The majority of Portuguese men marry Portuguese. Their national preferences, outside their own group, in quantitive sequence are: Hawaiian, Caucasian-Hawaiian, Spanish, Chinese-Hawaiian.

2. No Portuguese men married full-blooded oriental women (Chinese, Japanese, Koreans). Only 2 married Filipinos, whereas 58 Portuguese women married Filipinos; 19 Portuguese men married part-oriental women.

3. Of the total marriages, both men and women, 174 were with mates of Polynesian or mixed Polynesian stock; 259 with mates of American or north European stock; 67 were with mates of south European stock (other than Portuguese).

4. Among the other significant figures, from the standpoint of race-mingling, are these: 194 Portuguese women were married by Americans, 58 by Filipinos, 28 by orientals, 24 by Porto Ricans, 63 by Hawaiians or part-Hawaiians.

5. An appreciable percentage of Hawaii's population is more or less infused with Portuguese blood, as witnessed by the marriages of full-blooded Portuguese men and women with mates of mixed Portuguese blood.

[2] See "Race Mixture in Hawaii," by Vaughan MacCaughey, in Journal of Heredity, vol. 10, Nos. 1 and 2.

These facts testify to a remarkable breaking down of "race barriers" in Hawaii. The intermarrying of the Portuguese with other peoples in Hawai. is only exceeded by the Hawaiians and the Americans. It is unfortunate that we do not possess detailed accurate eugenic data concerning the progeny of these unions.

THE SPANISH GROUP.

1. Most Spanish men married Spanish women. Spanish women marry freely outside their nationality.

2. A small amount of intermarrying takes place between Spanish and Portuguese.

3. A notable number of Spanish women are married by Porto Ricans and Filipinos.

4. The intermarrying between Spanish and Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians is very slight, especially when contrasted with the Portuguese in this regard.

5. Practically no Spanish men marry oriental women; 10 Spanish women were married to Koreans.

6. Practically no Spanish men marry Americans or Europeans (except Portuguese). Spanish women have been married by Americans and Europeans.

THE NATIVE HAWAIIANS.

1. Most Hawaiian men marry Hawaiians. Hawaiian women marry freely outside their own race.

2. Notable among the racial preferences of Hawaiian men are their marriages with Caucasian-Hawaiians, Chinese-Hawaiians, and Portuguese.

3. Hawaiian women were selected by the following nationalities, in order, Hawaiian, Caucasian-Hawaiian, Chinese, Chinese-Hawaiian, American, Filipino, Korean, Portuguese, Japanese.

4. Of special note is the large amount of intermarrying between the various European stocks and the Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian, giving rise to a unique European-Polynesian-Asiatic blend.

5. Two hundred and fifty-five Americans married Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian mates; of these 26 were American women.

6. In view of the fact that Japanese comprise over 50 per cent (over 100,000) of the total population of Hawaii, the almost negligible degree of intermarrying with the Hawaiian stock is extraordinary. Only 4 Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian men married Japanese women, and only 32 Japanese men married Hawaiians or part-Hawaiians.

AMERICANS, BRITISH, GERMANS.

1. Only one-half of the American men married Americans; most of the American women married Americans. In numerical order, American men married Americans, Portuguese, Caucasian-Hawaiians, Hawaiians, British, German, Chinese-Hawaiians, and Porto Ricans.

2. Only 13 American men and 3 American women married Asiatics; 15 American men married Chinese-Hawaiians; 223 married women of Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian blood.

3. The 116 American women who did not marry American men married, in order, British, Caucasian-Hawaiians, Germans, Hawaiians, Portuguese.

4. British men married, in order, Americans, British, Caucasian-Hawaiians, Hawaiians, Portuguese, Germans, Norwegians. British women married, in order, British, Americans, Caucasian-Hawaiians, Germans, Portuguese.

5. Most Germans married others than Germans, in order, Americans, Caucasian-Hawaiians, Portuguese, Hawaiians, British.

6. The direct blending with Asiatic stocks is almost negligible, although considerable intermixture is taking place via the Chinese-Hawaiians.

THE CHINESE.

Over half the Chinese men marry Chinese women, while most Chinese women marry Chinese men. A large percentage of the Chinese men marry Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian women. Very few Chinese women marry Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian men.

Only one Chinese man has married an American woman; a few Chinese women have been married by American men.

An appreciable amount of mingling has taken place between the Chinese and the Portuguese; Chinese and Chinese-Hawaiian men marry Portuguese, Spanish, Hawaiian, Caucasian-Hawaiian, etc. Chinese-Portuguese men and women marry Portuguese, Spanish, Hawaiian, Caucasian-Hawaiian, etc. There is remarkably slight mingling between Chinese and Japanese or Koreans. A few Chinese men have married Japanese women, and a few Chinese-Hawaiian women have been married by Koreans. There have been a few marriages of Americans and north Europeans with Chinese and Chinese-Hawaiian women; the Caucasian mingling is chiefly through the Caucasian-Hawaiians, who intermarry freely with the Chinese and Chinese-Hawaiians.

The most significant feature is the large number of mixed marriages, in which the Chinese, Hawaiian, and Caucasian strains intermingle. Reece [3] states: "There seems to be no reason to doubt that the mixing will proceed at a moderate rate. This does not, of course, mean that Hawaii will be given ~~over to~~ the Caucasian-Hawaiian-Chinese race. The Japanese are predominant numerically, and promise to remain so. The Portuguese constitute a bulky element. Both are prolific, and neither contributes considerably to the fusion. What is likely to appear is the gradual growth of the new stock, fitting itself for leadership in the minor business and clerical activities of the islands."

THE KOREANS.

There are now about 5,000 Koreans in Hawaii, mostly alien males. During the five-year period, 1913–1917, 404 Korean men married and 311 Korean women married. It is noteworthy and most extraordinary that all of the women, without exception, married Korean men. The women of *no other race* in Hawaii have a like record for tenacious adherence to racial lines. The women of no other race have married only men of their own race. The Korean men have "out-married" to some extent, but not the women.

THE JAPANESE.

Upon comparison with Chinese marriages and intermarriages, it is noted that there is little tendency on the part of the Japanese to amalgamate with the Hawaiians, whereas the Chinese have contributed largely to the formation of the Chinese-Caucasian-Hawaiian mixture. Neither do the Japanese marry as freely with the Portuguese as the Chinese have done.

In general, Japanese marry only Japanese; they show remarkable racial allegiance, more so, as a race, than any other in Hawaii. A few Japanese men have married Hawaiian, part-Hawaiian, and Portuguese women; only one has married an American woman. There are surprisingly few marriages between the Japanese and the other Asiatic peoples in Hawaii. A few Japanese women have been married by Chinese and Koreans. In general, Asiatics in Hawaii breed more freely with Caucasian stock than they do among themselves.

The Japanese and Koreans contrast strongly with the Chinese in race mixtures, the former groups evincing strong clannishness in marital selections; the latter groups freely breeding "out."

[3] Reece, in American Journal of Sociology, July, 1914.

JAPANESE "PICTURE BRIDES."

From the foregoing study it is clear that all races except the Korean and Japanese are fusing rapidly through intermarriages, but that the Japanese group is maintaining its racial distinctiveness. When a Japanese desires to marry but does not go to Japan to seek a bride he asks his parents or a middleman who makes this a business to select an eligible person, whereupon it is suggested to the girl's parents that a marriage is desired. The parents on both sides thereupon conduct an inquiry into the character, social standing, family relations, health, and education of the young man and woman. If the investigation is mutually satisfactory, photographs are exchanged, and an understanding reached, which is followed by a regular wedding ceremony in Japan, attended by relatives of the bride, and invited guests, only the groom being absent. Upon the arrival of the "picture bride" at Honolulu a second ceremony is performed under American laws with the groom present. Most of the older Japanese prefer a "picture bride" to one taken from among the Hawaiian-born women of their race, maintaining that the latter are too "sassy." Many of the young men, however, who are born in the islands, prefer Japanese girls born here, and an increasing proportion are turning away from Japan in selecting their wives.

Under the "gentleman's agreement" with Japan these "picture brides" are admitted freely. They arrive, of course, without knowledge or experience of America and of American ideals or practices, soon becoming mothers of the children who will presently be the voters of the Territory. As long as this stream of "picture brides" continues flowing into Hawaii, just so long will there be a "first generation" of Japanese in the islands. The extent of the influx from this source is shown in the following table:

Number of "picture brides" arriving at Honolulu from 1911 to 1919. Fiscal year ending June 30.[1]

1911	865	1917	985
1912	1,288	1918	1,017
1913	1,572	1919	848
1914	1,407		
1915	1,650	Total	9,841
1916	909	Average per year	1,105

THE PROGENY OF RACIAL INTERMARRIAGES.

A comprehensive study of data concerning the children of racial intermarriages, which could easily be secured in Hawaii, has never been undertaken. The principal of the Kalihiwaena public school, Honolulu, Mr. Isaac M. Cox, however, has made an interesting begin-

[1] From records of United States Immigration Station, Honolulu.

ning in this field by collecting and analyzing data respecting the comparative weight, height, and physical growth of the race groups found among the children of his school. He carefully weighed and measured 414 Hawaiians, 909 part-Hawaiians, 749 Portuguese, 641 Japanese, and 261 Chinese children. From the tables thus secured he draws the following tentative conclusions:

1. That all-Hawaiian children are both taller and heavier than American children.

2. That Chinese children are a trifle taller than American children, but considerably lighter, being of a more slender build.

3. That part-Hawaiian children are taller than all-Hawaiian children, but not so heavy, particularly in the case of the girls.

The foregoing measurements were too few in number to do more than suggest that from the standpoint of eugenics interesting and significant tendencies may be developing.

4. THE OCCUPATIONAL NEEDS AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

The occupations of the Hawaiian Islands center about the two chief industries—the growing and milling of sugar cane and the growing and canning of pineapples. While the production of pineapples has increased enormously in the past 19 years, rising from 2,000 cases in 1901 to 5,071,976 cases in 1919, nevertheless it is still the sugar industry which comprises the greater part of the commercial and industrial activities of the islands. It is in this industry, too, and in associated and related industries, that the great bulk of the occupations open to the people of Hawaii are to be found. Nearly a fifth of the entire population of the islands, for example, is carried upon the pay rolls of the sugar corporations alone, while many additional workers are required in banks, in machine shops, on wharves and vessels and railroads, and in stores and supply houses, because of the needs of this industry.

The sugar industry as it is conducted in the islands is a complex, highly organized, and highly centralized industry. The difficulties which have been overcome in bringing it to its present proportions and success have been enormous, requiring the expenditure of vast sums in adapting the processes of sugar production used elsewhere to the peculiarities of Hawaiian soils, climate, and topography. Mills and boiling houses, equipped with intricate and expensive apparatus, were erected. Inasmuch as the greater part of the land suitable to agriculture is in localities deficient in rainfall, irrigation systems planned on a large scale had to be constructed. Expensive scientific experiments, still being conducted, were initiated to develop new and better varieties of cane, to combat numerous pests, to increase the productivity of the various soils, and to improve processes of manu-

facture. Means had to be developed for getting the cane from field to mill and from mill to refinery, the latter on the mainland, and thence to market. Furthermore, camps and settlements for the laborers and their families were constructed, hospitals erected, and the multitude of details incident to providing for their wants arranged for. Besides all this, the laborers themselves, in sufficient numbers to do the work which the industry requires had to be secured, which meant, as we have already seen, combing the world for workers.

For the reasons, then, that large initial outlays in developing a sugar business are required; that the industry is most profitable when conducted on a large scale; that large grants of land, formerly held by Hawaiian chiefs, came into the control of sugar growers; and that the Territorial Government has pursued the policy in the past of leasing Government lands in large tracts to corporations on long terms, the sugar industry of the islands is almost entirely in the hands of a few corporations—some 47 in number. As in many mainland enterprises, policies are determined and directorates are named by a small group of men giving their entire time to the business. This control is exercised through some five sugar agencies in Honolulu, each representing from 4 to 13 plantations and handling crops ranging from 55,000 to 160,000 tons.

With but few exceptions all of the incorporated sugar plantations belong to the Hawaiian Sugar Planters Association, whose directorate comprises representatives from the several agencies. This association conducts an important experiment station; compiles statistics; supervises marketing arrangements; recruits labor, maintaining for the purpose agents in the Philippines; prescribes wage schedules for field hands, and has, in response to a report made by an investigator called in from the mainland to examine into living conditions among plantation laborers, just organized a new bureau to be called the "industrial-service bureau," created to deal with such welfare matters on the plantations as housing, health and sanitation, recreation and amusement, industrial relations, and cooperation with the public schools in educational-extension projects.

THE OPPORTUNITY FOR THE SMALL FARMER.

The tillable land of the island is either owned or controlled by large corporations or else owned by the Territory itself. Except for the homesteading provisions, incorporated in the Organic Act under which the Territory is governed, there is no desirable land, or practically none, to be had by the man who desires to become an independent farmer. Under the homesteading plan about 3,000 persons have secured holdings ranging in area from a few acres to 80 acres each. Of this number, however, 1,097 own homesteads of less than

10 acres each, an area not large enough for a farmer. Of Territorial lands there remain about 33,000 acres of good agricultural land which according to present plans, will gradually be thrown open to homesteaders. In addition, about 15,000 acres of arid lands on Molokai and 7,000 acres on Kauai could be made suitable for agricultural purposes, it is believed, if irrigation facilities were developed.[4]

Under present laws governing homesteading no power is granted the land board of the Territory, which has the matter in hand, to select the homesteader because of his capability or fitness for the work, the selection being made wholly by the drawing of lots. In consequence, no citizen of the Territory, however much he may desire to take up agriculture as a vocation, setting himself up as an independent farmer, or however well qualified by character and training he may be for undertaking such an enterprise, has any assurance that he will be able to secure the opportunity. In a recent drawing held in the Territory there were 2,905 applications for 261 plats of land. The incapable ones and those who had made a complete failure in everything they had previously undertaken had an equal opportunity with those who had the qualities requisite for success.

The following table indicates how the homesteaders of the islands are distributed among the various nationalities:

Homesteads taken from 1896 to 1919, distributed by nationalities.[1]

Nationality.	Number of persons.	Area in acres.	Average acreage per person.	Appraised value.
Japanese	164	4,513	27.5	$114,294
Chinese	70	1,877	26.8	65,598
Portuguese and Spanish	938	48,554	51.7	415,499
Hawaiian	1,113	31,673	28.4	613,608
Anglo-Saxon	524	36,420	70.0	361,868
Other nationalities	129	10,453	80.0	77,153
Total	2,938	133,490	45.5	1,648,120

[1] From Proposed Amendments to the Organic Act (Hawaii) by the Legislative Commission of Hawaii, p. 61.

Moreover, the activities of agricultural character open to the small farmer are again virtually limited to sugar-cane production, or, if the altitude of his farm is right, to pineapple growing, for attempts so far made to grow other crops on a commercial scale have been failures. Even the small farmer in the islands, then, is, as matters now stand, virtually dependent upon the big plantation corporations, for he looks to them to buy his crop, to advance him seed cane, fertilizer, store supplies, and, in instances, the wages with which he employs the help he may need. The time of harvesting is at the convenience of the mill company too, while most of the apparatus for carrying his

[4] See Proposed Amendments to the Organic Act (Hawaii) by the Legislative Commission of Hawaii.

cane to the mill is supplied by it. So dependent is he in fact upon the powerful corporation that he is an independent farmer in name only.

The needs of the islands in this matter, as well as the difficulties, are well stated by the legislative commission of Hawaii, now seeking to secure amendments to the Organic Act.

> The remaining small area of agricultural land in the Territory should be so disposed of as to insure it being settled by a class of citizen farmers, who, not only while performing their homestead duties, but also after the issuance of a patent, will remain as the active owners thereof, and interested and actively concerned in its development. What this Territory needs more, perhaps, than anything else is a body of independent citizen farmers with a direct and independent interest in the welfare of the community. Unfortunately, that class is all too small in the Territory of Hawaii.
>
> The successful farming of land in Hawaii requires something more than a mere desire to obtain title to tracts of Government land at small cost. As these lands are supposed to be sold at full cash value, the initial expense is large. The successful farming of these lands calls for the expenditure of a considerable sum of money per acre, and for constant industry and dilligence in the care and cultivation of the crops.

It must be clear that the vocational needs as well as the vocational opportunities of the islands are in large part connected directly or indirectly with the sugar industry, and in a less degree with pineapple growing. Obviously, the educational system of Hawaii must take into account the specific opportunities for employment which the sugar industry affords in all its phases. It is pertinent, therefore, to inquire about the nature of the occupational opportunities which this great industry offers and the qualifications required for success therein.

PLANTATION AND MILLING ACTIVITIES.

A good description of the activities incident to the growing and milling of cane is given in the following excerpts from the 1915 report on "Labor Conditions in Hawaii," prepared under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics:

> Field employment covers all occupations outside the mill and office, including those of workers engaged in transportation and in maintaining field and camp equipment. The supervision of field operations is in charge of overseers, known locally as "luna," a term applied to all foremen below the manager. The manager's salary is sometimes $1,000 a month or more, while the lowest-paid foreman, such as the boss of the women's gang, receives wages little above those of a good field hand. Nearly every plantation has a head carpenter and a head blacksmith, and those of larger size have foreman mechanics in other trades. These, as a rule, like the lunas, are salaried men paid by the calendar month. Common laborers and field hands are paid a daily wage, totaled for a month of 26 working days. Some assistant mechanics, especially on large plantations, are also salaried men; but helpers are ordinary laborers transferred from field work. Train crews consist of an engineer and an assistant, who is usually the fireman. During the season when cane is being hauled, and on large plantations throughout the year, one or two brakemen are employed for every locomotive in service. Except in one or two recent instances, steam tractors are not used for plowing, but the gang plows are drawn across the field between two standing

TYPES OF KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN.

"THE MELTING POT."

KAWAIAHAO SEMINARY.

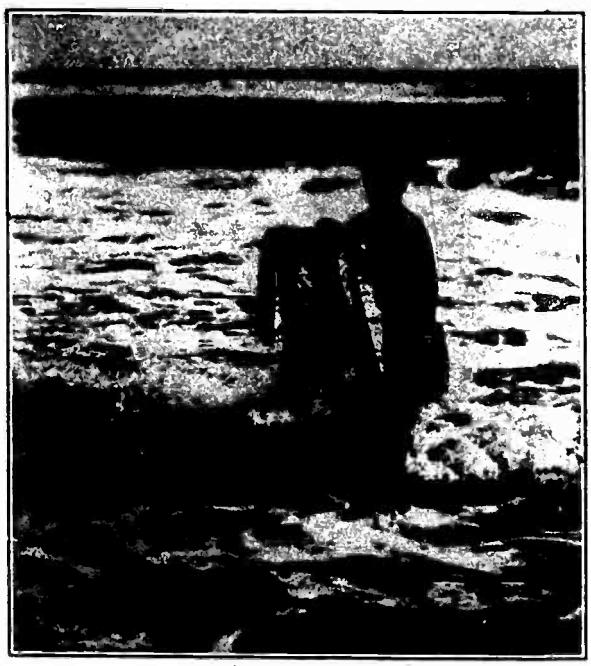
1—Hawaiian.
2—Ehu Hawaiian.
3—Japanese.
4—Chinese.
5—Korean.
6—Russian.
7—Filipino.
8—Portuguese.
9—Polish Russian.
10—Hawaiian-German.
11—Hawaiian-Chinese.
12—Hawaiian-Russian.
13—Hawaiian-American.
14—Hawaiian-French.
15—Hawaiian-Portuguese.
16—Hawaiian-Filipino-Chinese.
17—Hawaiian-Indian-American.
18—Hawaiian-Japanese-Portuguese.
19—Hawaiian-Portuguese-American.
20—Hawaiian-Spanish-American.
21—Hawaiian-German-Irish.
22—Hawaiian-Spanish-German.
23—Hawaiian-Chinese-American.
24—Hawaiian-Portuguese-Irish.
25—Hawaiian-Japanese-Indian.
26—Hawaiian-Portuguese-Chinese-English.
27—Hawaiian-Chinese-German-Norwegian-Irish.
28—South Sea (Nauru)-Norwegian.
29—African-French-Irish.
30—Spanish-Porto Rican.
31—Guam-Mexican-French.
32—Samoan-Tahitian.

HAULING SUGAR CANE TO MILL.

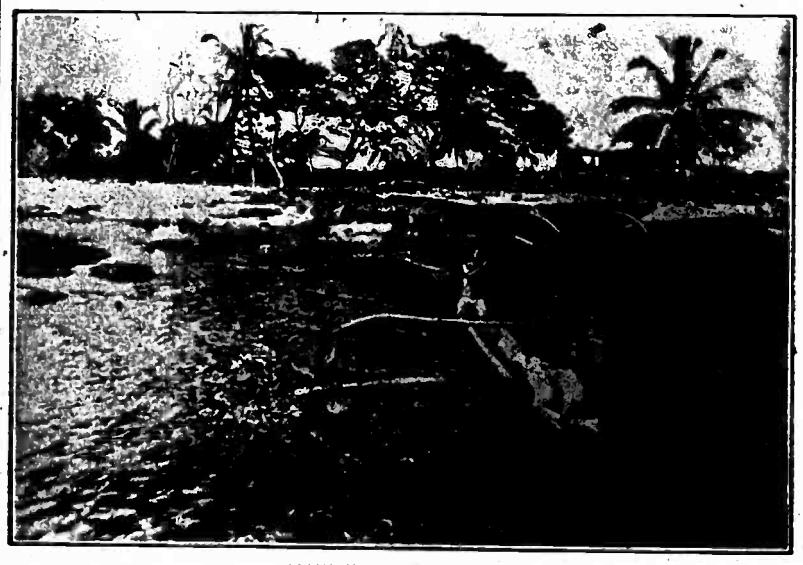
TARO PATCHES—WAIMEA.

AN HAWAIIAN TYPE.

PRIMITIVE HAWAIIAN HOME.



HAWAIIAN FISHERMAN.



HAWAIIAN FISHERMEN.

engines by wire ropes winding on a drum. Two engineers, and possibly as many firemen or helpers are therefore needed for each plow. In addition there is a water tender, who hauls water and fuel for the engines. Upon the plow itself is a steerer, who directs its course across the field, and several riders. Those termed surveyors upon the pay rolls are often no more than furrow levelers, who lay out the fields before planting. Mules are used for animal cultivation which presents no features not familiar upon mainland farms. Field hands are employed in planting, hoeing, fertilizing, irrigating, and stripping. The latter operation, which is not universally practiced, consists of pulling the dead leaves off the lower cane stalks, thus admitting the sunlight and air that make the sugar in the cane itself.

Harvesting consists of cutting and trimming the cane and getting it to mill. Sometimes the dead leaves are burned off before cutting. Cane cutters are usually paid by the ton, at such a rate that their earnings exceed those of day hands. The top joints of cane are used as seed; and in case of varieties which it is desired to increase rapidly the entire stalks are cut into joints for planting. This also is a contract operation, but is paid for at a lower rate, and is light work, left to children and women, or to old men. After the cane is cut it is bundled and carried to the flume, railway, or wire rope conveyor, according to the kind of transportation employed. Men and women often work in teams at this occupation, the women collecting the stalks into bundles and the men carrying the heavy bundles to their immediate loading place. Men delivering the cane into the flumes are known as flumers, but the same term also designates watchers who are stationed at different points to keep the flumes clear. Loading cane, whether into wagons or railway cars, is done almost entirely by contract.

Irrigated plantations have a group of special occupations. Reservoir men and ditch men live at isolated points to watch the water heads and turn the water at proper times into main feed ditches. A corps of engineers, oilers, and firemen is required to operate steam pumps. This irrigation force is on duty seven days a week, except during occasional periods of rainfall, which occur even in the drier districts.

After cane reaches the mill it is crushed between rollers, the juice is clarified, filtered, and evaporated, and the sugar is dried, bagged, and shipped or warehoused. Most mill occupations require little special skill and command no higher pay than field labor, except that mill hands work 12 hours, while those in the field work 10 hours. A few positions pay higher rates. One or two men are engaged in unloading cane from cars by a mechanical device, or in tending feed flume where cane is brought by water. If cables are used they usually deliver the cane directly into cars on a short railway, or into a receiving yard at the mill itself. Four or five men form a shift on the carriers or endless belt conveyor that takes the cane evenly to the crusher. Modern mills have 9, 12, or 15 rollers, and these require constant attendance, taking the labor of as many or more men than serve the carriers. From the mill the juice is pumped into receiving tanks in the boiling house. This department employs rather more skilled labor than the mill proper, as some experience is needed at every stage of operation until the sugar reaches the bags. But this labor is of attendance mainly, and does not require severe physical exertion. The number of men employed at each stage of manufacture varies with the size of the establishment; but there is at least one man at the liming or juice tank, another on the clarifiers, another on the filters, one or more on the evaporators, an assistant besides the sugar boiler at the strike pan where the concentrated juice is crystallized, and a man for every large or every two small centrifugals. The labors of the men who control the processes through which the cane juice goes from the mill to the strike pan consist principally in passing the juice, by means of cocks or pumps, from one tank to another, either at fixed intervals of time, or at the direction of the sugar boiler or chemist. In better equipped mills are several intermediate processes not mentioned, but they are nearly automatic.

After the sugar leaves the centrifugals it is bagged; the bags, previously marked, are closed, and the sugar is stacked in the warehouse or on cars by sugar-room men. Scattered through the boiling house are tenders to the molasses and juice pumps. An extra man may have charge of the molasses tanks; a woman is employed to repair filter cloths; and the chemist or sugar boiler has helpers or sampling boys, besides whom there are miscellaneous and extra hands with no specific occupation. In addition, the engineer has an engine-room staff of wipers and oilers, water tenders, and firemen.

The mill force has employment only during the grinding season, which may last from three to nine months, and in a few places irregularly throughout the year. During the remaining months most of the ordinary hands return to field occupations. Skilled men, such as the engineer and his helpers, and perhaps the sugar boiler, are engaged during the "dead" season in overhauling and repairing mill and boiling-house machinery and in installing new apparatus. Nearly every sugar mill in Hawaii is in a state of constant change, and few pass more than a season without modifying or improving their equipment.

Mills generally work two shifts during the grinding season, the hands remaining on duty 12 hours and taking their meals in the building. As their duties while exacting are not arduous, the extra money they earn makes these positions eagerly sought by field hands. Some mills do not receive enough cane to work double shifts, but are not able to handle their cane in ordinary working hours. Under these exceptional conditions it is the practice to work long hours, paying an excess rate for overtime. In such cases men make increased earnings for a few months, their hours increasing toward mid season and declining to normal when the grinding is finished. So little special skill is required for millwork that men are shifted from job to job as convenience requires, often without a change of pay. The classification of occupations varies in different factories, and is at best very shifting.

A typical plantation organization comprises several divisions, such as field, factory, engineering, ranch, and accounting divisions; each with a head responsible to the plantation manager and each having an organization of its own comprising foremen and skilled, partly skilled, and unskilled workers, as the several needs demand. It is obvious, therefore, that to carry on plantation activities a body of employees is required having a wide range of abilities and special skills; and it must be obvious also that within the scope of such activities there are many opportunities for advancement in responsibility and in remuneration for the individual who has the will, the ambition, and the ability to prepare himself for promotion, also that there is a variety in position offered sufficient to enable the individual to exercise considerable choice in line with his aptitudes and tastes.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN RELATION TO ISLAND NEEDS.

From the foregoing analysis of the occupational needs and opportunities of the islands it is clear that a course of school study and training which is limited to the usual academic subjects would ignore almost entirely the very heart of the life and work of the islands. Such a course, beyond that general preparation through securing literacy which an academic course gives, would in nowise minister in

any practical way either to the success of the individual in his attempts to find a vocation to which he is adapted and in which he would derive satisfaction, or to the needs of the industries themselves. The schools of Hawaii must see to it that all the children of the islands shall grow up to be literate men and women, and to accomplish this the core of the work of the schools, as of schools wherever placed, must consist of academic studies of the usual type. Furthermore, the schools must see to it that the way is open at the top so that those pupils developing an aptitude for teaching, for law, for medicine, for research work, for linguistics, for the ministry, for journalism, shall secure that broad educational foundation which success in such highly specialized professions demands. Nevertheless, outside of teaching, the islands offer comparatively few opportunities in the professions; therefore, the great mass of the children and young people now in the schools, if they are to become stable, self-supporting, worthy members of society must find their opportunities either in agriculture itself or in occupations directly related to agricultural enterprises. Aside, then, from the core of work running throughout the entire system from the kindergarten to the university which should properly make for literacy, for culture, for general information, for catholicity of view and of interest, the school, at every step of the way, should be laying a foundation for occupational success.

The elementary school in this connection, for example, should be devoting much attention to training in the various forms of handwork, manual work, cooking, simple sewing, the making of beds, and the care of the house, the making of school and home gardens, the organizing of pig clubs and poultry clubs, and in the use of tools through making simple repairs and through making articles for use in the home.

Every junior and senior high school in the Territory should have near by a well-stocked farm in charge of a practical, progressive, scientific farmer and his wife who herself should be an expert in all those matters properly falling within the field of the duties of a housewife on a farm. It should be required that every boy and girl going through school, no matter where headed, should spend some time each day on the farm in gaining through actual experience a first-hand knowledge of what it means to farm in Hawaii in a practical way. In the classrooms of these schools, a portion of the time could well be devoted to a discussion of those theoretical and scientific considerations which lie back of the problems which naturally grow out of the activities of the farm.

The university, aside from offering courses on the campus at Honolulu in applied arts and sciences, could well have a branch set down in one of the islands among the plantations, where the university

could send its young men who are looking forward to plantation service in a directive capacity. At such a branch, opportunity should be provided whereby a capable young man might spend one-half his time in actual field service and the other half in the college branch working under the direction of persons trained in plantation science. A training of such character, both scientific and practical, would offer a satisfactory career to one who wishes to make preparation for it. (See the discussion, in Chapter II, of the Lahainaluna Trade School.)

A LENGTHENED SCHOOL DAY REQUIRED.

To cover a program of such character, in addition to carrying forward a minimum core of cultural study, a longer school day than now prevails in elementary and high school divisions is required. Experience, however, has shown that when three hours per day are given up to hard, persistent, intensive study by fresh minds, children make faster progress than they do when they dawdle along for five hours as they now do in most schools everywhere. It is confidently believed that a seven or an eight hour school day during which work with the hands, intensive study, and free, spontaneous, joyous play are rotated with proper frequency, will suffice to give adequate training both for culture and for successful adaptation to vocational needs. Three hours, then, devoted to intensive study; two or three hours devoted to work with the hands, in the shops or laboratories, in the cooking and sewing rooms, and in the school and home gardens or on the school farm; and two hours devoted to intermissions and to free play, will be ample to enable the school to accomplish the task which life and work in the Hawaiian Islands properly demand of it in its threefold function of subserving the interests of (1) the Nation, through training for citizenship; (2) the community, through providing workers competent to carry on its activities; and (3) the individual, through giving him the opportunity of "finding himself."

5. WHEREIN THE SITUATION DIFFERS FROM THAT ON THE MAINLAND.

The influx of immigrants has brought about a social situation in the Hawaiian Territory which is exceedingly complex. Nowhere else in the entire United States is there another large political unit broken up into so many groups that are so sharply and profoundly differentiated along race lines. Obviously, then, in the Hawaiian Territory that instrument which the country has devised for the making of an enlightened and intelligent citizenship, the public school, has its most difficult task to perform—one which will put it to the severest test.

IGNORANT OF ENGLISH UPON ENTERING SCHOOLS.

Investigations which have been made disclose the fact that when children of the islands enter school at 6 or 7 years of age, not more than 2 or 3 per cent can speak the English language. The teachers, therefore, from the very first, before they can begin where teachers in the States begin, must establish a working vocabulary to serve as a medium of communication between teacher and child. In many instances it is weeks before the teacher can make herself understood. Furthermore, many of those who do come with some knowledge of English would better not have any at all, for it is the jargon of the plantations and the "pidgin English" of the streets, which must, in the end, be eliminated.

NATURAL ENDOWMENT OF RACES COMPARED.

Respecting the stock from which these children come, it is clear from what has already been said about the history of assisted immigration that the parents of these children, in a very large majority of cases, come from the humblest and most ignorant classes in their respective home countries. The children of these parents therefore enter school without that fund of general information and knowledge and that alertness of mind which the children from American homes in the States have as a part of their initial mental equipment. Furthermore, the home life of the child living on a Hawaiian plantation is bare and terribly impoverished, as compared with that of the child of the typical American home, even of the poorer classes. His mental images and his sense experiences are pitifully small. In consequence, the teacher of the Hawaiian-born children who enter school for the first time is struck with their unresponsiveness, their lack of spontaneity, their apparent stolidity. While this may be partially racial, it is chiefly environmental and yields in time to the skillful teacher who perceives that she must begin by furnishing the child's mental chambers with pictures and images and sense impressions in which he is interested and about which he desires to talk.

So far as natural endowment is concerned, however, it is asserted by many that all children of whatever racial groups are about on the same level, and that social environment rather than heredity is the differentiating factor. A recent investigation carried on by Mr. M. M. Scott, of the McKinley High School, Honolulu, disclosed the fact that the teachers of the faculty were in agreement on the following observations, based on a study of the records made by Caucasian and oriental children: That the natural endowment of orientals and whites is about the same; that the orientals have a greater power of continuous attention to study; that the attitude and conduct of the

orientals is generally above reproach, which can not be said universally of the Caucasian children; and that, while the white children have a greater fund of general information gained from sources outside of books, the orientals seem to surpass them in the ability to get from books essential facts and conclusions. If, then, the same environment and the same opportunity were given to the various racial groups of the Hawaiian Islands, there is much evidence to indicate that the educational results would be quite as satisfactory as are the results in the States gained by English-speaking children.

NO ENGLISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN ON THE PLAYGROUND.

The teacher, too, in the islands, as compared with the States, is further handicapped in her efforts to teach the English vernacular by the fact that there are virtually no children from English-speaking homes to mingle with the children of the various races in their sports and games, thereby serving as powerful allies in popularizing the English tongue. Enrolled in the schools of the islands, public and private, there are only about 2,400 children with whom the English language is native; 1,500 of these are in private schools and 900 in public schools. Obviously, 900 children scattered among 36,000 will exercise no appreciable influence; rather the danger is that they themselves will be overwhelmed by sheer numbers and their own language corrupted by incorrect forms. Play and the playground constitute a tremendous asset to the teacher on the mainland who chances to have children of foreign parents, an asset whose importance is little realized until one is brought face to face with the situation which obtains where it is no longer a factor.

AN UNSTABLE TEACHING FORCE.

The instability of the teaching force of the islands is another handicap under which the schools are working. It is true that the teaching force of every State in the country is very much more unstable than is desired, and this impermanence has been very greatly accentuated during the war when other activities paying larger salaries made such inroads into the teaching force of the country. The records in the office of the Territorial superintendent disclose the fact that during the past 10 years 1,785 teachers have entered the public school system of the islands, of which number 1,014 have dropped out. In addition, there are 240 teachers still in the service who entered more than 10 years ago, 38 from the mainland and 202 from the islands.

Of the 1,014 teachers who entered and left the service during the 10-year period in question, 838 dropped out during the first three years of service; while 521, approximately 30 per cent of the entire

group, remained no longer than one year. The median or middle point of service is approximately three years, that is, about as many have taught three years or more as have taught three years or less. A table showing the facts regarding service in detail follows:

Length of service of teachers entering the public schools of Hawaii during a 10-year period, September, 1909, to December, 1919.

	Years of service before leaving.										Still in service.	Total.
	0-1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
Teachers coming from—												
The mainland	292	149	45	23	14	18	2	3	3	1	258	818
The islands	229	70	53	31	24	13	16	7	8	3	a 513	967
Total	521	219	98	64	38	31	18	10	11	4	771	1,785

a Not including 28 senior students of the Territorial Normal School teaching in the public schools.

Much is said in the islands in criticism of the "tourist" teacher from the mainland who comes to the islands merely for adventure and for sight-seeing, and who leaves after she has had her fill of both, and before she has been long enough in a school to have become sufficiently familiar with conditions to enable her to render efficient service. In order to determine how the proportion of mainland teachers leaving each year compares with the loss of island teachers, the preceding table should be expressed in percentages. This table follows:

Proportion of mainland and island teachers leaving service during a 10-year period September, 1909, to December, 1919.

	Years of service before leaving.										Still in service.
	0-1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Teachers coming from—	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.	P. ct.
The mainland	35.7	18.2	5.5	4.0	1.7	2.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.1	31.5
The islands	23.6	7.3	5.5	3.1	2.6	1.3	1.7	.7	.8	.4	53.0

This table shows that more than one-half of the mainland teachers drop out during the first two years of their service, while among island teachers the loss during the same period is about 30 per cent. After the first two years of service, however, the proportionate loss, year by year, runs about the same for both groups.

In this connection it will be of interest to note how those still in the department are distributed in respect to length of service. This distribution is shown in the table which follows.

Teachers now in the public schools of Hawaii, distributed as to length of service.

	Years of service.											
	0-1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Over 10 years.	Total.
Teachers from—												
The mainland	109	52	37	21	9	8	6	6	9	1	38	296
The islands	95	70	67	61	56	37	38	36	32	21	202	715
Total	204	122	104	82	65	45	44	42	41	22	240	1,011

The foregoing tables by no means indicate the degree of instability among the teachers of the islands, for they take no account of the transfers among schools within the system which take place in great numbers at the beginning of each term. Outside the cities it is rare to find in any school more than a very few teachers who retain their assignments more than a year.

Such impermanency in the teaching corps as the foregoing tables disclose seriously handicaps the superintendent and his supervisors in working out a unified, consistent, and well-coordinated educational policy. Furthermore, it is clear that teachers who enter the department to leave it at the first opportunity are not likely to give to their work that unremitting application necessary to secure the best results. Even under the most favorable conditions there will always be many transients among teachers, but good instructional opportunity for children requires that serious effort be made to stabilize the teaching force.

The instability in the teaching corps is in striking contrast to the situation which prevailed among the elementary schools of Prussia prior to the outbreak of the war. In these schools, which were remarkable for producing the kind of efficiency which Germany demanded, 45 per cent of the male teachers of the cities had been in service more than 20 years and only 6.69 per cent had had less than 6 years' service, while 77.67 per cent had served more than 10 years.[5] Conditions of salary, of tenure, of retirement provisions are such that teaching in Germany had become a profession wherein those who entered did so intending to remain in the work for life. The German elementary teacher never received a large salary, but it was sufficient to provide him with a comfortable home, an education for his children, a margin of savings, and a pension upon retirement which would keep him from want for the remainder of his days. If teaching in America is ever to become a profession, it will be only after some such provisions have been made to secure greater permanency in the teaching force.

[5] Alexander: The Prussian Elementary Schools. Macmillan, 1918, p. 197.

The Territory of Hawaii has taken a step in this direction which is a wise one, that is, to erect in close proximity to all rural and plantation schools cottages for teachers and principals to be used without charge. Steps are now being taken to furnish these cottages in an attractive and homelike manner. Many of the earlier cottages are not pleasing, and in some instances they are scarcely habitable, but the later models are very comfortable, convenient, and attractive. Teachers occupying these cottages are put to no necessary expense other than in providing themselves with food and the services of maids if they so desire. In consequence of this arrangement the living expenses of teachers need not cost more than $25 per month. If it were not for this plan, it would be impossible to maintain schools in many parts of the islands, for most of the plantation settlements are entirely without facilities for board and living accommodations.

Despite this wise step, taken to render the conditions under which teachers work more favorable, the shifting about among teachers as well as the loss from the teaching corps is much greater in the islands than normally obtains on the mainland. In itself this problem is a serious one in the islands. Suggestions for making the teaching force more stable are given in a later chapter of this report.

MANY POORLY QUALIFIED TEACHERS.

Furthermore, in the past year or two particularly, the educational authorities of the Hawaiian Islands have had difficulty in securing teachers with even moderate qualifications. Indeed, even now some schools are closed because of the inability to secure teachers of any kind. As a makeshift there are now in the corps some who have not had more than an eighth grade education, plus a 6-weeks' summer school course at a normal school; others are teaching without having been certificated at all; again others are cadet teachers still in normal school, having been asked to fill vacancies for a term at least. Despite the fact that, relatively speaking, the Territory is paying good salaries to the teaching corps, there seems to have been great difficulty in getting a teaching force adequate in numbers and in many instances with even moderately satisfactory preparation.

INADEQUATE SUPERVISION.

Again, as compared with the progressive sections of the States, there is a lack of a close supervision of teachers, professional and educational in character and helpful in its influence. The supervision districts are large, and the Territorial legislature has limited the number of supervising principals to three on the Island of Hawaii, two on the Island of Oahu, one in Honolulu and one outside, and one each on the Islands of Kauai and Maui.

The situation in the district of West Hawaii is typical. Here the region covered by the supervising principal comprises a narrow belt of habitable land, 169 miles in length, skirting the shores of the island. This strip of cane, pineapple, and coffee lands is dotted with small settlements of laborers and their families, who work on the plantations. A public school has been organized in every settlement. The settlements are all connected by a belt road which encircles the island. While this road is splendid in parts, in places, for distances of many miles, it is very bad, at times indeed being almost impassable for automobiles. This supervision district comprises 27 schools, with 91 teachers, and 3,000 pupils, ranging in grade from the first to the eighth, and representing 14 nationalities.

Inasmuch as the only supervision the teachers of this group of schools receive, in addition to what principals can give who teach full time, is that given by the supervising principal of the district, it is obvious that, as compared with similar situations in the States, it is most inadequate. It is doubly meager, too, when account is taken of the impermanent and shifting character of the teaching corps and of the fact that many persons are assigned to classrooms who are without teaching experience, who themselves in many cases have only an eighth grade education, and who are totally without practical knowledge of the teaching art. The helpful professional supervision of classroom instruction, the kind of supervision which can and does consider the intimate difficulties of the individual teacher, the kind of supervision which most communities in the States are now insisting upon, is almost wholly lacking in the Hawaiian Territory. Of necessity, under present conditions, the work of the supervising principals must remain largely administrative, dealing with matters of a physical and business character chiefly. This is a necessary work, and it can not be neglected or shirked, and it seems to be done efficiently; indeed, the corps of supervising principals deserve much credit for the progress which the schools already have made; but it is, of course, no adequate substitute for that helpful, inspirational, personal supervision which trained and experienced men and women in the States are giving to the teachers in their charge.

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE SCHOOLS.

Another handicap of serious character under which the public schools of the Territory are laboring, and with which there is nothing comparable in the States, is the system of foreign language schools which has grown to formidable proportions, particularly among the Japanese. Among the island settlements, however isolated or remote, wherever there is a group of Japanese laborers and their families, there is also alongside the public school or very near to it a school set apart

for the Japanese children who attend the public school. One year ago there were 163 of these schools in the Hawaiian Islands, manned by 449 teachers, and having an aggregate enrollment of about 20,000 pupils.[6] A number of new schools have been organized since, and in instances considerable sums, reaching $7,000 in one case, have been expended for the purchase of additional sites. In addition to the Japanese, the Koreans and Chinese have established language schools, some 22 in number with about 40 teachers and approximately 2,000 children.

Almost all of these schools are of elementary grade, though there are a few kindergartens, and in 11 schools the work parallels the Territorial high schools, in part at least. In all instances the teachers of the Japanese schools are brought direct from Japan for the purpose. They are certificated teachers in their home country and, in a number of cases, are recommended to the local Japanese authorities by the educational department of Japan. None of the teachers were born or educated in Hawaii.

Except for some 10 Christian schools, the others were organized under Buddhist auspices. In response, however, to local agitation a number of Japanese leaders have urged that they be separated from religious connections. In consequence, a number of them have declared themselves "independent," but there is much evidence to show that with many of this group the separation has been in name and not in fact.

Five Buddhist sects prevail in the islands, the Hongwanji, the Jodo, the Sodo, the Shingon, and the Nichiren, but the Hongwanji is by far the most powerful and dominates the Japanese school situation. Many of the teachers of the schools of this sect are Buddhist priests, wholly unacquainted with English, and out of sympathy with American ideals and institutions.

The daily sessions of these schools vary with different schools. In some instances, though not in many, children attend the Japanese language school from 6 a. m. to 8.30 a. m., when they leave for the public schools. In other schools the morning session is not so long, the children arriving at 7 a. m. or 7.30 a. m. for a session of an hour or an hour and a half. There is also an afternoon session after the public school has dismissed, generally for an hour, but in some cases for an hour and a half. In some schools the children attend both morning and afternoon sessions; in other schools the older children attend in the morning, the younger in the afternoon.

Many of the children have no breakfast before leaving their homes, but take cold food along with them, which they eat on the way or between the morning session of the Japanese school and that of the public school. Until recently Japanese children attended their

[6] Statistics compiled by the Territorial Department of Education.

schools on Saturdays and the year round as well, except for a two weeks' summer vacation; now, however, the summer vacation has been extended to a month; no work is required on Saturday, and other vacations corresponding more nearly to those of the public school are allowed.

The opinion is almost universal among the teachers of the public schools that these language schools are a serious drag upon their own efforts. It is pointed out that the child's attention is divided; that in many instances, particularly with the younger children, they are stupid with sleep and do not respond readily; and that the method which the Japanese teacher employs in conducting recitations is diametrically opposed to that employed by the public-school teacher. Japanese recitations are largely the verbatim repetition of the words of the text, repeated, it should be said, in a sing-song manner; teachers of the public school are seeking for the spontaneous expression in the child's own language of the meaning which he has gotten from what he has read. The two methods clash, and thus, it is asserted, the going is heavy for the public-school teacher.

These schools exist outside the law. That is to say, they have sprung up without legal recognition. All other private schools of the islands are recognized in the law and are nominally under the control of the Territorial education department, and a unique relationship has been established which is different from mainland practice. Not so with these schools, for every effort so far made in the Territorial legislature to bring them under the authority of the Territorial education system has been defeated.[7]

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE TERRITORY ARE INADEQUATELY SUPPORTED.

The schools of the Hawaiian Territory, as compared with the schools of many of the States, are, furthermore, laboring under the handicap of inadequate maintenance. During the year closing June, 1919, the Hawaiian Territory expended $30.02 per pupil enrolled in her public schools on upkeep and maintenance. The average expenditure for the same items per pupil enrolled in 1916, three years earlier, in schools of all cities in the States beyond 5,000 in population, was $36. The State of California expended, three years previously, more than $50 per child. The Hawaiian Territory, with school problems very much more serious and difficult than the problems confronting the school organizations of mainland communities, expended very much less.

[7] The foreign language schools of the islands, while not a part of the public school system, are such an important factor in the educational problem of Hawaii that the commission has devoted an entire chapter, Chapter III of this report, to a description of them and to a discussion of the questions which their existence raises.

Obviously, it has been necessary for the authorities to limit the educational work of the Territory to those phases of education which are cheapest. As it is cheaper to teach children from textbooks, along the narrow lines of academic work, than to provide equipment and opportunity for training in agriculture, in the various industries and vocations, in handwork and these auxiliaries to an education which progressive communities in the States are insisting upon, the educational authorities of the islands have been obliged to limit their activities to the traditional subjects of academic work. In connection with the public-school system of the islands there is no work in manual training, cooking, agriculture, industries, music, art, or in vocational activities beyond the meagerest beginnings. An exception to this statement, however, should be pointed out, in that many of the schools have accomplished satisfactory results in developing school gardens and also in encouraging the making of gardens in the homes. One school, indeed, on West Hawaii, with an unusually large acreage at its command, has been enterprising enough to grow coffee, producing this year some 35 bags, which has meant an income to the school for pupil activities of $500.

On account, therefore, of inadequate maintenance funds at the command of the educational authorities of the Territory, all those activities which are now generally accepted as being necessary parts of an all-round effective education have been impossible of accomplishment, and in this respect, again, as compared with progressive mainland communities, the educational authorities of the islands are badly handicapped.[8]

COMPENSATIONS.

Nevertheless, in comparing Territorial and mainland educational conditions, the comparison is by no means against the Territory in all particulars.

In no section of the States have the members of the commission found the children universally better behaved, cleaner, and neater in their appearance, more attentive to work, more amenable to the suggestions of the teachers, or more courteous and polite than are the children of the islands. Teachers everywhere report that they have few problems growing out of the ill behavior of children or of parents. Territorial authorities likewise report that the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law is a relatively simple matter. This, it may be said, is particularly true of the children of the oriental races. The problem in this connection is one of providing sufficient buildings and teachers for those who clamor for admission rather than of compelling attendance.

[8] The financial aspects of the school situation are more fully discussed in Chapter II.

The climatic conditions, too, are ideal the year around for school attendance and for carrying on those out-of-door activities which the progressive teachers of the States are always on the alert to utilize to the fullest. Teachers, therefore, feel that in these respects are to be found compensations for many of the difficulties and disadvantages which have been mentioned.

6. AGENCIES DEALING WITH THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM.

Of the various agencies which are dealing with the educational problems of the islands, foremost in importance are those called into existence by the Territorial government itself and which are maintained at public expense. These comprise the department of public instruction, at whose head stand a superintendent and six commissioners, with its system of elementary schools, high schools, a normal school, a school for defectives at Honolulu, a summer school (held in 1919 at Kilauea), and two trade schools, one at Lahainaluna, Island of Maui, and the other at Honolulu. In addition, the Territorial government has established an industrial school for girls at Honolulu and one for boys at Waialee, both governed by a single board; and the University of Hawaii, likewise situated at Honolulu. Furthermore, the Territorial board of health is granted a small sum by the legislature for the inspection of the health of school children. The board of health also maintains two schools for nonleprous children of leprous parents, one for boys and one for girls, both in Honolulu. The activities of these agencies, established by the Territorial legislature for the specific purpose of dealing with the educational needs of the islands, are discussed in detail in chapters which follow.

THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

A second group of agencies which have grown up in the islands in response to certain needs are the private schools. These number some 45 schools, large and small, not including kindergartens, scattered about the islands. In rank these range from elementary grade to high school; 11 are Roman Catholic in connection; 7 are organized and managed by the Episcopal Church; 6 are supported by other evangelical churches; and 21 are without religious affiliations.

In contrast to the typical private school of the States, for the most part, these schools are not run for profit, and the fees charged are very moderate; in almost all cases large endowments and benefactions meet the expense of maintenance. Furthermore, the private schools are quasi public in character, in that they have been placed by law under the control of the Territorial department of public instruction in respect to certain of their functions. The work of these schools is discussed in detail in a later chapter.

In addition to the institutions established by the Territorial government and supported by taxation and those schools organized by private boards and bodies, there is a third group of agencies which is working more or less directly in the educational field. Such, for example, are the Free Kindergarten and Children's Aid Association; the Young Men's Christian Association; the Young Women's Christian Association; the Boys' and Girls' Scout Associations; various settlements, such as the Palama Settlement at Honolulu, the Alexander House, Maui, and the Hawaii Island Welfare Bureau at Hilo; also certain missions, as the Hawaiian Board of Missions, which maintains a number of schools about the islands, the Methodist Mission, and the Episcopal Mission. A brief description of the activities of these agencies follows:

FREE KINDERGARTEN AND CHILDREN'S AID ASSOCIATION.

The first kindergarten in Honolulu was organized by Mr. F. W. Damon, September, 1892, in connection with the Chinese mission which he was conducting on Fort Street. In 1893 the Woman's Board of Missions for the Pacific Islands established four kindergartens, one for Portuguese children, one for Hawaiians, one for the Japanese, and the fourth for foreign children of other nationalities. By 1895 the Woman's Board of Missions found that the work was growing beyond all bounds, so the "Free Kindergarten and Children's Aid Association" was organized to direct and manage these activities. In 1899 a new department of the Free Kindergarten and Children's Aid Association was organized, called, "The Children's Aid Department." In consequence of the activities of the aid department, the "Castle Home for Children" was established in Manoa Valley, and a little later a playground for little children and girls was opened, and in 1912 a committee of the department took up the work of finding homes for dependent children.

Prior to 1896, so far as possible, the various racial groups were kept separate and distinct in the kindergartens, but in this year the experiment was tried of opening a mixed kindergarten in the Palama Settlement on King Street. This was so successful that after 1900 all the schools were made cosmopolitan.

Since 1900 the expansion of the work has been very rapid. At present eight kindergartens, five playgrounds, and the Castle Home for homeless children are conducted under the auspices of this association. All these activities, it should be said, are financed by private subscription. In addition a committee has been organized on affiliated kindergartens, there being several in Honolulu organized by special groups, not directly under the management and control of the association.

The enrollment in the association of kindergartens for 1918, distributed by nationalities follows:

Hawaiian and part Hawaiian	231	American	9
Japanese	482	Russian	13
Chinese	284	Other	18
Portuguese	161		
Filipino	20	Total	1,270
Korean	52		

The total amount received for the maintenance of kindergartens and playgrounds for 1918 was approximately $18,000.

The leaders of the activities of this organization have been working to demonstrate to the public the value of the kindergarten, particularly in the processes of the Americanization of non-English speaking children, so that the department of public instruction will be justified in making the kindergarten an integral part of the system. Efforts to this end have been partially successful, for the department has recently authorized the establishment of four public kindergartens, one on each of the four most populous islands. These are the first in the Territory under public auspices. (The kindergarten is further discussed in a succeeding chapter.)

THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

The school system of the Young Men's Christian Association of Honolulu is intended to make Christian education possible for the large number of men and boys in the city who have not had the advantages of the public school system. It is the purpose of the schools to give preparatory and academic courses, commercial and applied business courses, and trade and technical training to men of all nationalities. In all the work close cooperation is maintained with the work of the public schools.

The educational activities of this association are under the board of directors of the association, who delegate the authority for policies and program to the city educational committee. This committee comprises business and professional men—two representing mercantile business, two representing the industries of Hawaii, one attorney, one banker, and three educators. Various nationalities are represented on this supervising committee. The director of the schools is in charge of all of the work and is directly responsible to the city educational committee. Associated with him is a corps of educational secretaries, each in charge of a given activity. So far four centers have been established in Honolulu for this work, one at the central Young Men's Christian Association Building, one at the Nuuanu Building, one at the Filipino Mission, and the fourth in the Automobile School Building on South Street.

Responsive to the recent emphasis in industry upon securing better technically trained men, the Young Men's Christian Association recently organized the automobile school, in which training is given in automobile mechanics. In addition to this vocational and industrial course in automobile mechanics, three other courses are offered, one for American business men, one for women, conducted in cooperation with the Young Women's Christian Association, and a third class for Japanese business men, which is conducted in English and Japanese.

At the central building, evening courses are given to machine-shop apprentices consisting of two years of night training. This course has been worked out in close cooperation with the local iron works and machine shops and after consultation with the foremen and superintendents of the various industrial plants near by. In addition, a course in elementary electricity is given, one in drafting, one in architectural drawing, and one in applied mathematics, organized primarily for mechanical and professional men.

The educational need of other groups of men has led to the organization of further educational activities at these centers. For example, courses are offered along vocational commercial lines, such as a course for prospective bookkeepers, courses in shorthand, and a course for men who wish to prepare themselves as private secretaries.

Furthermore, the association has always considered that one of the most important things it can do is to offer courses which are designed to assist in Americanizing the large foreign population of Honolulu. Classes, therefore, have been organized for special groups of Russians, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, and Hawaiians. At present eight classes which can properly be called Americanization English classes are conducted. They are all held in the evenings and are largely attended, especially by the orientals.

An earnest attempt also has been made to meet the need of boys and young men. In this connection the Young Men's Christian Association is conducting a boys' vacation school and an employed-boys' night school.

Not falling in any of the foregoing classifications are several other activities, comprising courses for business and professional men in the nature of classes or clubs. Conversational French, conversational Japanese for Americans, Spanish, and advanced work for Chinese business men are illustrations.

It is of interest to note the enrollment of men and boys in the various courses offered by the Young Men's Christian Association during the year 1918–19. The following table shows the distribution according to classes:

Enrollment statistics. Young Men's Christian Association schools. 1918–19.

Subjects.	Men.[1]	Boys.	Total.	Number of sessions.
NIGHT SCHOOL.				
Arithmetic	77	37	114	198
Bookkeeping	82	58	140	170
English	152	64	216	271
Drafting, mechanical and architectural	35	12	47	69
French	4	1	5	22
Applied mathematics	24	2	26	100
Mechanical bookkeeping	8	.....	8	49
Machine-shop course	8	17	25	192
Electricity	9	4	13	26
Spanish	6	.....	6	20
Penmanship	8	6	14	56
Japanese	13	.....	13	28
Employed-boys' school	.....	56	56	202
Spelling	44	19	63	84
Shorthand	43	21	64	149
Typewriting	151	46	197	312
Total in night classes	666	357	1,023	2,042
DAY SCHOOL.				
Boys Vacation School	.....	146	146	136
School of Commerce	23	16	39	900
Total in day schools	23	162	185	1,036
Total in all schools	689	519	1,208	3,078

[1] Students classified as men if over 18 years old.

Of the 22 nationalities represented in the Young Men's Christian Association schools during the past seven years the increase in orientals who are availing themselves of this opportunity for education has been marked. The increase in Japanese attendance has been particularly marked the present year, due in part undoubtedly to the increased emphasis which is put upon Americanization and English courses in the schools. The statistics below were compiled at the beginning of the October term of school. While the number indicated does not equal the total membership for the year, it does indicate fairly well the proportionate distribution of enrollment among the various racial groups.

Enrollment in Young Men's Christian Association educational courses distributed by racial groups.

Racial groups.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919
Anglo-Saxon	55	54	66	80	82	62	68
Arabian	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Armenian	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Austrian	0	1	0	0	2	0	0
Belgian	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Chinese	37	60	51	54	75	100	88
Czech	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Filipino	5	6	8	4	2	13	26
German	0	0	90	63	0	7	0
Greek	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian	23	14	21	36	19	14	21
Indian	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
Japanese	2	1	5	6	17	72	103
Jewish	1	1	2	2	1	3	1
Korean	3	2	1	2	0	9	3
Negro	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
Pole	1	5	4	1	0	1	0
Porto Rican	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Portuguese	31	15	40	99	26	12	18
Russian	3	3	10	8	5	4	3
Scandinavian	5	0	3	3	2	11	0
Spanish	5	3	0	4	6	2	4
Total	171	165	300	364	241	315	336

THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

For some years the Young Women's Christian Association at Honolulu has maintained an educational department with a secretary on full time. Realizing the need for supplementary education in a city where there are no public night schools or extension classes, it has sought to fill the breach by organizing classes, among young and older women, in domestic art and science; commercial work; music; dramatics; and in the languages—French, Spanish, and English for Japanese, and English for the Chinese.

Inasmuch, however, as non-English-speaking girls have not been able to avail themselves of the activities of the Young Women's Christian Association, owing to lack of language, it was realized that the organization, to accomplish its mission of ministering to all groups of the womanhood of the community, must reach the foreign-born girl even before she acquired English. With this end in view a department has been organized called the "International Institute." This department has a secretary and a staff of workers who know both the language and the social background of the various racial groups.

Inasmuch as the majority of foreign girls are married at 15 or 16, it was found that the work, to be helpful, must relate itself to the home in some vital way. It was therefore found necessary for the workers not only to know how to teach English, but also to be able to give advice and information in home making, in the care of children, and in how to utilize the resources of the neighborhood and of the community. These workers, in analyzing their problem, found that normal family life demands five essentials: Some education, healthful living, suitable recreation, a reasonable amount of work effectively done, and a spiritual incentive.

This department of Young Women's Christian Association activities is seeking to help foreign families to develop and maintain these essentials of family life in the following practical ways:

Education is furthered by getting the women into an English class and then into a cooking class or a sewing class. At present 27 English classes are being conducted, with 198 women enrolled; there are also 4 sewing classes, with 28 women enrolled.

Health is improved by connecting families with clinics, visiting nurses, good doctors, and teaching the women about cleanliness and the prevention of disease.

Recreation is furthered through beach parties and social gatherings at the institute; 286 Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino women were reached in recreational groups during September alone.

Work conditions are improved by showing the women how to work more efficiently in their homes, and by helping the women who work outside of their homes to get located in the most congenial possible work.

As to the *spiritual incentive*, no normal family can develop without it. Sometimes the workers help to develop it by connecting the family up with the church; at other times through a friendly visit or friendly contact in a class; sometimes by helping the family through some crisis. No matter whether it is through educational, protective, or recreational work, the institute feels that it falls far short if it is not bringing both the individuals of the family and the families of different nationalities into a more vital touch with spiritual ideals.

Incidentally, it may be said that this kind of work constitutes the best possible kind of Americanization work, for it is designed to meet a real need in a perfectly natural way, in the doing of which Americanization comes as a by-product, as it properly should. In the methods employed by some of these workers in teaching English to adult foreign women, the commission is convinced the public-school teachers of the islands would find valuable suggestions for their own work with children.

WELFARE ACTIVITIES ON THE ISLAND OF MAUI

Outside of the city of Honolulu more is done on the Island of Maui in the way of an enlightened attempt to meet the various social, educational, and citizenship problems growing out of the racial mixtures to be found than on any of the other islands. The principal agencies on Maui not elsewhere mentioned in this report which have sprung up in response to the obvious need are.

The Baldwin House activities at Lahaina, comprising a kindergarten, a night-school class, a circulating library for the public, a high school, and a language school in the mornings for adult foreign born. All these activities are conducted without fees, being financed by Mrs. H. P. Baldwin personally. These are but a few of the ways in which the interest she herself is taking in the welfare of the workers on the plantations of Maui is being expressed.

The Alexander House Settlement Association, with headquarters at Wailuku, was definitely organized in 1916 to take over the various activities which have centered about the Alexander House grounds for 15 years or so. This association is just now taking significant steps in organizing all the agencies of the island having to do with the housing, sanitation, health, and recreation of plantation laborers and calling into administrative control of its activities the expert who was brought out from the mainland recently by the Hawaiian Planters' Association to investigate labor conditions in the islands.

The Maui Aid Association is an association without ecclesiastical connections, organized to promote all good movements—educational, social, charitable, and religious—on Maui. Perhaps the most important work which it so far has accomplished has been the organization

of a series of evening schools among groups of plantation laborers, called American Citizenship Evening Schools. Fourteen schools have so far been established, having 26 teachers and an enrollment of about 350 boys, 80 to 90 per cent of whom are Japanese. A trained director has been secured to superintend and coordinate the work. The excellent results of this project are already clearly in evidence and show what could be done if the public school, as it in duty should, were to take over such school-extension work.

The Wailuku Japanese Girls' Home was established in 1912 by a Japanese gentleman who saw that Japanese girls living in camps where their parents were on the plantations were in need of such a home. The girls, some 63 in number, attend the public schools. An earnest young American woman shares in the management of the home and is doing much toward winning the girls over to American ideas and principles.

Chapter II.

THE ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, SUPERVISION, AND FINANCING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

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1. THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

At the head of the Territorial department of public instruction are the superintendent and six commissioners. Both the superintendent and the commissioners are appointed by the governor—the former for a period of four years and the latter for terms of two years. It is explicitly set forth in Territorial law that "no person in holy orders or a minister of religion shall be eligible as a commissioner." Women are eligible as commissioners, except that not more than three may hold commissions at a given time. A further provision of the law requires that the governor shall appoint to the educational commission two residents of the County of Hawaii, two of the County of Oahu, one of the County of Maui, and one of the County of Kauai.

The superintendent is designated in the law as the "chief administrative officer of the department." He is also the presiding officer at the sessions of the commissioners. He has, however, no vote in their deliberations except when a tie vote occurs. The superintendent is paid an annual salary of $5,700; the commissioners receive no salary, but are allowed their expenses when they attend meetings of the board; the law provides that at least two shall be held each year.

It will be observed that the plan providing for a superintendent of schools and a board of school commissioners, each appointed directly by the governor and responsible to him only, is, in comparison with customary practice on the mainland, a unique arrangement. Furthermore, the law nowhere clearly defines the relations which shall

obtain between the superintendent and the school commissioners. It seems clear to the survey commission, therefore, that this uncertain relationship is very likely to give rise to conflicts in authority—certainly, if not to a conflict in authority, to an uncertainty as to function and jurisdiction and consequently to a hesitancy on the part of the one or the other in assuming responsibilities and in initiating necessary action.

Furthermore, it would seem to the survey commission that such an arrangement as this, particularly in respect to that provision which authorizes the governor to appoint the school superintendent, is unfortunate because of the fact that a change in governors logically leads to a change in the superintendency. Thus the office of school superintendent, inasmuch as it is a salaried office, is likely to be classed among that group of offices which politicians look upon as being at their disposal in granting political favors. The commission, therefore, feels that this provision of the law whereby the school superintendent is appointed directly by the governor, tends to throw the office of the superintendent of schools into politics, which everyone must clearly recognize to be most regrettable. The law ought to be so framed that it is possible for persons who are fully qualified for the work of superintendent to look forward to occupying the office during their period of efficiency, undisturbed by political considerations. From the standpoint, too, of the efficiency of the work of the department it has been found that frequent shifts in the office of school superintendent is bad; for it must be clear that that familiarity with the problems of a large and complicated system, such as is the Territorial system of public schools, which will give a superintendent the ability to make wise judgments in critical matters, can be acquired only through the accumulated experience of years. A stabilized head of a Territorial system of schools, then, assuming of course that he is efficient, is quite as desirable and as necessary to efficient work as is a stabilized teaching force. The survey commission is clearly of the opinion that the plan which now obtains in the Territory of Hawaii, whereby the governor appoints the superintendent of schools, does not operate to this end.

Best practice elsewhere provides that there shall be at the head of a system of schools a board of education or a board of school commissioners either appointed by the administrative officer or elected by the people. It further provides that the authority of such a board shall be undivided; that it shall select its chief executive officer, usually called the superintendent of schools; and that it shall determine policies and general practices, delegating to the superintendent and to his corps of experts the authority necessary to carry its wishes into execution. Such an arrangement removes the superintendent of schools one step from the appointive or elective authority; insures a

long tenure if the superintendent is efficient, a quick removal if he is inefficient; and forestalls the possibility of any conflict in authority such as sooner or later is sure to arise under the arrangement which now obtains in the Territory of Hawaii. The survey commission would recommend, therefore, that the laws of the Territory of Hawaii be amended so that the board of school commissioners to be appointed by the governor, as under the present plan, shall be made the sole head of the educational system and that this board shall be given the authority in law to appoint a superintendent of schools. It ought to be made clear in the law, too, that the superintendent is responsible to the school commissioners and to them alone.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE SUPERINTENDENT TO THE BOARD OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

In thus recommending that the board of school commissioners be placed by law unequivocally at the head of the Territorial department of education and that the superintendent be made by law definitely responsible to the board of school commissioners, the commission desires to make it clear that such a relationship will be an efficient one only to the degree that the school commissioners recognize that their proper functions are legislative and judicial and not executive, the latter being the specific province of the school superintendent.

The only relationship between a superintendent and a board of school commissioners which will make for efficiency, it must be emphasized, lies in drawing a clear-cut distinction between the executive functions, which properly belong to a superintendent, on the one hand, and the legislative and judicial functions, which comprise the proper field of the activity of school commissioners, on the other. This proper relationship between superintendent and a board of education, or of school commissioners, which is rapidly coming to be characteristic of progressive school systems on the mainland, is very clearly brought out in resolutions adopted by the department of superintendents of the National Education Association at its Kansas City meeting held in 1917. The following sections set forth the position taken at this meeting:

SECTION 3. The representatives of the people can not perform directly the large duties of carrying on the school system. They must employ technically trained officers to conduct the schools. To these technically trained officers they must look for proper information on which to base their decisions, and they must be prepared to intrust to those officers the powers and responsibilities which attach to the daily conduct of school work.

There is little doubt on the part of all communities that technical training is necessary for the proper conduct of schools, but the exact definition of the sphere within which technical training is needed is not yet worked out in most systems.

A series of concrete examples may, therefore, be offered as illustrating the type of duty which board members can not properly perform. No board member should teach classes. No board member should act as principal of a school. No board member should negotiate with a publisher of textbooks, nor should pass on the availability of

a given book for use in a school. No board member should examine teachers with a view to determining their qualifications for appointment. No board member should plan a school building. No board member should write the course of study. Even where individual cases may arise in which particular members of certain boards would have the ability to perform these tasks, it is better that a well-established division of labor should be recognized. It is the duty of the members of the board to see that technical officers do the work of the system, but the board should not do this work itself. It is a public board, created to see that a certain piece of public work is done, not a group of technical officers created to do the work.

The safe analogy in this case is the analogy of the board of directors in a business corporation. No one can imagine a director of a railroad stopping a train and giving the engineer and the conductor orders about their duties. It ought to be possible to organize and define the technical duties of a school system and to distinguish them from the broad duties which reside in the representatives of the people.

SEC. 6. The technical officers of the school system will be most harmonious in their activities if they are placed under the supervision of a single head or manager who is the executive head of the system. This central supervisor should have the responsibilities and the rights which will make possible a compact organization of the working force in the schools.

SEC. 7. The superintendent must be a man of superior training. He must be prepared to report plans of organization and to make a clear statement of results. He should organize the officers under him in such a way as to secure from them in detail an efficient type of organization, and he should secure from them adequate reports on which to base the statements which he presents to the board.

SEC. 8. In the performance of these functions the superintendent has a right to the initiative in technical matters. Specifically, he should have the sole right to perform the following: (*a*) Recommend all teachers, all officers of supervision, and all janitors and clerks; (*b*) work out the course of study with the cooperation of the other officers of instruction; (*c*) select textbooks with the same cooperation; (*d*) have a determining voice in matters of building and equipment; and (*e*) draw up the annual budget.

These technical recommendations should always be reviewed by the board, and the approval of the board should be a necessary step for final enactment. This will insure the careful preparation of reports and the careful study of results. The superintendent is not to be authorized to conduct the system apart from the board, but he should be insured by definite forms of organization against interference which will defeat his plans and divide his responsibility.

Public business suffers when these technical matters are improperly handled. Let us assume two cases. In the first case the superintendent may be inefficient, and the board or some other active agency may cover over his inefficiency for a time by doing his work for him. The result will be disastrous in the end. It would be better for public business to bring the inefficiency to the surface as quickly as possible and remove the officer who can not conduct the system properly. In the second case the superintendent is efficient, but is hampered by lack of definition in his functions. The school system will lack in unity of organization and in harmony of internal operation. The system will be defective in so far as it is divided against itself.

SEC. 9. In the relations of the board to all officers of the system it is essential that appointment, reappointment, dismissal, and promotion be removed from the interference of petty influences, and that all such transactions be based on records which are systematically organized and supervised.

There is no clearer indication of the condition of a school system than the attitude of the teachers and other officers to their duties and to the results which they are securing. The school system which is well organized exhibits cooperation on the part of all its officers. The interests of the public suffer beyond measure when appointments are the result of illegitimate personal influences.

2. THE TERRITORIAL BOARD OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS AND COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

The survey commission is of the opinion that the present arrangement, providing as it does for but one commissioner on Kauai, one on Maui, two on Hawaii, and two on Oahu, does not give adequate representation. Furthermore the commission is convinced that many matters of detail which are now brought before the superintendent and the Territorial board could very much more quickly and efficiently be settled if on each of the islands there were a county board of education clothed with authority to administer the educational affairs within the island subject only to policies determined by the Territorial board of school commissioners. The commission therefore recommends the appointment by the governor of a Territorial board consisting of seven persons representing each of the four principal islands as now, except that Oahu, on account of population and in order that a seventh member may be secured, shall have three representatives on the board. This Territorial board, in turn, to have the authority to appoint the superintendent and also the members of county boards of education having the following representation: Three on Kauai, three on Maui, three on West Hawaii, three on East Hawaii, and five on Oahu.

All matters pertaining to general policy should, of course, be determined by the Territorial commissioners meeting as a corporate body, but conditions vary so much among the islands in respect to details of execution that there is no good reason why uniformity among them in every item should be demanded. Moreover, the survey commission is convinced that much greater flexibility in the Territorial system than now obtains is desirable. This can be secured, to a considerable degree, through permitting each island to work out its own educational problems in its own way, having regard only to certain general policies and principles defined by the Territorial board which should apply with equal force to every section of the Territory. By having a county board on each island acting under the general direction of a Territorial board, and by delegating to each large authority in matters of detail, the commission feels that the tendency toward overcentralization of authority, apparent in the islands, can be lessened with advantage.

The intent of the foregoing recommendations is that standing at the head of the Territorial system of public schools there shall be a board of seven commissioners appointed by the governor, which shall have authority to determine all general educational policies for the Territory, to appoint and direct the Territorial superintendent of schools, to appoint the members of county boards of education, and to designate their duties, define their responsibilities, and determine all

relationships. While the commission holds that it should rest with the legislature and the Territorial board to determine the measure of authority which shall be granted county boards of education, nevertheless, the commission believes it desirable to permit each county board to appoint its own executive and his corps of assistants and supervisors; and to assign, transfer, and dismiss all teachers, all assignments and actions, however, to be subject to review by the Territorial board of commissioners and by the Territorial superintendent of schools.

With respect to the selection of the members of county boards by the Territorial board, the survey commission suggests that due regard be had to the chief population groups or districts of the islands. For example, in appointing the five members from among the citizens of Oahu, which the commission recommends shall constitute the county board of education of that island, it should be stipulated that not more than three shall be residents of Honolulu and that two shall be residents of rural communities so distributed that the island shall be fairly and equitably represented.

The commission is also convinced that if the governor, in appointing the Territorial board of school commissioners, is careful to select only high-minded, nonpartisan, progressive men and women, persons who have the educational welfare of the children at heart, and if their terms of office are so arranged that a minority only is to be appointed at a given time, the selection of a superintendent of schools, his retention or dismissal, may well be left to such a board.

In this important matter of the selection of a superintendent, when for any reason a vacancy occurs, increasingly boards of education of progressive communities on the mainland are asking for the advice of representative laymen whose integrity and sincerity are unquestioned. Thus, for example, a vacancy in the superintendency of the schools of Oakland, Calif., arose. The board of education of that city appointed a committee comprising the president of the University of California, the president of Stanford University, the president of Mills College, and four representative local citizens consisting of the pastor of a prominent church, a prominent attorney, a representative of a labor organization, and a business man to canvass the field of available persons and to recommend three for the consideration of the board. From this list the board made its selection.

Such a method of procedure lifts the selection of a superintendent out of the turmoil of personal or professional politics and insures to the board and to the incoming superintendent the sympathetic support of the best elements of the community. It is a method of selection which deserves commendation and widespread adoption. The commission recommends that when a vacancy in the office of Terri-

torial superintendent occurs the appointive office, whether it be that of the governor or that of the Territorial board, shall adopt some such method in filling the place.

3. THE SUPERVISORS AND THE TERRITORIAL BOARD OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.

Another feature of the school law of the Territory of Hawaii which is unique and which the survey commission feels is unfortunate, is that by which authority in respect to school matters is divided between the school commissioners on the one hand and the county board of supervisors on the other. Each of the four principal islands constitutes a county. The board of supervisors in each of these counties is elected by the voters of the county. Section 18 of the school law provides that "it (the county board of supervisors) shall maintain and regulate schoolhouses other than the normal school, Lahainaluna School, and the Boys' and Girls' Industrial Schools." The board of supervisors also, under the law, appoints school janitors, wherever provision has been made for employing janitors. Under this arrangement all funds set aside by Territorial authorities for the erection of new school buildings, for equipment, repairs, and general upkeep and maintenance—the so-called "special fund"—are handled by the county board of supervisors. It must be obvious that this arrangement inevitably leads to delays and misunderstandings. Throughout the Territory there is much complaint that the plan is cumbersome and troublesome. The survey commission recommends that the Territorial laws be so changed as to transfer all such authority from the county board of supervisors to the county board of education of the respective islands, thereby securing unity of action; definiteness of responsibility, and promptness in execution.

4. THE SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS AND THE SHERIFF'S OFFICE.

Not alone has authority which can best be assumed by local boards of education, as heretofore recommended, been placed with the county supervisors, but another important department of school activity, that having to do with the enforcement of the compulsory school provisions, under Territorial law, has been shunted away from the commissioners over to the sheriff's office. The provision governing this matter reads as follows:

> It shall be the duty of each deputy sheriff, or such police officers as he shall designate, to visit not less than once each week each public and private school within the district of which he is deputy sheriff, to ascertain from the teacher or officer or agent in charge thereof what children, if any, of school age persist in absenting themselves from such school.
>
> It shall further be the duty of such deputy sheriffs and police officers to require all children of school age, in accordance with the provisions of section 287, to attend school, whether or not complaint is made by any teacher or other officer or agent of said department of public instruction.

While in a number of instances the task of looking after attendance has been assigned by sheriffs to men who are competent in an untrained way, yet, in instances, the work is much hampered because responsibility has been delegated to some broken-down politician or expoliceman who takes but a perfunctory interest in his duties. The field of duties falling properly within the scope of a department of attendance is so large and so important that the commission has no hesitation in recommending that this work be taken over entirely by the school authorities and that two or three attendance officers (women are making excellent records in this field), preferably those who have had experience in social service work and who command the confidence and respect of their communities, be appointed for each county, the same to be responsible to the local board of education and the school authorities of the county.

THE WORK OF ATTENDANCE OFFICERS.

Such attendance officers should be employed on full time for a 12-months' year, for there is much during the vacation months which they can profitably do in visiting the plantations and other places where children are employed, in following up the arrival and departure of resident families, in persuading individuals who think they must drop out of school to remain, in helping worthy and needy students to find work, and in laying the basis for efficient work when the school term opens. It is customary in many places to make the attendance officers deputies of the police force, investing them with authority for making arrests, though this authority should be used sparingly and only as a last resort. They should also be provided with motorcycles or other means for quickly covering all parts of their districts and of adjacent country.

For the use of attendance officers the essential information contained in school census sheets and school record books relating to the children of compulsory age should be transferred to filing cards and be grouped by attendance districts. During the first week of each term the attendance officers should check their census cards with the school enrollment and investigate every case of nonenrollment. To such officers should be referred for investigation all cases of prolonged and unexplained absence. Such officers, too, can render valuable service to the department by investigating the home conditions of children who are failing to progress in their work or who may be suspected of living in insanitary, impoverished, or immoral surroundings. The corps of workers, furthermore, could accomplish much in establishing a contact between the welfare agencies on the plantations and the public school.

To them, also, should be entrusted the supervision of the taking of an annual school census, for their familiarity with their districts and their acquaintanceship with individual families resident therein will go far toward making the census complete. By establishing relationships with social service workers, with the judges who try cases of juvenile delinquency, with public officials, with the board of health, and with employers of labor, a group of competent, farsighted and thoroughly unselfish attendance officers can develop fields of usefulness to the school department and to the community at large, and for themselves, second to none.

The commissioners or boards of education, it should be added, should pay salaries large enough to induce the right persons, men or women, to take hold of this work and to remain in it for a period of years, for obviously in work of this character favorable acquaintanceship in the community is an important asset, and acquaintanceship is a matter of time.

VALUE OF AN ANNUAL SCHOOL CENSUS.

A school census of all children of school age, taken during the same month each year, is indispensable to the enforcement of an attendance law; furthermore, through it valuable information can be secured which when analyzed will provide the school authorities with a dependable basis for conclusions regarding many problems relating to the administration of the system. A permanent record card should be made for every person in each district, which should contain besides other social data the name, address, sex, age, nativity; whether attending public, private, or parochial school; class in such school; the reason for not attending school; if employed, where and how; and a brief statement of the school history of every child. These can be grouped by families for convenience. All record cards should be made in duplicate, one copy to be retained by the attendance officer and the other to be kept on file with the principal of the school attended by the children. If these cards are kept up to date, as they should be, the whereabouts of every child of school age can be learned at any time and the essential facts about each secured at a moment's notice.

Such a permanent record, always in the making, checked up each year by a census taken by a house-to-house canvass, will be of inestimable value in enforcing Territorial laws governing compulsory attendance, the employment of children, and the granting of work permits. A tabulation of such records each year by blocks, districts, or sections will give valuable information regarding the growth of a given community, the direction the growth is taking, and the changing and shifting character of the population—information which is essen-

tial if school authorities are to plan wisely far enough in advance to provide the necessary accommodations by the time they are needed. The failure systematically to secure information of this character is partially responsible for the deplorably crowded conditions to be found in very many of the public schools of the Territory.

5. THE SCHOOL BUDGET.

Prior to December 15 of each biennial period immediately preceding the convening of the Territorial legislature, the committee of estimates prepares the school budget for submission to the legislature. The appropriations made by the legislature in response thereto, however, are not available until May, a year later, when the taxes are collected: even then only one-fourth of the budget aggregate is provided. Not until two years after the estimates are made and adopted is the entire amount in hand. In consequence the educational department would always be two years behind in its program of expenditures were it not for the fact that frequently needed moneys are advanced to the school department from the general fund of the Territory or from county funds. Sometimes, however, the funds have been depleted because of other demands, and serious embarrassment follows particularly in connection with building programs and plans for relieving crowded schools.

To meet this serious situation, the survey commission recommends that the Territory establish a reserve fund from which such amounts may be borrowed as needed, the same to be returned to the reserve fund as taxes are collected. In this manner serious delays in providing housing facilities to meet increases in school attendance may be overcome and the department saved much embarrassment.

6. THE HIGH SCHOOLS SHOULD BE BROUGHT CLOSER TO THE PEOPLE.

As now organized, there are just four high schools in the Territory of Hawaii—one on each of the principal islands—at Hilo on the island of Hawaii, at Hamakuapoko on the island of Maui, at Honolulu on the island of Oahu, and at Lihue on the island of Kauai. The location of these schools in all cases is such that it is impossible, except in comparatively few cases, for parents to give their children the educational advantages of a high school unless arrangements are made for boarding their children at these centers. For example, the high school at Hilo is situated on a belt road encircling the island more than 300 miles in extent. At intervals along this road plantation settlements have been formed and in each of these settlements there is a public school ranging from two or three teachers in the smaller schools to schools in the larger settlements comprising as many as 18 or 20 teachers. Obviously, it is impossible for the great majority

of parents, most of whom are poor people, to send their children to the Hilo High School. In consequence, on the island of Hawaii with 9,569 children enrolled in its public schools, there are only 292 in the high school. While distances are not so great on the other islands, nevertheless the situation in each is essentially the same as on the island of Hawaii in respect to this matter of high school attendance. Maui, for example, has a school attendance of 5,310 with an enrollment in the high school of only 73. On Kauai the attendance in the public schools is 4,721 and in the high school situated at Lihue the enrollment is 58. On the island of Oahu, out of a total enrollment in the public schools of 16,235, only 771 are in the high school at Honolulu.

The survey commission would recommend as a practical means for making high school education accessible to every child in the Territory who has the ambition and the will to avail himself of the opportunity, the following plan: At certain of the larger settlements on each of the islands there should be established a junior high school, comprising the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of a group of schools so situated geographically that the children of these upper grades could easily and without great expense be transported to such school. On each of the islands it is probable that there are at least six, and in some of the larger islands more than six, of the larger settlements so situated. Furthermore, the survey commission would suggest that after this junior high school organization has been effected and put into operation and as the children come on through these grades in increasingly large numbers, as will certainly obtain if transportation at the expense of the Territory be provided, then, that provision be made at certain of these centers, properly situated with respect to the island as a whole, for the addition of the three remaining grades of a complete high school course, namely, the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years. It will be of interest in this connection to see how such a plan would work out in detail on one of the islands, taking as an illustration the island of Kauai.

A JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FOR THE ISLAND OF KAUAI.

The schools of Haena, Hanalei, Kilauea, and Koolau would form a natural group for junior high-school purposes with the Kilauea school as a center. There are now 76 pupils enrolled in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades who, a year later, would compromise the nucleus of a junior high-school organization. The schools of Anahola, Kapahi, and Kapaa, whose natural center is Kapaa, would start with about 145 pupils in these three grades. Centering at Lihue there would be approximately 140 pupils, coming from the schools of Wailua, Hanamaulu, Lihue, and Huleia. Another natural center for

a junior high school, receiving children from Omao, Kalaheo, and Koloa, would be at Koloa, where a nucleus of 120 could be secured. At Eleele or Makaweli 143 children in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, comprising children from the two places, could doubtless be secured. Waimea would naturally be a sixth center for a junior high school, receiving children from the Waimea school and from Kekaha and Mana, altogether comprising about 130 pupils.

If such an arrangement of junior high schools be effected, then at two of the junior high-school centers the work should be extended upwards providing for a full high-school course. When this is done, it must be obvious, Lihue would not be the logical site for a full high-school course; rather the island, for this purpose, would naturally comprise two large divisions, one whose center might properly be at Kapaa, and one whose natural center would be at Makaweli or at Eleele, the choice depending upon available sites.

By this arrangement, which provides for six junior high schools and two senior high schools for Kauai, doubtless the practice which now prevails whereby a number of parents send their sons and daughters to Honolulu for high-school work would be discontinued, for they would find it much more convenient and cheaper to keep their children at home and send them to local schools. Under this arrangement, it is confidently believed, instead of a high-school enrollment in Kauai of only 58, there would soon be found many times this number entering upon a high-school course.

THE LOCATION OF THE MAUI HIGH SCHOOL.

After a careful consideration of conditions on the Island of Maui, the commission is convinced that a high school should be established at Lahaina and that the site of the present high school at Hamakuapoko should be changed to a point more central to its natural attendance district, which embraces roughly the area marked by Wailuku on the west and Haiku on the east. The present location at Hamakuapoko is altogether too far to the east side of the attendance district; forcing thereby pupils coming from Wailuku and vicinity to go much farther than would be necessary were the school more centrally situated. While the commission recognizes the difficulties that exist in securing a site at a more central point, nevertheless it feels that if such a site is not secured before the building authorized by the legislature is erected that the attendance district will have at a later time to be divided and a high school established at Wailuku. In such event there would exist two small high schools in a district whose needs could well be supplied by one large and strong school.

At present a tuition fee is charged all those who attend the Maui High School. The purpose of charging such a fee is thereby to exclude children of plantation laborers who, it was thought, could not or would not pay the tuition. This practice, the commission must point out, is discriminatory and unjustifiable and should be abandoned. A public high school must be kept open to the poorest and humblest boy or girl of the territory, and his way made as easy as possible if the school is to accomplish the work which it is organized expressly to do. Charging a tuition fee in order that the school may be retained largely for the children of the more prosperous people is a plan which will defeat the very purpose for which our public schools are established.

Two complete high schools then on Maui, one at Lahaina and one somewhere in the vicinity of Paia, with a system of junior high schools conveniently situated with respect to groups of contributory elementary schools, together with a system of transporting pupils who live too far away from these schools to walk, will provide the opportunity needed for high-school education on Maui it is confidently believed.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS ON HAWAII AND OAHU.

On the island of Hawaii it would seem that proper locations for the assembling of the children of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades would be Honokaa, Kohala, Kealakekua, and possibly at Waiohinu also. As attendance at these centers grows, additional grades could be added until a full high school were provided at some or all of these places.

Similarly, on the Island of Oahu, natural centers at which to establish the junior high schools are: Waialua, Waipahu, aside from Honolulu.

THE BENEFITS OF A JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

The junior high-school organization, as generally established, provides for the bringing together of the pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of conveniently situated schools at a point central to all. By congregating pupils of such grades in considerable numbers, as would be the case where all such grades from a number of schools are taken, the opportunity is provided, within reasonable limits of economy, of differentiating somewhat the work of pupils so that it is not necessary for all to take exactly the same course, for it enables them to select that work which is more nearly suited to their own aptitudes and individual needs. Furthermore, by means of such an arrangement, teachers can be secured with more highly specialized training than ordinarily obtains and, therefore, lines of work can be

offered in a junior high school which would be out of the question in a typical grammar-school organization. In addition, departmental work, as well as high-school studies, can be introduced to much greater profit than obtains when these young people are held to the usual subjects offered in the seventh and eighth grades of our school system taught in the usual way.

Experience in the States, where the junior high school form of organization is very rapidly becoming the typical school organization, is showing that by means of this form of organization pupils become interested in high-school subjects and are induced thereby to remain in school not only during the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades but, in increasing proportions, they enter the last three years of the senior high school course. By means of this organization, a very much larger percentage of the school enrollment is to be found in the high schools than under the former plan of organization. In short, 10 years of mainland experience with the junior high-school plan discloses the fact that by means of this arrangement a very desirable increase in the flexibility of the public-school system is secured. Moreover, by withdrawing the seventh and eighth grades from the grade schools, additional seating capacity, greatly needed to lessen crowded conditions, would be secured and overburdened teachers relieved.

Furthermore, the Territory should adopt some such plan as the foregoing for making a rich high-school education available to large numbers of island young people for the reason that, as is pointed out in other connections, the normal school should no longer be permitted to receive pupils with less than high-school training. Children with only an eighth-grade education can not be properly prepared in four years to become teachers. They need more of an informational content and more of an insight into the principles of teaching than can possibly be given in four years. Moreover, within a four-year period they are still too immature in development and judgment to be sent out into the schools of the Territory. In consequence, to meet the serious need for adequately trained teachers large numbers of young men and women should be coming on through the Territorial high schools. It is believed the foregoing plan for crowding the high school back closer to the people of each of the islands will operate to this end.

TRANSPORTING PUPILS AT PUBLIC EXPENSE.

This plan of congregating pupils at convenient centers is comparatively easy of execution in the islands for the reason that most of the schools on each of the islands are connected by good automobile roads making the matter of transporting pupils who live at distances a fairly easy and inexpensive one. In this connection, it

should be said that progressive rural communities in the States are fully committed to the practice of providing at community expense transportation for all children who live at considerable distances from their respective schools. This is particularly feasible in the Territory of Hawaii which has been most progressive and farsighted in installing a system of good roads on each of the islands. The survey commission, therefore, recommends that the junior and senior high-school form of organization be incorporated as rapidly as possible and that transportation be provided for all children who do not live within walking distances of these schools.

The commission is gratified to learn that a beginning has been made in the Territory, in West Hawaii, in transporting pupils to school, at public expense. Numbers of children in the islands are walking 6 miles to school. To expect little children to walk 12 miles each day, 6 miles each way, is asking too much of them. That so many are willing to do it uncomplainingly speaks well for their eagerness and the eagerness of their parents for the training which the schools are giving. The Territory ought to see to it that such insistent desire for an education is gratified.

SUPERVISION OF TERRITORIAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

If the foregoing suggestions regarding the establishment of junior and senior high schools in the Territory be adopted, then the commission would recommend that needed supervision of such schools to secure coordination of work and an increasing adaptation of courses and of teaching practice be vested in the department of education of the University of Hawaii. A person who has an intimate acquaintance with high-school problems and with high-school teaching and administration should be added to the university faculty. During one-half of each school year he should be permitted to spend his entire time in visiting the high schools of the Territory and in helping the principals and teachers of these schools in their work; during the other half year he should be required to give courses at the university in matters pertaining to the general field of high-school work.

7. THE SUPERVISION OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

In the relationship existing between the Territorial department of public instruction and the private schools (foreign language schools are not in the private school group), the Territory is unique. The sections of the law defining the relationship of the private schools to the department of education are as follows:

Any person desiring to establish a private school within the Territory of Hawaii shall, prior to the establishment thereof, make application in writing to the department of public instruction of the Territory, which application shall be signed by the

applicant or applicants and shall state in substance (1) the name or names of the persons desiring to establish such schools; (2) the proposed location thereof; and (3) the course of instruction and the languages in which such instruction is to be given.

Upon the receipt and approval of the application, the department of public instruction shall issue to the person or persons applying therefor a permit, in form to be by it approved, authorizing the establishment of such school; and no private school, shall be established within the Territory except in conformity with this chapter.

All persons conducting schools within the Territory other than public schools shall on or before the 1st day of October, 1917, file with the department of public instruction a statement in writing signed by the person or persons conducting such school, showing (1) the name or names of the persons in charge thereof; (2) the location; (3) the course of instruction and the languages in which such instruction is given.

Upon the receipt of such statement and approval by the department of public instruction of the course of study and instruction given, the department of public instruction shall issue to the person or persons in charge of said school a certificate, in form to be by said department of public instruction prescribed, recognizing such school as a private school within the meaning of this chapter.

Attendance at any school established or maintained without complying with the terms of this section shall not be considered attendance at a public or private school within the meaning of this chapter.

The department may, from time to time, require regularly established private schools to submit reports in such form as it may deem proper. Failure to comply with the provision of this act shall constitute an offense punishable, upon conviction by a fine not exceeding $10 for each offense.

Every private school shall be subject to the supervision of the department. It shall be the duty of the department to require that teachers of private schools be persons of good moral character; and that the premises of such schools comply with the rules and regulations of the department as from time to time promulgated with regard to sanitary conditions and hygiene.

The English language shall be the medium and basis of instruction in all public and private schools within the Territory, and any school where English is not the medium and basis of instruction shall not be recognized as a public or private school within the provisions of this chapter, and attendance thereat shall not be considered attendance at school in compliance with law: *Provided, however*, That the Hawaiian language shall be taught in addition to the English in all normal and high schools of the Territory; and that, where it is desired that another language shall be taught in addition to the English language, such instruction may be authorized by the department by direct order in any particular instance: *Provided, however*, That instruction in such courses shall be elective.

While the law, as transcribed above, clearly contemplates that the supervision of private schools by the Territorial department of education shall be substantial and effective, nevertheless the commission must point out that at present such supervision does not exist in fact. This is doubtless partly because the department of public instruction is completely understaffed; so much so, indeed, that, as is pointed out in other parts of the report, the public schools themselves are not properly supervised. It therefore seems impossible, with a corps of workers no larger than the Territory has so far provided, to undertake the supervision of the private schools in the manner intended by the law.

The commission feels that it is desirable for private schools to come under the supervision of the authorities of the public school system in certain important particulars. Nevertheless, the commission desires to point out that such supervision should in no respect curtail any reasonable desire on the part of the founders or managers of private schools to initiate intelligent departures in educational practice. Of necessity, the public school, in that it is conserving the interests of large masses of pupils, must be conservative. It can ill afford to experiment in the field of educational theory or practice. Reforms in the work of the public school, therefore, to a very large degree, must be initiated only after their soundness has been demonstrated outside the State-supported system. It would be most unfortunate, therefore, if there were ever brought about a supervision by State authorities so detailed and rigid as to preclude privately maintained schools from making wide variations in their work.

On the other hand, it is the business of the State to safeguard the interests of every child within its borders and to see to it that he has an opportunity equal to the opportunity offered any other child to secure an education and to carry it as far as his ability, desire, and ambition will permit. Moreover, the State must see to it that the school conditions of every child are healthful and that teachers are provided who have the requisite training, whose moral principles are sound, and who have an unquestioned loyalty to the traditions and principles on which our Government is founded.

The commission, therefore, feels that the Territory has done well to place such a law on its statute books and suggests the great desirability of so increasing the staff of its supervisorial force that the purpose of the law can be carried into effect.

8. THE TERRITORIAL DEPARTMENT HAS MADE A BEGINNING IN ORGANIZING THE KINDERGARTEN.

Though the kindergarten is the youngest member of our educational family, its active growth in this country falling well within the last half century, yet it has won its way to an established place in our school system, as a glance at the record of the growth of the movement will show. The first kindergarten on the mainland to be organized in connection with the public school system was established in Boston in 1870, but was discontinued after a few years. For 20 years the movement grew very slowly, so slowly, in fact, that by 1890 it had secured legal recognition in but a half dozen States and formal adoption in no more than five or six of the larger cities and in but 25 or 30 of the smaller. Now, however, nearly every State in the Union has permissive kindergarten legislation and, as shown by the 1915–16 statistics of the United States Bureau of Education, 1,228 cities report a total of 8,463 kindergartens, with an aggregate enrollment of 434,022 children and employing nearly 9,000 teachers.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

Froebel, the founder of the kindergarten, conceived the true educational process to be one which is rooted and grounded in the child's own spontaneous self-activity: for, he held, the impulses which cause humanity to aspire to progress are instinctive and will be expressed spontaneously in childhood through play if opportunity be afforded. He believed, therefore, that the play impulse, so characteristic of young children, should be looked upon as the chief agency in education. So he insisted that children be permitted to play with the same freedom that they would exercise if at home, and yet, withal, that this play be conducted under the eye of a teacher who should be wise enough to organize and interpret these expressions of the child's instincts and give them significance without inhibiting the exercise of his spontaneity.

The various play activities of childhood, Froebel held, fell naturally into two groups: That in which the qualities of a social character, such as cooperation, subordinating individual desire to the group will, and the ability to give and take, are developed; and that in which the child gains certain necessary sense impressions and perceptions. To the first of these belong group games, such as games of skill and dramatic games, in which children impersonate such social workers as the farmer, the carpenter, and the housewife. Activities belonging to this group require no material equipment. To the second belong the activities centering about the playthings or "gifts" which he proposed to place in the child's hands at successive intervals, and the various manual "occupations" which were designed by him to keep pace with the child's growth and interest. By means of the "gifts," arranged in series, and the activities associated therewith, the child is to be made conscious of the simple but fundamental ideas of color, of form, of number, of dimension, of weight, of sound, and of direction and position. Through the "occupations" which he outlined opportunity is provided, he holds, for an exercise of the powers of perceiving, observing, thinking; and for the gaining of certain artistic appreciations through constructing things having harmonious and pleasant forms.

The kindergarten practice in the United States has received an extremely searching examination and appraisal, for it has been forced to square its principles and methods by criteria which have come into our present-day thought as a result of investigations in the fields of physiological psychology and of child-study and through the contributions made to the discussion by the Herbartians. These criteria have profoundly modified kindergarten theory and practice as set forth by Froebel and interpreted by his followers, but the Froebelian conceptions that education is a process of development rather than

one of instruction; that play is the natural means of development during the first years; that the child's creative activity must be the chief factor in his education; and that his present interests and needs, rather than the demands of the future, should determine the material and method of instruction, are all conceptions which are sanctioned by the conclusions reached in the fields of modern educational investigation and research. In consequence of this critical examination, kindergarten practice has been profoundly modified, but the fundamental things for which Froebel stood, and upon which kindergarten activities are based, are more generally indorsed than ever before, and it can confidently be said that the kindergarten is now so thoroughly established in public confidence and so strongly grounded in accepted theory that its place in our school system will never again be seriously endangered.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE KINDERGARTEN ON PRIMARY EDUCATION.

In turn, the kindergarten idea is having a reciprocal influence of far-reaching character on the aims and methods of elementary education, especially of the primary grades. Beautifying the schoolroom with pictures and plants; the introduction of movable desks and chairs in the lower grades; the substitution of songs and games and dramatic plays for the formal drills and the rigid, repressive discipline; the appeal to the child's fancy through story-telling; the sympathetic attention to the child's physical needs; the use of out-of-door excursions and work with garden plats; the employment of many forms of handwork in the schoolroom; and the growing practice of having the long vacation come during the inclement winter months instead of during the summer, an arrangement especially suited to little children, are some of the results of the recognition in the grades of the validity of the principle underlying kindergarten activities, that education comes by way of the child's own self-activity.

EFFECT OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING ON PROMOTION.

While the kindergarten is primarily concerned with the content of education and its spirit and with the fullness of the life of the child, matters which do not lend themselves to statistical evaluation, nevertheless studies have been made which tend to show that the child who has had kindergarten training is likely to make more rapid progress through the grades than those who have had no such training. A study made in Kenosha, Wis., for example, based on the records of 925 children who had had kindergarten instruction, and 738 children who had entered school without such training, while not conclusive, suggests that the first group had fewer who were retarded in their later school work. Supt. Harvey, of Pawtucket, R. I., found in his

schools that 60 per cent of the children entering school under the age of 5 years and 3 months, without kindergarten training, failed of promotion, against 35 per cent of those who had had kindergarten training. Of those entering, whose ages fell between 5 years 3 months and 6 years, 39 per cent failed who had had no kindergarten training, against 16 per cent of those who had been through the kindergarten. And of the children 6 years and over, the failures in the two groups stood at 21 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively.

A more recent study of the effect of the kindergarten in lessening the number of repeaters is that by a committee, appointed in 1915, of the superintendents and school boards branch of the Michigan State Teachers' Association, reported by Berry. The report shows that this question of the influence of the kindergarten was studied in the records of one group of schools in the lower peninsula region of Michigan which consisted of 94 towns and cities; 19 of which were without the kindergarten and 75 having this form of organization.

The facts regarding repetition, as disclosed by this report, are as follows:

Influence of the Kindergarten on repetition in Michigan.

	Number of cities and towns.	Percentage of repeaters in all grades.			Percentage of repeaters in the first grade only.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Both.	Boys.	Girls.	Both.
No kindergarten	19	13.8	10.2	10.2	27.4	15.6	27.7
With kindergarten	75	11.0	7.8	7.8	15.2	10.4	12.8

The table shows that in the 19 towns without a kindergarten the percentage of repeaters, all grades considered, is 28.7 per cent greater than in the 75 towns having kindergartens; while in the first grade, taken by itself, the percentage of repeaters in the towns having no kindergartens exceeds the towns having the kindergartens by 69.5 per cent.

The foregoing studies are significant, for they indicate that the kindergarten is an important factor in reducing repetition in succeeding grades, and especially in the first grades. It exercises this influence, doubtless, both directly and indirectly; directly, in the sense that such training tends to fit a child for quickly "finding himself" in the usual work of the school; and then, indirectly, by keeping children out of the first grade until they are more mature. Considerable pressure is brought to bear upon school officials in many places where no kindergarten has been established to admit children to the first grade before they have reached the age of 6. A percentage of repetition, therefore, in the first grade in such schools is due to the immaturity of such children. A study of this factor, in causing

repetition, has never been made, it is believed. However, in the Michigan study, just referred to, it was found, for example, that in the 19 towns, having no kindergarten, 33 per cent of the enrollment of the first grade were not older than 5 years when they entered school, whereas among the 75 cities having the kindergarten, this percentage was reduced to 7.8 per cent.

Another study of significance, but along a different line, was made by the superintendent of the Boston schools in 1913. He asked 49 kindergarten teachers to do advanced kindergarten work with the children of 60 classes in the primary grades for two afternoons a week, continuing for a year. Great freedom was permitted in the choice of activities and in the arrangement of the program. Advanced "gifts" and handwork were used in most of the classes, the former for free construction and for number work, the latter for hand training and for free expression of experiences. Games were played, stories were told, and many excursions were taken to the woods, parks, farms, and beaches, providing rich materials for conversation and for expression through handwork. At the close of the year 60 primary grade teachers, who were the regular teachers of the classes, were asked for reports and frank comments on the experiment. All but one reported favorably, while many spoke of the results in terms of enthusiasm.

Recently one of the members of the survey commission, visiting the public plantation school at Hamakuapoko, Maui, observed that the children of the class of beginners, made up almost entirely of orientals, were unusually responsive to the questions of their teacher, and replying in language of a much better quality than most beginning children on the plantations can command. Upon inquiry it was learned that the entire class had had training in a near-by kindergarten maintained privately by one of the plantation owners.

THE SITUATION IN HAWAII.

Largely in response to the excellent work done by the Free Kindergarten and Children's Aid Association of Hawaii, referred to in Chapter I, the Territorial Legislature at its last session authorized the department of education to organize one kindergarten on each of the four principal islands. While this program has not yet been fully executed, as insufficient funds were provided, nevertheless it is the first step in a plan which the commission sincerely hopes will lead, within a very short time, to the organization of a kindergarten in every school in the Territory. The commission is convinced, after a careful study of the conditions which obtain in the islands, that no more important single step in Americanizing the children of the foreign born can be taken than in the establishment of a kindergarten or kindergartens in every settlement in the Territory. In

order to make such a project a success it will be necessary for the department to secure an efficient head to this work and to establish training courses under competent directors for the training of teachers for kindergarten work. In this connection the commission would recommend that the training of teachers for the kindergarten be made a part of the work of the educational department of the university, which the commission has recommended in another part of this chapter.

9. THE SUPERVISION OF THE DEPARTMENT.

Under the present organization, the educational department of the Territory is clearly lacking in teacher supervision. The principals of the schools throughout the Territory teach full time and in consequence are unable to give any systematic attention to the classroom supervision of their teachers. There are seven supervising principals in the islands—three on Hawaii; one, with an assistant, on Maui; two on Oahu; and one on Kauai. The territory which each is obliged to cover is very large. The population for the most part is scattering and consequently the schools in many instances are miles apart, which requires that the supervising principals shall spend much of their time in the sheer act of reaching the schools. In consequence, the corps of supervising principals is unable to do much more than to attend to the various administrative matters within their respective districts which are insistent and which can not be neglected. It is obviously impossible for them to give more than a cursory attention to the intimate detail of classroom problems, problems of class management and instruction, which confront each of the teachers. This is especially unfortunate in the schools of the Territory because of the fact that the teaching force is relatively more unstable than in mainland communities. Teachers in the Territory are shifting from school to school with great frequency. Furthermore, the department must rely upon mainland sources for a considerable percentage of its teaching force. These teachers arrive in the Territory knowing nothing about local conditions or about the problems arising in connection with the various nationalities represented in the school enrollment and to which mainland teachers are unaccustomed.

The course of study, likewise, is very different from that to which they have been accustomed, and in consequence it takes a considerable time for the new teachers to make their adjustments. During this process, the children naturally are placed at a disadvantage in their schoolroom work. A great deal could be accomplished in bridging over this transition period if the department were so organized that a closer supervision by men and women thoroughly familiar with island conditions and with classroom difficulties could be provided. It is obvious that a single supervising principal on Maui or

Kauai, or two on the Island of Oahu, or even three on the Island of Hawaii, must find it impossible to give each teacher under their jurisdiction the close personal attention which progressive communities on the mainland are finding necessary even under the relatively more favorable conditions which there obtain. The survey commission, therefore, recommends that steps be taken to secure this type of supervision now so much needed in the Territory. Furthermore, it believes that much can be accomplished in securing supervision of the character indicated by effecting an organization along the lines of the plan known as the "group principal plan of school supervision."

THE GROUP PRINCIPAL PLAN OF SUPERVISION.

According to this plan of organization the schools of a given island, for purposes of supervision, can be grouped so that it would be possible for a principal of the group, freed from classroom teaching, to devote his or her entire time to helping the individual teachers of the group in their work. Thus, by way of illustration, the elementary schools on the Island of Maui, for purposes of such group supervision, could be combined naturally into some seven groups, as follows:

Group I, with 28 teachers and an enrollment of 970 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 10 miles from a common center: Kamehameha III, Olowalu, Puukolii, Honokowai, Honokohua, Lanai.

Group II, with 22 teachers and an enrollment of 745 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 1[illegible] miles from the center: Wailuku, Waihee, Kahakuloa, Waikapu, Kihei.

Group III, with 30 teachers and an enrollment of 1,030 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 8 miles from the center: Puunene, Kahului, Spreckelsville, Keahua.

Group IV, with 29 teachers and an enrollment of 1,030 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 12 miles from the center: Paia, Hamakuapoko, Haiku, Kuiaha.

Group V, with 40 teachers and an enrollment of 785 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 20 miles from the center: Makawao, Kaupakalua, Halehaku, Huelo, Keahou, Keokea, Ulupalakua, Makena.

Group VI, with 16 teachers and an enrollment of 540 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 20 miles from the center: Hana, Kaeleku, Nahiku, Keanae, Haou, Kipahulu, Kaupo.

Group VII, with 9 teachers and an enrollment of 270 pupils, comprising the following schools, none of which is more than 25 miles from the center: Kaluaaha, Waialua, Halawa, Kamalo, Kaunakakai, Kalae.

By placing in charge of each of these groups a group principal, who by experience, training, and temperamental aptitude is qualified to give to individual teachers that inspirational and helpful supervision which they need, a great advance in the efficiency of the classroom work now prevailing throughout the islands would be secured, for it must frankly be pointed out by the commission that at present there is a great deal of exceedingly aimless, pointless, and inefficient teaching being done in the schools on all of the islands. Under tactful and intelligent guidance of the kind which the commission has suggested, many of the teachers who are now unwittingly doing such poor work would develop into strong and efficient teachers. In carrying such a plan as this into execution, however, the commission suggests that its success depends upon a fortunate selection of group principals. In view of the responsibilities devolving upon such a principal, the commission suggests that the group principal plan be put into effect only as the superintendent of public instruction and the commissioners of education are convinced beyond doubt that there are available suitable persons for this office.

Such a plan of organization for purposes of supervision, it should be pointed out, would not necessarily eliminate the present corps of supervising principals, for, in the event that the survey commission's plan for creating county boards of education and vesting them with large powers in local matters be adopted, then naturally the supervising principal or principals on each of the islands would stand in relation to the county board of education as would a county superintendent of schools on the mainland.

Under this plan of group principal supervision, the commission wishes to point out, sufficient clerks should be provided so that the time of the principals will not be occupied with statistical and business matters, for the work of greatest importance which these persons can do is in dealing with the problems of the classroom confronting the individual teacher. Attention should not be diverted from this important work to routine matters having to do with statistics, reports, attendance, and the thousand and one details of an administrative character which can be handled by a competent clerk as well as by a relatively high-salaried principal. One competent clerk assigned to each group of schools presided over by a group principal, the commission suggests, would be adequate to take care of such details.

SPECIALISTS IN TEACHING METHODS NEEDED ON EACH OF THE ISLANDS.

If the junior high school form of organization, recommended in another part of this report, be adopted and if also the group principal plan of supervision be likewise put into operation, the result

so far as school organization is concerned, would be a large group of elementary schools none of which would contain grades beyond the sixth grade; a second group of junior high schools comprising the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades; and a third group of schools, still fewer in number, having the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, or comprising with the junior high schools the six grades of the public school secondary course. Inasmuch as it will be difficult to secure group principals who themselves in all cases are familiar with the best methods of schoolroom practice, it would be desirable in addition that on each of the islands there be placed one expert in primary grade methods and one in the methods of the more advanced grades of the elementary school. These two experts in classroom work should spend their time in working with the group principals and with the teachers to the end that classroom work may be properly coordinated and also to the end that there shall be provided a means whereby teachers, many of whom are poorly trained or who are unfamiliar with local conditions, can rapidly improve in the quality and character of their teaching work. By such an organization as the foregoing on each of the islands the commission is convinced that the Territory would place itself in a position where, within a very few years, the quality of instruction offered in the schools would be equal to that to be found now in the best schools of the mainland and at the same time would be shaped up to meet the peculiar conditions and needs of the children of the various racial groups comprising the population of the islands.

10. THE WORK OF THE TERRITORIAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

Under the laws of the Territory of Hawaii, the Territorial normal school is under the immediate direction and control of the superintendent of public instruction and the commissioners of education. It has a faculty of 32 teachers and an enrollment of 422 pupils. In addition, there is a training school connected with the normal school comprising the 8 grades of the public school course and enrolling 518 pupils. This training school is in charge of a corps of 18 teachers, all working under the direction and supervision of the principal of the normal school. During the 25 years of its existence the normal school has graduated 682 teachers, of which number there are now 438 teaching in the public schools of the Territory.

Various courses of study have been attempted, those at present represented being as follows:

1. A four years' course beyond the elementary school, which leads to a normal school diploma, equivalent to the highest form of certification for elementary grades.
2. A one-year course for graduates of high schools, which leads to a normal school diploma of equivalent value to the above.

3. A four-years' course beyond the elementary school without algebra and geometry and apparently for those unusually handicapped in the mastery of correct English. This leads to a normal certificate equivalent to primary grade certification.

4. A one-year course for high school graduates, without algebra and geometry, leading to the same normal certificate. A course primarily for weaker high school students.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The location of the normal school, situated as it is on a bit of land dug into a hillside slope, scarcely larger than the building upon it, although all that is desirable from the viewpoint of scenic effect, is not a suitable place, obviously, for giving teachers in training the kind of experience they need if they are later to help in an effective way in shaping the work of the public school to meet the needs of the new order in Hawaii. It will be unfortunate, the commission feels, if more money is expended in erecting buildings on the present site.

All the buildings show the need of renovation, but since the present fund for repairs and maintenance (which includes janitor service) is only $2,000 per year, it is difficult to see how more could be done in this direction. In view of prevailing prices a fund of $4,000 or $6,000 per year should be set aside for these items alone.

But equally serious is the fact that the present plant needs decided modernizing to make it meet the demands of the present faculty, student body, and training school pupils. There should be enough classrooms so that each teacher can have one of her own. Two or three teachers are now obliged to share a room. No study rooms are available for students. The library should be four or five times its present size. The physical training work should be given offices and quarters within some building, as the present recognition of this important work represents the merest makeshift. There should be adequate accommodations for teachers' dressing rooms. Finally, toilet facilities for both faculty and pupils are most inadequate, while those used by the boys are unsanitary.

The present value of equipment is stated by the administration of the school to be $13,953.81, which represents, for the two decades in which the school has been in its present location, an average value of about $698 per year. When consideration is taken of the needs of modern teacher training institutions along the line of scientific apparatus, chemicals, books, maps, charts, pictures, and collections, it appears that appropriations for equipment have fallen far short of necessities. A survey of the various departments of the school more than justified this statement. In fact, until the Territory makes more liberal grants for the equipment of the normal school it must necessarily expect the efficiency of the faculty not to mention the resourcefulness of the cadet teachers to be very materially handicapped. The library, in particular, is one case in point. With a very

meager yearly budget for the purchase of books it has frequently been denied the privilege of using its allowance in full. For example, it now has on its shelves several works of which no use is ever made. Some of these run into 15 or 20 volumes. Inquiry showed that frequently in the past such sets of books had been purchased from agents by some official in the office of the department of public instruction and then had been sent to the normal school and charged to the library fund. Under such lax regulations it is not surprising to find the library decidedly lacking in vigorous, up-to-date literature of either an academic or professional character. Laboratory equipment is another case in point. Although the normal school subserves, in a sense, the double purpose of providing secondary education and training in teaching it may be said that laboratories for work in sciences are almost nonexistent. No matter how well equipped the faculty representatives of the science subjects may be, the handicaps under which they work, through lack of equipment, make it impossible for their courses to get any great distance from formal book work. Throughout the institution, in truth, the observer finds himself all too frequently asking the question, What resources in the way of equipment has the school other than textbooks?

THE FACULTY OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The faculty of the normal school in matters touching training for their work, professional interest, and personality makes a very favorable impression. In the normal department proper there are 27 regular teachers, 24 women and 3 men, and 6 special teachers (women), most of whom give part time only to the school. In the training school department there are 18 teachers, all of whom are women. One-third of the normal faculty are in their first year of normal work; 4 are in the second year; 6 have been in the school from two to five years, and one-third over five years, 1 having served 19 years and another 20 years. The principal has been with the institution for 22 years. In the training school one-half of the teachers are new this year; 6 are beginning their second year, and the remaining 3 have held their positions three, four, and five years, respectively. The records of tenure for 1918–19 are very similar. In the normal department 12 teachers retired at the end of the year, of whom 9 had served one year or less. Of 20 teachers in the training school for 1918–19, 16 had served one year or less. These figures indicate a very serious lack of permanence within the instructional staff, creating a condition which is disconcerting, to say the least. In public school systems generally it is recognized that stability of the teaching force is essential, if the best results are to be attained in the classroom; then, how much more essential it is that a teacher training center maintain its staff with sufficient permanence

to develop and carry out effective cooperation. While much of the instability in the teaching corps of the territory is due to inadequate salaries and inconvenient local conditions as to living, the survey commission is of the opinion that in the case of the Territorial normal and training school this difficulty of keeping together a continuous and contented faculty is primarily chargeable to the administration of the school.

In general it may be said that the teaching corps in both departments of the institution represents very satisfactory training, those from the mainland and those who have taken advanced work there possessing decided advantages. But frankness impels the statement that, in the case of the few teachers who are locally trained and who know only the traditions of the institution, there is a very evident lack of vision as to the possibilities of their work.

Professional interest and zeal are indicated by the reports of the staff along the line of the reading of modern educational books and magazines; and here there is some need of stimulus and guidance more especially on the part of the training school teachers. Four teachers only of 46 report reading the Hawaiian Educational Review though this may be due to oversight. Among the normal department instructors the special subject teachers are in touch with modern magazines in their own fields, while others of this group name practically one magazine, the Educational Review. But this group reads quite consistently magazines of such general world interest as the National Geographic, Literary Digest, World's Work, Review of Reviews, and Atlantic Monthly. Among the training school group, Primary Education and the Normal Instructor and Primary Plans are named by 9 of the 17 persons as being regularly read. Evidently some of the best magazines in the field of elementary education are not reaching the normal school faculty. This suggests that the administration should assume the responsibility of having these added to the library of the school, and of having many of their very significant articles called to the attention of the staff. Concerning modern educational books both groups show more familiarity. A variety of recent books has been listed, including those by Dewey, Thorndike, Strayer and Norsworthy, McMurry, Curtis, Farnsworth, Moore, Terman, Bagley, and Monroe (measurements). But, as in the case of magazines, access to these is had largely through other sources than the library of the school.

SALARIES OF THE STAFF.

The median salary for the members of the normal group for 1919–20 is $1,560. This is an advance of more than $200 over the median for the salary schedule of 1914–15. The range in salary for this

same group is at present from $1,320 to $2,460 for teachers. The vice principal receives $2,640 and the principal of the school receives $3,600. The median for training school teachers, 1919–20, is about $1,260, and in 1914–15 it was approximately $1,000. The present range for this group is from $1,200 to $1,560. As with the elementary staff in general, so in the present instance the Territorial government deserves much credit for its liberal policy touching financial recognition for teachers. It must, however, be pointed out that even in the immediate future the salary schedule of the normal faculty will need revision upwards, and it is both business like and just to hold out such a hope. Of the entire staff of the public school system there is no group of teachers which has greater responsibility for keeping abreast of modern educational movements; and no other group is required to render as arduous self-sacrificing service or to expend as much in effort and time in keeping efficient. Not only should the members of the normal school staff in justice expect to enter upon their work at a salary rate somewhat in advance of the teachers at large, but they should have the encouragement of larger annual increments (on the basis of successful service) and the encouragement of reaching maximum salary and permanency of tenure in less time. Having these considerations in mind, therefore, the following salary schedule for each group of the normal school staff is recommended:

Proposed salary schedule for normal school faculty.

Teachers.	Length of time of appointment.	Salary schedule for each group.				Yearly salary increase.	Year in which group maximum can be reached.
		Normal instructor.		Training school teacher.			
		Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.		
One-year teachers (probationary for 3 years).	1	$1,500	$1,860	$1,200	$1,500	$120	Third.
Three-year teachers	3	1,980	2,220	1,620	1,860	120	Third.
Permanent teachers		2,400		2,100		.....	Seventh from beginning of service.

THE STUDENTS OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The enrollment of the normal school includes 423 prospective teachers in the normal department and 527 pupils in the training school. The latter group serves as the practice school for the cadet teachers. As far as pupils are concerned it is like other public schools of Honolulu, and hence need not be considered here.

Of the 423 students, 42 are boys and 381 are girls. The median age is 17 years and 4 months. The middle 50 per cent range from 16 years and 2 months to 18 years and 8 months. On the basis of age alone these students are comparable with student groups in American

normal schools. Segregating the students according to racial descent brings out several interesting points. Eight only are of American birth and only one is of British descent. One-fourth are Japanese; almost one-fourth are Chinese; slightly more than one-fourth are part Hawaiian; 68 are Portuguese; 22 are pure Hawaiians; and there is a scattering representation of Porto Rican, Korean, and Spanish. Ninety per cent of the student body must work under a heavy handicap, having failed to master the English language before undertaking the serious responsibility of teacher preparation. This difficulty, coupled with the diversity of background formed by custom and tradition, makes for a general state of unpreparedness and immaturity on the part of the graduates. Thoroughly prepared teachers are not possible so long as the institution attempts to justify its present low entrance requirements. If the normal schools of the United States are justified in raising the standards of entrance and of graduation, it may be argued that the teacher training center of Hawaii would be doubly justified in doing so on the one basis of complex racial differences and all that this implies, in the teaching of the language, customs, and ideals of our country.

The survey commission has no misgivings as to the importance of the locally trained teacher in the further development of the public school system. It realizes that, potentially, the students of the normal school hold out much promise in this great work. But the survey commission, nevertheless, is firmly of the opinion that the work of preparation must be made to cover a longer period of time; that, in other words, the native-born candidate must have a complete high-school course in addition to graduation from the elementary school before he shall be permitted to enter upon his professional preparation in the normal school, and that, in the latter school, a course of not less than two years shall be required of him.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL.

From the bulletin of the normal school the following excerpts are taken to indicate the purpose and organization of the school:

The purpose of the school is (*a*) to aid the student in acquiring the art of teaching by practice under intelligent direction, and to instruct him in the science of education; (*b*) to teach the subject matter of the elementary and high school courses, and such subject matter of collegiate rank as will give background for the work of teaching and supervision.

There are two departments in the school, the normal department, giving instruction in the academic subjects of the course and the science of education, and the training department, where the cadets are taught to teach by teaching under close supervision.

In the normal department instruction is given in the subject matter of elementary and high school courses, and such subject matter of collegiate rank as will supply background for the work of teaching and supervising in the elementary grades.

The subject matter of the elementary course is taught to give the teachers of the normal department an opportunity of actually instructing the students in the best methods of teaching the subjects of the course. In this way the normal department keeps in touch with the training department and directs the method of the school. The school is a unit in regard to the methods employed in the school.

The training students of the normal department are divided into three classes or groups for convenience of work in the training department, and the day in the training department is divided into three parts: 9–10.30 a. m., 10.45–12 m., 12.30–2 p. m., to admit of each division having charge of the work during one-third of the day. Each group teaches one week in each period, consequently three weeks in each room. The groups then advance a room, the group in Grade VIII beginning the work in Grade I.

In this way each cadet teaches all the subjects in each grade and gives one-third of his time for three years to acquiring the art of teaching, and the remaining two-thirds to the study of academic subjects.

In the training department the training-school teacher has the general supervision of the room. She directs the cadets in the arrangement of the subject matter, suggests the method of presentation, corrects the lesson plans, keeps a record of the ability of the cadets to teach and manage a room, teaches model lessons, and gives assistance to the cadets in the teaching of the lesson.

The cadets take charge of the rooms in which they teach, prepare the lesson plans, care for the school property, and supervise the pupils on the grounds. In this way the cadets are prepared to take charge of any school to which they may be appointed.

The organization of the school is such that it does not accomplish all that its statement of purpose indicates. In the first place, the standard for entrance renders it futile to expect work of collegiate grade. Every member of the faculty knows there is none. In fact, there is little work of high-school grade, although some high school subjects appear in the curriculum. A good plan of organization should emphasize, at the very outset, the necessity of seeing that the course of study is enriched in subject matter. While retaining an emphasis on method and grade work, there should also be subject matter to give background, appreciation, and joy in reading and study to those who are preparing to teach and Americanize Hawaii's children.

In the second place, the articulation of the normal-school and training-school departments is not good, and the defect results in needless misunderstandings and ill feeling. The administration has not yet learned to delegate the details of this important work to an official who has the ability and inclination to develop a plan of cooperation in which both normal-school instructors and training-school teachers will have clearly defined and mutually recognized functions with relation to practice teaching by the cadets. The school needs an outstanding leader for the work, one who can command the respect of both groups. When such a person is installed the principal of the normal school should withdraw from the petty minutiæ of school management and discipline of the grades, and give the head of the training school some leeway in the initiation of plans and the carrying out of policies. There should be periodic conferences

between the heads of departments in the normal school and the training teachers. This seldom occurs as between groups and though individual conferences are held they take on the nature of interviews for pointing out corrections. The training teachers should be encouraged to feel that they are a more important factor in the institution than mere classroom teachers. They do in fact perform the functions of critic teachers, but their efficiency and their contentment would be much enhanced if the administration would vouchsafe a more wholesome understanding of their positions. The instructors in the normal department would, moreover, welcome this innovation.

In view of the heavy programs carried by the training teachers it would probably be advantageous to have in the training school three teachers for every two grades, instead of one teacher per grade as at present. More especially is this true from the fourth or fifth to the eighth grades. Each teacher could then be responsible for the work of two-thirds of each day and have the other third for planning work, correcting lesson plans, directing cadets in the preparation of different subjects, and other necessary work. Under a plan of this kind training teachers would be able to give their undivided attention (in school time) to the teaching of the cadets; practice work would be done better; and much duplication of work by the teachers of the normal school proper could be dispensed with.

Cadet teachers begin their practice teaching in the sophomore year. This procedure does not seem to be justified, for it means that immature students, sometimes of 14 or 15 years of age, are sent to the grades to teach. Students in the sophomore year are not prepared for this work in any sense. The work is too arduous and too frequently indifference and poor work are the results. Practice teaching should be deferred to the junior year at least. Furthermore, no training is given in planning grade work. Pupils are given pages of detailed outlines of subject matter, but are given no idea how to lay out work themselves. It is suggested that for at least one term of the senior year the students choose a grade, lay out its work, and deal with it under the supervision of the training teacher.

THE SPIRIT OF THE SCHOOL.

It was stated above that the normal-school faculty makes a favorable impression as to personnel and training, in spite of the fact that a few members show little pedagogical comprehension. It is a seriously earnest faculty. It represents a commendable spirit of of willingness and high professional purpose; nevertheless, the esprit de corps can not be said to be good. This is due to a number of causes, responsibility for which hinges on the administration of the school.

The administration is enormously and needlessly cumbersome. The amount of routine that has been built up is almost unbelievable and weighs with heavy exactions on the time and energy of both faculty and students. Most of the teachers are overworked. All of them carry heavy programs of teaching, which are greatly increased by duties and red tape that emanate from the principal's office. Teachers who are scheduled for teaching and administrative details amounting to 32, 34, 37, 39, and 45 periods per week are so decidedly overburdened that the quality of teaching must suffer thereby. More than this, the insistence of the principal on rigid form and method crushes both originality and initiative. Careful observation confirms the following opinion: "The method work required is all-pervading, formal; consists in emphasizing one method of procedure only; allows no individuality in either teacher or pupil, and leads to mechanical processes rather than to intelligent planning."

Lack of real harmony between training teachers and normal-school instructors, already referred to, is another factor that works against a good esprit de corps. The two departments are not working together in that spirit of harmony that is fundamental to the institution. There is a strong undercurrent of feeling that the normal-school instructors are sent to the training school with directions from the office of administration to find and report faults. This is not true, of course, for the individual instructors are very willing to help. Because of the system they have little or no opportunity to do so. The writing and correcting of plans is still another disturbing element. Cadet students are required to spend altogether too much time on the copying of the most elaborate plans in connection with their practice teaching. The effect of this on the quality of their work is not what the administration believes it to be. Instead of increasing resourcefulness, any originality the cadet may possess is nullified. His teaching is little more than the rehashing of the long-drawn-out details of this plan. On the other hand, the machinery by which the plans are brought to a point where they can be accepted is so involved that it is responsible for much of the unpleasant atmosphere existing between the normal and training departments. The outline given below will give some idea of how cumbersome the organization of this work is:

1. All instructions to student teachers must be made in writing, and include every detail. These instructions are made by grade teachers.
2. These instructions are carefully corrected by normal teachers.
3. They are then typed and handed to the pupils.
4. In a plan period in school, supervised by both grade and normal teachers, the plans are written from these instructions.
5. The completed plan, many pages in length, is handed to the grade teacher, who corrects it. She receives at least eight a day.
6. The plans from all the grades now go through the office, where a specially assigned teacher "checks" them; that is, sees if they are all there.

7. The plans are divided by subjects, and sent to the normal teacher for correction. This means at least 50, possibly 100, plans to be corrected by this one teacher every day.

8. The twice-corrected plan is handed to the cadet who makes all corrections in writing. The normal teacher in charge of the correction period goes over all these corrections, and if the plan is satisfactory she signs it.

9. The O. K'd. plans now go through the office again, where they are checked the second time.

10. The plans are initialed by the principal.

11. In addition to all this procedure, the normal instructors must look over and O. K. all the training teachers' plans from which the cadet writes his plans.

Certainly all this duplication can not mean efficiency; and it is not an economical arrangement from the point of view of the normal teacher, the grade teacher, the cadet, the typist, the "checker," or the principal. It means, rather, the most work with the least results. When a cadet has consumed three or four sheets of foolscap in making a plan he has no time or energy to consider its presentation in class. Struggling with his unwieldy, half-digested material, his teaching naturally suffers. Training which depends so largely on the spirit which imbues a school, and the personalties of its teachers, can never be given until sham and form are eliminated.

In view of these facts it is not surprising that the school lacks vitality; and more, that it labors in an atmosphere of repression. It must be noted, however, that the administration is not to be charged with studied repression. It represents autocracy of the benevolent type, although unwise and shortsighted. But in these days a unique situation is presented when a normal school regards the originality and initiative of faculty members as a liability rather than as an asset.

PROCEDURE AND METHOD.

The programs of the students in the normal school department are too crowded. There are three terms in the school year and students are required to carry programs of 18 to 20 subjects in each term. Two representative programs (a senior group and a sophomore group) are shown herewith:

A senior program (20 subjects per week).

Time.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
8.30- 9.00	Science.	History.	Science.	History.	History.
9.00- 9.45	Physical training.	Education.	Child study.	School law.	Child study.
9.45-10.30	Education.	Story, drawing.	Story, drawing.	Story, drawing.	School-room art.
10.30-10.45	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.
10.45-11.25	Arithmetic.	Hygiene.	Arithmetic.	Hygiene.	Arithmetic.
11.25-12.00	Geography.	Geography.	Colloquial English.	Geography.	Sounds.
12.00-12.30	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.
12.30- 1.15	English.	English.	English.	English.	English.
1.15- 2.00	Monograms.	Music.	Civics.	Music.	Letter writing.
2.00- 2.40	Correction of plans.	Correction of plans.	Correction of plans.	Correction of plans.	Correction of plans.
2.40- 3.15	Plans.	Plans.	Plans.	Plans.	Plans.

[illegible] subjects per week).

Time.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
8.15- 8.30	Assembly.	Assembly.	Assembly.	Assembly.	Assembly.
8.30- 9.00	Assistant in grades.	Assistant in grades.	Assistant in grades.	Assistant in grades.	Assistant in grades.
9.00- 9.15	Literature and composition.	Literature and composition.	Literature and composition.	Literature and composition.	Literature and composition.
9.45-10.30	Elementary science.	Current events.	Elementary science.	Civics.	Business arithmetic.
10.30-10.45	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.	Recess.
10.45-11.25	Story, drawing, art.	Story, drawing, art.	Story, drawing, art.	Story, drawing, art.	Story, drawing, art.
11.25-12.00	History.	History.	History.	History.	History.
12.00-12.30	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.	Noon recess.
12.30- 1.15	Vocational.	Colloquial English.	Vocational.	Corrections and sounds.	Vocational.
1.15- 2.00	Geography.	Geography.	Geography.	Geography.	Geography.
2.00- 2.40	Physical training.	Hygiene.	Hygiene.	Music.	Music.
2.40- 3.15	Algebra or Hawaiian history.	Algebra or Hawaiian history.	Arithmetic	Algebra or Hawaiian history	Arithmetic.

Nearly all of these subjects require written work; some subjects require an excessive amount. The absence of opportunity for play and recreation will be noted, together with the short noon recess. When, moreover, one learns that students are obliged to work late into the night to keep from falling in arrears, the killing, monofonous nature of the grind will be understood. It is one of the unfortunate results of attempting to give a high school education and professional teacher training at the same time.

Then, the programs are not well balanced considering the needs of these young people. Too much of their work is an elaboration of elementary work. Not enough time is given to literature and composition equivalent to modern high school work. Standard writings in literature should be increased, also standard books on English composition. There is no reason to doubt that the students would become deeply interested in real vital literature, and in composition once it could be freed of its ultraformal character. Too many of the students now see literature and English work in general from the standpoint of the number of recitations by which it must be taught, or the "thought-getting," "oral expression" periods into which the recitation hour are divided. This prompts the suggestion that the so-called "Colloquial-English" periods in the above programs are more or less farcical, subversive of good results, and ought to be done away with. Let correct speech be stressed in all recitations and in the English courses particularly, but do not set aside special periods for the bookkeeping of mistakes in written and oral speech.

Vocational work and the manual arts are neglected in the course of study, as is also physical education. In the case of manual arts, as taught in the normal at present, it is not viewed as a scheme of general education; nor can it be regarded as vocational because the subject matter tends to be obsolete and not typical of or common

to the industries of Hawaii. But more, it is impossible for this poorly selected subject matter to be arranged in some kind of sequential order for instruction, due to the fact that the details of the shop are looked after by the administration and not left to the instructor.

The school is very much behind modern thought and practice in such subjects as civics and United States history. Its students reflect this state of affairs when they go into the schools of the Territory. A full, rich, enthusiastic understanding of the American heritage of freedom and democratic government is not theirs, and in consequence it is not handed down to the children. The school makes considerable claim[1] for its work in civics, having given, so it is asserted, special attention to this subject "ever since the organization of the normal school." This has been attempted "largely through the various activities of the school as an organization." "The normal school students are organized for the conduct of school exercises and for the control of the pupils on the playground and in the classrooms. The student body by classes elects its officers, who serve for a year and who act subject to approval of the schools as indicated by the rules and regulations of the department of public instruction." But against this it must be said that observation of the school at work and conversation with many members of the student-body failed to indicate any true realization on the part of the young people that the school life or the form of student-body organization was in any sense a part of or even related to the larger enterprises of American government. These features were rather viewed as the administration's machinery for disciplining the school, the most outstanding of which was the policing of school buildings and the school yard by student sheriffs and their assistants. That is, at certain places on the school grounds and in hallways and at entrance to lavatories the officers, chosen usually from the freshman class, are assigned to duty, each one giving an entire day to it about once each term. They observe and record the comings and goings of their fellow-students. Thus the administration knows the whereabouts of every student at every moment of the day. Since the students are very tractable and remarkably well-behaved it is difficult for anyone, after due examination, to see wherein details of this kind carry any weight in the inculcation of any principles of civics other than police duties.

Turning to the curriculum of the training school one again finds a lack of balance in the programs of the different grades and the need of revision of subject matter. Grade programs are illustrated by the following examples from Grades I and II:

[1] See Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1918, p. 40.

DAILY PROGRAM OF GRADE I (TRAINING SCHOOL).

9.00- 9.05 Forming lines.
9.05- 9.10 Opening exercises.
9.10- 9.15 Morning talks.
9.15- 9.25 Calendar work.
9.25- 9.35 Music—ear tests.
9.35- 9.40 Memory verse or spelling.
9.40- 9.50 Drill—testing old words.
9.50- 9.55 Physical exercises.
9.55-10.30 Home geography.
  9.55-10.05 Thought getting.
  10.05-10.10 Expression of thought.
  10.10-10.20 Oral expression.
  10.20-10.30 Selected sentences used for:
    10.20-10.25 Reading.
    10.25-10.30 Word drill. Copying.
10.45-10.55 Music—rote singing.
10.55-11.10 Arithmetic.
  10.55-11.00 Thought getting.
  11.10-11.00 Impression and oral expression.
11.10-11.20 Manual work.
11.20-11.45 Work with reader (literature).
  11.20-11.25 Thought getting.
  11.25-11.35 Word drill and word testing from book.
  11.35-11.45 Selected sentences used for reading.
11.45-11.55 Conversational lessons and stories. Drill on sounds.
11.55-12.00 Drills on number work.
12.30-12.35 Singing (4). Penmanship (1).
12.35-12.40 Drill—Reciting old lessons.
12.40- 1.35 Story work.
  12.40-12.45 Thought getting. (Drawing.)
  12.45-12.55 Expression of thought (clay or paper cutting every day).
  1.05- 1.10 Physical exercises.
  1.10- 1.35 Selected sentences used for:
    1.10- 1.20 Reading.
    1.20- 1.25 Word drill.
    1.25- 1.35 Copying.
1.35- 2.00 Drills.
  1.35- 1.40 Word testing from reader.
  1.40- 1.45 Arithmetic.
  1.45- 1.50 Sounds.
  1.50- 1.55 Troublesome forms.
  1.55- 2.00 Memory verse.

DAILY PROGRAM OF GRADE II (TRAINING SCHOOL).

Morning period.

9.00- 9.05 Forming lines, etc. (Flag drill.)
9.05- 9.10 Opening exercises.
9.10- 9.15 Morning talk.
9.15- 9.20 Weather record.
9.20-10.20 Home geography.
  9.20- 9.30 Thought getting.
  9.30- 9.35 Expression of thought.

9.20-10.20 Home geography—Continued.
9.35- 9.50 Oral expression (drills on difficult sounds as th, wh, etc. Use topic and specific questions).
9.50-10.10 Selected sentences (3) or answers to questions (2) to be used for:
9.20-10.00 Reading (teaching to read—relation of thought to symbol). Grammar based on sentences. Phrasing.
10.00-10.05 Copying.
10.05-10.10 Dictation (2). Spelling (3).
10.10-10.20 Written story.
10.20-10.25 Memory verse.
10.25-10.30 Drills (conversational lessons to teach correct use of language). Records.

Second period.

10.45-11.15 Arithmetic.
10.45-10.55 Thought getting.
10.55-11.05 Oral expression.
11.05-11.15 Written expression.
11.15-11.45 Literature—reading (4). Special drill on penmanship (1).
11.15-11.25 Reading background. Preparation for silent and oral reading.
11.25-11.35 Word drill—word testing from book.
11.35-11.45 Silent and oral reading.
11.45-12.00 Music.
Dismissal on number drills or sound drills (ask questions).

Third period.

12.30- 1.10 Stories (3) T. W. Th. Hygiene and sanitation (2) F. M.
12.30-12.40 Thought getting.
12.40-12.45 Expression of thought.
12.45- 1.00 Oral expression (drills on sounds. Use topic and specific questions).
1.00- 1.20 Selected sentences (3). (Answers to questions (2) to be used for:
1.00-1.10 Reading.
1.10-1.15 Copying (special help in penmanship).
1.15-1.20 Dictation (2). Spelling (3).
1.20-1.30 Physical exercises.
1.40- 1.50 Conversational lessons.
1.50- 2.00 Special drills in multiplication tables and sounds. Records.

Since the important subject in these grades, as in all the so-called primary grades, is reading, and since the peculiar conditions in Hawaiian schools greatly enhance this importance, there seems to be no justification for such disparity of time as between subjects like home geography, arithmetic, and reading. The programs above are arranged on the same basis as those for seventh and eighth grades where, of course, the arrangement is much more acceptable. It is suggested that an improvement in arrangement could be brought about by giving the 9.20-10.20 period over to reading and literature and alternating home geography with arithmetic and other subjects between morning recess and noon. The home geography course possesses good content but too much time is spent on it. The arithmetic course plunges the child into too much formal and abstract work in the early grades. Besides this, too much time is given over

to written work of various kinds. The effect of these practices is to cut down time needed for teaching reading and for oral work. In Hawaiian schools generally too little time is given to work that develops power to use oral English correctly and the normal school is abetting this questionable practice.

Attention, too, should be called to the method of recitations as indicated in the above programs. Recitations are broken into processes like "Thought getting," "Expression of thought," and "Oral or written expression." Thus the institution has adapted the ideas of classroom procedure as formulated by well-known leaders. In much of the work observed there was satisfactory functioning of these processes. But frequently cadets were so immersed in the form of presentation and procedure that substance was entirely lost sight of, the cadet exhibiting an inefficiency painful to himself as well as to training teachers and observer. The administration is too insistent that everything shall be run through this "process" or method mill; it has become an obsession, operating to beget resentment on the part of faculty members who now and again desire to alter the procedure for the sake of some newer idea.

Again, the administration has been unalterably opposed to the use of a phonics system in teaching reading. This is true in spite of the fact that a majority of the normal school faculty believe that phonics should be introduced. Opinion on the mainland differs as to the actual importance of phonics, but with regard to island conditions there is little doubt that the faculty opinion is sound. But even if it were a mooted question, what an opportunity the normal school has to test out the relative merits of the two schools of opinion. It is the belief of the survey staff that some one of the modern phonics systems should be introduced into the training school at once, not so much because it sees an opportunity for experimentation, but because it holds that a good phonetic system offers a type of introductory approach to reading of inestimable value for Hawaii, whether one considers the matter from the point of view of the Hawaiian teachers or from that of the Hawaiian children.

Finally, a word must be said in disapproval of the system of formal examinations in vogue in the normal school. These are a part of the general examinations laid down in times past by the department of public instruction, and to that extent that administration of the school is only partially responsible. Examination in practically all subjects in both normal department and training school are held each term; that is, three times per year. They lay heavy exactions on the ability of students and pupils to memorize. In the normal school department they are met by memorizing almost verbatim the notes of the class and the textbooks. But particularly objectionable from any standpoint, whether theoretical or practical, is the policy

of requiring these students in every examination paper to recall all English errors committed in each class during the term and to set down the corrected form that should have been said or written. The point will be made clear by including here an illustration from the examination forms used in the institution:

TERRITORIAL NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL.

Name..... Date.....
Subject..... Marked by.....
Class..... Last school.....
Mark:.....

I.

List your troublesome forms in this subject.
(a) Classroom written English.
(b) Classroom oral English.
(c) Colloquial English.
(d) What are the characteristic troublesome forms in which a ..... (e.g.) mathematics teacher, or school law teacher) should instruct her pupils?
N. B.—*Each* pupil must answer the above question.

No matter what the subject of the examination, then, the student must (and again from memory) make due record of his reconstructed sins of omission and commission in English. To do this conscientiously he is supposed to have kept a book of corrected statements during the term. But the observers were told by various students that the exaction is so absurd as to tempt many students merely to fill in the answers sufficiently to "get by." The point of absurdity seems to have been reached when teachers are asked to keep a complete record of the errors made in each of their classes, in order to be able to estimate correctly the answers of the students. Faculty common sense, however, prompts a reasonable evasion of the regulation.

FORMALISM AS SEEN IN RULES AND REGULATIONS.

The extent to which the administration of the normal school has formalized its machinery of operation is very well shown by a number of examples taken from the set of elaborate instructions imposed upon the training school teachers. To insure proper conduct of classes the following official rules, or "points" (taken from a much longer list), are issued by the principal for the observance of teachers and cadets:

POINTS TO BE REMEMBERED WHILE TEACHING IN GRADES.

(Read them carefully.)

See that the children obey instantly when the bell rings. (That they do not go for a drink but come as fast as they can to the line.)

See that they do not talk or touch one another in the line, but look straight ahead—no one stretching his neck at the side.

See that no one touches chalk, eraser, etc., as he passes to his seat; see that the rows are straight before having the children take their seats.

See that the children obey accurately the numbers for standing and sitting. (They must do this exactly right and all together.)

Allow no calling out—no leaving the seat without permission. *Absolutely insist upon this.*

Speak *softly*, speak *slowly* and clearly; be sure that all hear and understand—never repeat a command—remember that a quiet teacher has a quiet school.

Be sure that the plans are so fully written that anyone will clearly understand what is being done. Be sure that the plan is not only written but that the teacher makes it her own.

Write and draw with your side to the class. In this way nothing can go on in the seats without the teacher's knowing about it. It is easier to prevent trouble than to remedy it.

See that nothing comes between that which we are drawing or talking about and the class.

Insist, oblige, compel all eyes to look at you during the *thought getting*. We must train them to look at our faces to keep *their eyes on us. They must look.* They must give us their attention during the thought getting, else all that follows will be a complete failure. Thought getting time is the time to get thoughts. If we do not insist on their looking they will not get the thoughts we have for them and will have none to express either through their hands or lips. Insist on their looking. It is not for long.

Always give an order with the falling inflection—that is, let the voice go down at the end of the sentence.

See that no material is touched before (after the monitor gives it out) the teacher gives the numbers to take pencils or other material or after she has given the numbers to put them away. The monitors always begin to distribute paper, etc., at the right-hand side of the front desk in the row and goes down the aisle coming up the other. This same order is observed in gathering up the work. In taking pencils or papers we say, first, "Papers! two!" and then "Pencils! one! two!" We reverse in the case of putting away work.

They are working with pencils and instead of saying "Stop work" we say "Pencils! one! two!" and they must stop. Chalk and erasers in the same way.

Be sure and weave into thought getting *over and over* the form of words which afterwards you wish to get as "sentences selected." If they have heard you again and again say the sentences in the thought getting it will be easy to get them in answer to the questions you ask when the time comes for "sentences selected."

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

The commission recognizes fully the difficulties which the school has had to meet in the past in its work of preparing young people who themselves were immature, untrained, and, in many instances, without even a moderate speaking knowledge of the English language. Neither is it unmindful of the slow and tedious and discouraging path which the school has been obliged to travel in coming to its present estate nor of the lavish expenditure of thought, time, and sincere effort by those associated with the school since the time of its establishment at the McKinley High School in 1895. Nevertheless, the commission is convinced that whatever may have been the difficulties and necessities of the past the school is not now offering the

kind of teacher training which the Territory now needs. Neither, it should be added, can the commission escape the conclusion: (1) That the machinery of administration is defeating the very aims which the normal school has set for itself; (2) that this machinery has prevented both the school and the faculty from reaching a satisfactory efficiency in the training of local teachers; and (3) that radical changes in the organization and administration of the institution should be effected.

The more important of the changes recommended by the commission follow:

1. Gradually raise admission standards so that by the time the class which last entered the school will have graduated, the school will be upon a high-school basis; that is, will receive only those having a high-school education or its equivalent and for a two-year course in teacher training.

2. Abandon the present normal school site for normal school purposes and erect suitable buildings on the university campus, or near it, and make with university authorities either the one or the other of two arrangements: (a) The university, through a department or college of education to be organized, to take over all responsibility for the control and administration of the normal school or (b) the management and control of the normal school to be independent of the university but a cooperative plan be arranged whereby the students of the normal school may take courses offered by the university.

There are a number of reasons favoring this plan of connecting the training of island teachers with the University of Hawaii, the two principal ones being: (1) That thereby opportunity can be given the young people who are taking the training to take at the same time courses of instruction in the university which will broaden their horizon and give them an informational content not otherwise to be obtained and which, it is obvious, Hawaiian-born young people who are entering the teaching profession greatly need, coming as they do in many cases from homes of relatively illiterate people, and (2) such an arrangement would make available to normal school students the university equipment of farm, of shop, of laboratory which must be at hand if the teachers are to be prepared to undertake the type of school work in the elementary grades or in the high schools which is demanded of them if the occupational needs of the islands are to receive the attention from the schools which they deserve.

11. THE LAHAINALUNA TRADE SCHOOL.

The Lahainaluna school, situated at a beautiful location on the Island of Maui, was founded by the missionaries in 1831. In 1849 it was taken over from the American Board of Missions by the Hawaiian Government. In 1900 it came under the supervision of the Territorial education department through the annexation of the islands. In

1916 it was taken out from under the supervision of the Territorial commissioners of education and placed under the control of a separate board. When this change took place it was called a trade school.

The school owns 1,000 acres of land and a valuable water right. The school is farming about 42 acres of cane land from which it receives annually about $8,000 net. One of the plantation corporations is growing cane on 12 acres, the boys of the school contributing a certain amount of work. The remainder of the thousand-acre tract has been leased to plantations by the land department of the Territorial Government, the proceeds of which, however, do not benefit the school. The buildings which comprise the school plant have an approximate value of $75,000.

The school is a free school open to boys only. They spend their entire time at the school. The grades provided for, corresponding to the grading system of the public school, are the fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The usual academic subjects are taught in all grades but the ninth grade. The time of all ninth grade boys is given over to shop work, consequently, according to this peculiar arrangement, none of the usual school studies are offered in this grade. The course in shop work provides that the boys shall take printing in the sixth grade, carpentry in the seventh grade, blacksmithing in the eighth grade, and machine shop work in the ninth.

The equipment, however, for shop work is for the most part of a very elementary character, and inadequate at that. Several pieces of expensive machinery have been installed which are not suitable or indeed not usable and are idle. A drill costing $1,400 is idle much of the time because the shop is provided with only a 5 horsepower motor, which is not sufficient to operate the drill. A very expensive machine for boring cylinders was installed. There is but one other in the islands. It stands idle. Machinery for cutting out automobile tops was recently bought, but is idle because the school can not compete with private firms in this business. An elaborate and expensive equipment of drills, which are never used, was also unwisely purchased. About $8,000 worth of equipment for the shops had been ordered but had not been delivered at the time the school was visited.

The following are on the pay roll of the school: One principal, 6 teachers, 1 cook, 1 matron, and 1 cane-field worker—10 in all. The pay roll for the month of November was $1,315.

The enrollment for November, 1919, was as follows: Thirty-two Hawaiians, 27 part-Hawaiians, 3 Portuguese, 43 Japanese, 9 Chinese, 1 Filipino, and 3 of other racial extraction; altogether, 118 boys. These were distributed among the grades as follows: Twenty in the fifth grade, 22 in the sixth grade, 39 in the seventh grade, 26 in the eighth grade, and 11 in the ninth grade.

The estimated expense of maintaining the school for the calendar year to December 31, 1919, as given in a report of the principal to the governor, was as follows:

Maintenance cost of Lahainaluna school for year ending December 31, 1919.

Purposes.	Amounts.
Dining hall	$6,600.00
Salaries	7,049.00
Supplies for farm and shop	8,920.00
Charges for 1920 crop planting	1,972.70
Harvesting 1919 crop	940.00
Incidentals	55.20
Total	25,436.90

OBSERVATIONS ON THE FOREGOING FACTS.

The school is doing nothing more in an academic way than a good elementary public school of eight grades ought to be doing. In those activities peculiar to a trade school it does not have the equipment to do more than a good public high school ought to be equipped to do. As now organized the school is not prepared to train boys to earn their livelihood in the trades. At present the graduates of the school drift into the first thing which comes to hand quite as do the boys from the public schools who have no special vocational training. That is to say, the work of the school is not of a sufficiently advanced character, either academically or along the lines of preparation for the trades, to enable the graduates to enter the vocations at any higher level than do those of the public schools. This is in no wise a criticism of the principal of the school, for without doubt he has done all with the school that the policy determined upon would permit.

Furthermore, to give the boys who now attend the school what they could get from the public schools fully as well is costing the Territory from $25,000 to $30,000 per year. The question at once comes, What is the justification for asking the Territory to pay out $215 annually on each of 118 boys while it pays out only about $30 per child on those of the same attainments in the public-school system?

The only point which the commission heard in justification was that the school has been looked upon in recent years as a school primarily for children of the Hawaiian race and that it should be maintained to provide educational opportunities for Hawaiian boys. It requires but a glance at the character of the enrollment to recognize that the number of the boys who are of Hawaiian parentage is rapidly decreasing and that their places are being taken by boys of

the oriental races. In 1910, for example, Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians comprised 85 per cent of the schools' enrollment, while the orientals comprised but 12 per cent. In November, 1919, the situation had changed greatly, the Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian representation having fallen to 50 per cent of the total enrollment, while that of the orientals had grown to 44 per cent. The years in between show a steady decline in the proportionate enrollment of Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians and a steady increase in Japanese and Chinese, principally Japanese. So that the point of a desire to minister to the educational needs of Hawaiian youth, however well taken in the past, is rapidly becoming less applicable.

A PLAN FOR THE REORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL.

While the commission can see no justification for the school which, as it now stands, is doing little more than duplicating the work of the public school, yet it sees for it a big opportunity to render a distinctive service as a field branch of the University of Hawaii.

The school is set down among large sugar plantations. It affords a splendid opportunity for training young men of university advancement to couple with theoretical study practical experience in the various activities of the plantations, the training designed to prepare for the filling of skilled and semiskilled positions on the plantations. Doubtless it would be an easy matter to arrange with plantation managers to give opportunity to the students of the school for such practical experience. Two young men could pair off, for example, one to take his place in the school, one to take a place on a near-by plantation. At the end of some convenient period, say two weeks, a shift could be made and places traded. In this way a continuity of both school work and practical work on the plantation could be secured. So the entire student body could be paired off in like manner and an ideal type of theoretical-practical education be obtained.

The plan of part-time training is growing rapidly in the States. It is giving very satisfactory results where it is carefully supervised by competent persons. It enables the young people participating, furthermore, to earn considerable money during their period of schooling, for a wage scale commensurate with the service rendered is adopted.

The expense of maintaining the Lahainaluna school organized as a part-time school under the supervision of the University of Hawaii, admitting only young men who have matriculated at the university and who are heading toward plantation occupations of skilled and semiskilled character, would be abundantly justified.

12. FINANCING THE TERRITORIAL DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

THE AMOUNT WHICH HONOLULU EXPENDS UPON HER SCHOOLS.

In the consideration of the question whether or not a commonwealth is expending a sufficient sum on the education of its children no hard and fast lines can be drawn; nevertheless, it is instructive to learn how a given political unit compares in its expenditures with other units of the country falling within the same population group. It has been shown in the analysis of the educational problem of the Hawaiian Islands, which comprises Chapter I of this report, that as compared with most mainland communities the educational task of the Hawaiian Islands is heavier and more complicated. To solve it in an efficient manner it stands to reason that a relatively larger expenditure for school purposes must naturally be made. A comparison with what the States are expending on their public school systems will be of interest.

Data for such a comparison have never been compiled for States and Territories as wholes, but studies of the financial expenditures of all of the cities of the United States have been made which afford the necessary information for an illuminating examination of similar units of the Hawaiian Territory. The expenditures for the city and county of Honolulu, for example, in comparison with cities of the mainland of approximately the same population will show what the Hawaiian Territory is doing for education in comparison with mainland practice.

The first step in such a comparison is to examine the way in which the city and county of Honolulu distributes her expenditures. As the reports for 1918 are the latest published reports for the cities of the United States, the following study is based upon 1918 figures:

In 1918 the city and county of Honolulu expended in the maintenance and upkeep for all purposes, including the schools (but not permanent improvements), the sum of $1,590,403.17, which amounted to $13.65 per capita of population, using the population estimate for the city and county of Honolulu of 116,500, compiled by the Territorial board of health, which many think is a conservative estimate.

It is interesting to see how this amount of $13.65 per capita was distributed among various municipal and county activities and to learn what the 47 cities in the United States falling into the same population group, the group of cities having a population of 100,000 to 300,000, did with their incomes similarly. The table which follows shows this distribution.

Distribution of city expenditures per capita of population (1917).

	City and county of Honolulu.	Average of 47 cities.
General government	$0.83	$1.18
Police department	2.60	1.67
Fire department	.70	1.75
Conservation of health	.84	1.76
Street department	2.72	1.98
Charities, hospitals, corrections	.06	.78
The schools	4.41	5.81
Libraries	.....	.28
Recreation	.67	.62
All other purposes	.82	.71
Total per capita expenditure	13.65	16.42

This table shows that the city and county of Honolulu is expending $4.41 per capita of population on its schools from city sources alone, whereas the average expenditure, of the 47 cities in Honolulu's group in the States was $5.81. That is, Honolulu's expenditure on its schools would have to be increased $1.40 per capita of population to give the schools of the city and county the average amount that 47 cities of the mainland in the same population group are expending upon their schools from their city revenues. In other words, Honolulu's per capita amount would have to be increased nearly one-third to bring its expenditures on schools up to the average expenditure of cities of its class. Obviously, then, with an estimated population of 116,500, the number used in all these calculations, it would require an additional annual expenditure of $163,000 on the schools of the city and county of Honolulu alone to bring such expenditure up to the average of the cities of its class as shown by the foregoing table.

Of the 47 cities in the United States having a population between 100,000 and 300,000 only six expended a less per capita amount than Honolulu on their schools. These cities were: Atlanta, Ga., $3.94; Birmingham, Ala., $2.85; Memphis, Tenn., $3.92; Reading, Pa., $3.52; Fort Worth, Tex., $3.23; and Nashville, Tenn., $4.34. With the single exception of Reading, Pa., these are all southern cities.

Eleven cities of the group expended more than half as much again as did Honolulu, while three expended twice as much or more, these being Springfield, Mass., $9.76; Des Moines, Iowa, $10.18; and Hartford, Conn., $8.98.

Nor is this all, for these comparisons are deceptive in this respect—that the foregoing table shows for the cities of the States only the school expenditure which was derived from city revenues. Most of these cities have money coming into their school funds from State and county sources which is not shown in the tables from

which the foregoing comparisons were derived, whereas the amount credited to the schools of the city and county of Honolulu is the entire amount from all sources expended on the schools. It is clear, therefore, that in the actual amount of money which the Territory expends upon the schools of the city and county of Honolulu, when reckoned on the basis of population, is very far below that actually expended upon the schools in the cities of the States.

Inasmuch, however, as the aggregate per capita expenditure of the city and county of Honolulu is considerably less than the average of the cities of its group, being $13.65 against an average of $16.12, another table showing the proportion such items bear to the entire expenditure is needed. This table follows:

Proportional expenditures among city departments

Purpose.	City and county of Honolulu.	Average of 47 cities.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
General government	6.1	7.2
Police department	13.1	10.2
Fire department	3.1	10.7
Conservation of health	6.2	10.7
Street department	20.9	11.6
Charities, hospitals, and corrections	.4	4.7
The schools	32.3	33.4
Libraries		1.4
Recreation	4.8	3.8
All other purposes	6.0	4.3

This table shows that in comparison with the average of the cities of its class Honolulu's proportionate expenditures for its police department, for its street and highways department, and for its recreations are greater; whereas for its general government, its fire department, the conservation of health, and its expenditure, for charities, hospitals and corrections, libraries, and public schools the proportionate amount is less.

An examination in detail of the list of 47 cities to which the city and county of Honolulu belongs shows that there are 20 cities in which the schools receive, as does Honolulu, less than one-third of the total municipal expenditure; that in 25 cities the schools' share ranges from one-third to one-half the aggregate expenditure; and that in two cities the proportion going to the schools is greater than one-half the aggregate expenditure.

It will be of interest to know the names of the cities taking, as does Honolulu, a one-third interest or less in their schools; also to know in what cities the expenditures for the public schools is greater than one-third of the aggregate municipal expenditure.

Cities which expended one-third or less of their aggregate expenditures on their schools (1918).

Cities.	Proportion of aggregate expenditure on schools.	Cities.	Proportion of aggregate expenditure on schools.
	Per cent.		*Per cent.*
Rochester, N. Y.	28.7	New Bedford, Mass.	27.5
Providence, R. I.	28.8	Nashville, Tenn.	32.4
St. Paul, Minn.	31.8	Cambridge, Mass.	31.2
Louisville, Ky.	29.8	Lowell, Mass.	28.5
Atlanta, Ga.	27.0	Albany, N. Y.	26.7
Syracuse, N. Y.	27.5	Lynn, Mass.	29.5
Memphis, Tenn.	28.0	Honolulu (city and county)	32.3
Worcester, Mass.	33.2	Houston, Tex.	33.1
Dayton, Ohio	33.2	Yonkers, N. Y.	32.7
Dallas, Tex.	32.3	Lawrence, Mass.	29.0
Bridgeport, Conn.	31.2		

Cities which expended more than one-third of their aggregate expenditures on their schools (1918).

Cities.	Proportion of aggregate expenditure on schools.	Cities.	Proportion of aggregate expenditure on schools.
	Per cent.		*Per cent.*
Denver, Colo.	34.2	Paterson, N. J.	40.5
Indianapolis, Ind.	36.5	Grand Rapids, Mich.	43.1
Columbus, Ohio	41.3	Fall River, Mass.	33.7
Oakland, Calif.	45.4	San Antonio, Tex.	34.5
Toledo, Ohio	41.4	Salt Lake City, Utah	45.0
Birmingham, Ala.	36.5	Tacoma, Wash.	43.5
Omaha, Nebr.	41.1	Trenton, N. J.	41.7
Spokane, Wash.	44.0	Hartford, Conn.	33.6
New Haven, Conn.	39.6	Reading, Pa.	37.6
Fort Worth, Tex.	37.0	Youngstown, Ohio	43.0
Camden, N. J.	39.6	Des Moines, Iowa	54.0
Springfield, Mass.	35.8	Schenectady, N. Y.	39.7
Richmond, Va.	33.9	Kansas City, Kans.	50.2
Scranton, Pa.	46.7		

THE TAX RATE AND PROPERTY VALUATION OF THE CITY AND COUNTY OF HONOLULU.

The tax rate of the city invariably attracts the attention of the taxpayers, but there is an important fact about tax rates which taxpayers, in making their comparisons, do not always take into account, and that is that the assessed valuation of property for purposes of taxation among cities ranges all the way from 20 per cent of the true value of the property to 100 per cent. More and more, cities of the mainland are adopting the plan of assessing their taxable property for its full market value, but there are still many cities which have not yet adopted this wise practice. In order, then, to compare one city with another in respect to rate of taxation it is necessary to change all actual rates to a rate which is based on the full valuation of the taxable property. This correction has been made for all cities of the mainland of 30,000 population and over by the United States Census Bureau and appears in Table 30 of the publication, Financial Statistics of Cities (1918).

The actual taxation rate for the city and county of Honolulu in 1918 was $18.30 for each thousand dollars of taxable property. Inasmuch as it is generally conceded by those in the Territory familiar with taxation matters that the assessment valuation is approximately 75 per cent of the actual market value of the property assessed, this rate then of $18.30, corrected in the same manner as are the rates of the mainland cities with which Honolulu is compared, should be, instead, $13.71 for each thousand of property valuation assessed at its full worth.

A UNIQUE TAXATION SYSTEM.

As compared with mainland cities the plan of raising taxes in the Territory of Hawaii is unique. Since 1901 the Territory has levied for general purposes an income tax of 2 per cent on personal incomes of more than $1,500 and, since 1909, an additional tax on all incomes above $4,000 has been levied. This latter tax, varying in rate with the size of the income, was originally intended to remain for but a two-year period; it has, however, been reenacted by each succeeding legislature.

The bulk of the property tax is paid by corporations and the method of assessment of these companies, known as the "enterprise for profit basis," is likewise unique. The law provides that in all cases where real and personal property are combined and made the basis of an enterprise for profit the enterprise shall be assessed as a whole on its fair and reasonable aggregate value. In estimating this aggregate value the net profits made by it, also the gross receipts and actual remaining expenses; and, where it is a corporation whose stock is quoted in the market, the market price of the stock is taken into consideration.

In practice, in making assessments, it is customary to capitalize the profits of four years at different rates per cent, according to the conditions affecting the particular enterprise. For example, if a plantations owns its land, if the soil is fertile and has a good water supply, the rate of capitalization is a low one. Where the profits are large the enterprise can well afford to pay the larger tax; where the profits are smaller the assessed value is automatically reduced.

These features of Hawaii's taxation system make it difficult to compare taxation rates and per capita valuations with those obtaining in mainland cities not subject to such a plan. However, inasmuch as tax rates in the islands fall most heavily upon the owners of non-income producing property, such as residence lots and their improvements, it would appear to be fair, if the comparison is not crowded too hard, to take the foregoing corrected rate, $13.71, as the normal general property tax rate for all property in the city and county of Honolulu except that belonging to the big corporations.

TAX RATE COMPARED WITH THAT OF OTHER CITIES.

It will be of interest to compare the corrected rate for the city and county of Honolulu, $13.71, with the rates of the 47 cities in Honolulu's population group corrected in the same manner. The table which follows, based on facts given in Financial Statistics of Cities (1918), Table 30, shows the tax rate for the 47 cities during 1918, corrected for true valuation, the estimated assessment valuation per capita of population, and the amount of city revenue expended on the schools per capita of population.

Estimated true valuation of taxable property per capita population, corrected tax rate, city revenue expended on schools, of cities between 100,000 and 300,000 population (1918).

Cities.	Estimated value per capita of population.	Tax rate corrected for true valuation.	City revenue expended on schools per capita of population.
Indianapolis, Ind	$1,551.00	$11.01	$5.77
Denver, Colo	1,233.00	16.88	6.23
Rochester, N. Y	1,193.00	17.18	6.32
Providence, R. I	1,592.00	13.86	7.10
St. Paul, Minn	1,581.00	10.64	5.37
Louisville, Ky	1,231.00	13.82	4.50
Columbus, Ohio	1,429.00	10.48	5.86
Oakland, Calif	1,406.00	12.51	8.07
Toledo, Ohio	1,600.00	11.09	6.27
Atlanta, Ga	1,557.00	8.48	3.94
Birmingham, Ala	925.00	6.00	2.85
Omaha, Nebr	1,558.00	15.01	6.96
Worcester, Mass	1,118.00	16.73	7.57
Richmond, Va	1,525.00	10.77	4.99
Syracuse, N. Y	1,247.00	15.78	5.16
Spokane, Wash	1,032.00	12.16	5.48
New Haven, Conn	1,123.00	18.66	7.47
Memphis, Tenn	1,305.00	10.82	3.82
Scranton, Pa	994.00	13.46	6.06
Paterson, N. J	862.00	15.89	5.51
Grand Rapids, Mich	1,291.00	13.08	7.86
Fall River, Mass	848.00	21.15	5.62
Dayton, Ohio	1,498.00	10.97	4.97
Dallas, Tex	2,085.00	9.45	5.23
San Antonio, Tex	1,203.00	15.57	5.13
Bridgeport, Conn	1,555.00	19.11	6.60
New Bedford, Mass	924.00	19.37	5.00
Salt Lake City, Utah	1,459.00	12.09	7.73
Nashville, Tenn	787.00	13.41	4.34
Cambridge, Mass	1,147.00	20.18	6.63
Lowell, Mass	794.00	20.00	4.76
Tacoma, Wash	1,093.00	13.26	5.29
Houston, Tex	1,293.00	15.57	5.00
Trenton, N. J	894.00	16.20	6.47
Hartford, Conn	1,498.00	14.52	8.98
Reading, Pa	815.00	11.20	3.52
Youngstown, Ohio	1,764.00	10.82	5.91
Fort Worth, Tex	996.00	12.40	3.23
Camden, N. J	799.00	18.87	5.76
Albany, N. Y	1,186.00	20.35	5.45
Springfield, Mass	1,698.00	14.81	9.76
Lynn, Mass	878.00	19.02	4.91
Des Moines, Iowa	1,665.00	16.96	10.10
Lawrence, Mass	817.00	14.77	4.00
Schenectady, N. Y	757.00	28.89	5.98
Yonkers, N. Y	1,488.00	19.81	7.88
Kansas City, Kans	934.00	14.50	5.67
Honolulu (city and county)	1,369.00	13.71	4.41

By examining the column in the preceding table, showing the amount of city revenue expended on the schools per capita of estimated popu-

lation, it is seen that only six cities expended less than Honolulu did; 23 cities expended from the same amount up to one-third more; seven cities expended from one-third to one-half more; eight cities expended from one-half to twice as much; while three cities expended twice as much or more.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE FOREGOING TABLE.

An examination of the foregoing table shows that Honolulu's corrected rate of $13.71 per thousand on the true value of property subject to general tax is below that of the median city of the group. That is to say, while there are 19 cities whose corrected rates for city purposes alone are lower than Honolulu's rate, there are 28 cities whose rates are higher. Of these 28 cities, in 18 the rates range from the same as the rate of Honolulu to one-third higher; in 8 cities the rates are from one-third to one-half higher; while in 2 cities—Schenectady, N. Y., and Fall River, Mass.—the city rates, corrected in the same way, are nearly twice the rate of the city and county of Honolulu. The average rate of the 47 cities listed is $14.83. Honolulu's rate, then, falls below this average by $1.12 per thousand.

While, as has already been pointed out, the taxation plan in operation in the Hawaiian Islands differs from that which obtains among the cities of the mainland, making it undesirable to crowd comparisons too hard, nevertheless the commission feels that from this comparative study of Territorial finance the following conclusion is abundantly justified, i. e., that the city and county of Honolulu, while much above the average city of the group considered in taxable wealth, ranks considerably below the average city in point of taxation rate and far below the average in the amount expended for public school purposes. The validity of this conclusion is further testified to when it is remembered that in all of the preceding comparisons relating to amounts expended for school purposes every city in the list has received for school purposes considerable amounts from county and State sources which have not been included in the foregoing tables, whereas the amount given as that which Honolulu expended on her schools, per capita of population, is the whole amount expended from whatever sources received. Were the figures giving the entire per capita expenditure for school purposes used the city and county of Honolulu would make a poor showing in point of rank, indeed. In so far as conditions in the city and county of Honolulu are typical of other counties of the islands in these matters, and the commission is of the opinion that they are closely representative, the foregoing conclusions will apply to the Territory as a whole.

In this connection, too, it must not be forgotten that the foregoing study has to do only with items of expenditure, such as salaries, supplies, and repairs, which are properly classed under the head of

"maintenance." The tables upon which the study is based do not include amounts invested by the several cities of the group considered, in sites for schools which in the cities are usually very costly; in buildings which must be erected to stand extremes of heat and cold; or in equipment. When it is recognized that except for Honolulu, Hilo, and a few smaller places, schools in the Territory are erected on land which has belonged to the territorial government since annexation, or on sites provided by plantation owners, without expense; that the climate does not require an expensive type of school building or buildings with any heating mechanism at all, it is obvious that the total expense to which the Territory has been placed on account of its schools is but a small fraction of the cost which communities on the mainland have had to meet.

Chapter III.

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE SCHOOLS.

CONTENTS.—1. Founding of Christian, Buddhist, and "Independent" schools: The beginnings were Christian: activities of Buddhist sects: the Hongwanji sect: number and classification of language schools. 2. The organization, support, and administration of Japanese schools: The support: the Japanese educational association. 3. The textbooks used in Japanese schools: Revision of the texts: description of the texts as revised. 4. The influence of foreign language schools: Effect on health of children: influence on progress in the public school: influence on loyalty to America. 5. Proposed legislation respecting language schools: Resolutions of the Daughters of the American Revolution: recommendations of the chamber of commerce: recommendations of the Ad Club: comments on proposals: plan proposed by the survey commission: the spirit in which the recommendations should be enforced.

1. THE FOUNDING OF CHRISTIAN, BUDDHIST, AND "INDEPENDENT" SCHOOLS.

THE BEGINNINGS WERE CHRISTIAN.

The first language school in the islands organized exclusively for children of foreign parentage was the one established in Honolulu, in April, 1896, by Rev. Takie Okumura, for Japanese children. This was followed the next year by the founding of another school for Japanese at Honomu, Island of Hawaii, by Rev. S. Sokabi. Both these scholarly Japanese gentlemen were Christian missionaries brought over from Japan by the Hawaiian Mission Board to assist in bringing the members of their race under Christian influence.

In their work of Christianizing the Japanese, many difficulties were encountered. The majority of the Japanese immigrants were from the two sections of Japan which constitute the stronghold of Buddhism in that country. Already there were many Buddhist priests in Honolulu and on the plantations. The small band of Japanese Christians soon brought down upon their heads the hostility of the Buddhist group, and in consequence for many years they experienced great hardships and even persecutions. Many of those weak in Christian faith, unable to stand up against the pressure, deserted their churches; only the stronger ones, fired with true Christian zeal, stood their ground.

These men and women were tremendously active. They established night schools, where the Japanese were taught the English language. They organized temperance societies, and, in places, benevolent societies to help the unfortunate. Frequently they were appealed to to settle family quarrels, to adjust controversies between the plantation managers and laborers, to write home letters for their illiterate compatriots, and so, by utilizing every opportunity for service these Japanese Christian ministers gradually broke down the

open hostility toward Christian influences, so strongly expressed in these early days by the mass of Japanese. To the devoted men and women of this early period there is due much more credit for softening the hearts of the Japanese toward western spirit and influence than has ever been recognized.

During this period the great majority of Japanese on the islands were indentured laborers, brought here by former Hawaiian governments on a three-year contract. During the 14-year period, between 1885, when the first company arrived, and 1900, when the Territory became a part of the United States, 70,000 were brought in under such a contract. All intended to return to Japan upon the expiration of their period of indenture, and many did; but some remained longer to accumulate more money; but none at that time expected to remain in the islands permanently.

In 1900, when the islands passed under the control of the United States, the status of the Japanese immigrants suddenly changed. All contract laborers became free laborers, and labor exploiters from the States began to pour into the Territory, telling fabulous tales of the fortunes to be made on the mainland. Lured by these glowing pictures, the ignorant laborers of the islands began flocking into California. Steamers, chartered for the purpose, began to appear, and soon thousands of Japanese were leaving Hawaii for the Pacific coast; in turn other thousands from Japan began arriving in Hawaii as free laborers, not with the intention of establishing themselves there permanently but of crossing to the mainland as soon as they could earn their passage money. In six years alone, from 1901 to 1907, 40,000 entered the Territory from Japan, more than half of whom came with the intention of crossing to California.

When the citizens of California saw this avalanche of cheap, ignorant, oriental labor coming upon them, a panic ensued. A great wave of indignation and of anti-Japanese feeling swept the coast, resulting in efforts to control and check what was believed to be an imminent danger. The agitation finally led to the adoption of the so-called "Gentleman's Agreement" with Japan, whereby the influx of Japanese laborers was cut-off, not only from the coast but from Hawaii as well.

Meanwhile, to add to the restlessness and discontent of the race, the more intelligent Japanese parents were complaining that their children were not only growing up without the ability to speak correct Japanese and to read and write it, but were in fact acquiring a curious mongrel dialect made up of words taken from the different languages.

Rev. Okumura relates that during his first month in Hawaii he saw a little Japanese girl standing alone at the door of his church. Thinking that she might be lonely, he tapped her on the shoulder

and inquired if she had come with her mother. Her reply was "Me mama hanahana yokonai." Failing to understand her, he called to a friend who had been longer in the islands and learned that, "Me mama" was a corrupted English phrase for "my mother"; that "hanahana" was the Hawaiian for "work"; and that "yokonai" was a Japanese expression equivalent to "can not come." Repeatedly parents asserted that they could not understand the language of their children nor be understood by them; and repeatedly came the request that opportunity be provided for the systematic instruction of Japanese children in their native tongue.

The naturalness and reasonableness of this desire at the time can not be questioned, particularly when it is recalled that the Japanese had no thought of remaining in the islands; that most of them were leaving upon the expiration of their contract; that a six-year residence in Hawaii was regarded as a very long term for any man; and that the children, upon their return to Japan, seemed like foreigners in their own country. The group of Japanese Christian ministers saw in this situation a further opportunity to render a useful service to their countrymen; to advance the Christian faith in the good will of the people of their race; and to make their people more contented and less eager to leave Hawaii for California or Japan. And so it came about that through the personal initiative, first of Rev. Okumura, followed a little later by Rev. Sokabi, two schools were established, as already related.

The beginning was modest indeed; 30 pupils, a borrowed room, one teacher who had a Japanese license to teach, and a contribution of $15 for benches, tables, and equipment; that was all. Within a few months the number of pupils was multiplied, liberal contributions began to be made, a house suitable to the purpose was rented; and three years later a generous plat of land on Nuuanu Street, Honolulu, was purchased and a school building was erected. Thus began the present Japanese Central Institute of Honolulu, which now enrolls over 700 pupils, and which was the first of that chain of Japanese schools now encircling the islands.

As founded the school was frankly Christian in its purpose and influence, but when the school was moved to its permanent quarters, foreseeing that it might give the Buddhists a pretext for starting a school for the promotion of their own faith, it was separated from all religious connections. A committee of 40, with Consul General Saito as its chairman, was placed in charge of the school which soon came to be a center for community work among the Japanese. Other schools, likewise independent of religious connections, were soon organized in the other islands. A campaign was launched to interest the Japanese Government in the project and to secure from it financial support for these "independent" schools, but the attempt was unsuccessful.

ACTIVITIES OF BUDDHIST SECTS.

Of the 12 principal sects into which Buddhism in Japan is divided, 5 are represented in Hawaii: The Shingon, Nichiren, Sodo, Jodo, and the Shin-Shu, more popularly known as the Hongwanji. Each of these sects, differing from one another only in points which are highly technical and metaphysical, has not only erected temples for worship in the islands but also has, except for the first two sects, followed with the establishment of schools for the purpose, it is announced, of enabling children of Japanese parents to acquire the Japanese language.

The Shingon sect built its first temple in the islands in 1914, incorporating it in 1918. The sect now has 18 temples, situated at various points in the islands. It publishes a monthly periodical called "The Henjo," which reports the activities of the different temples in Hawaii. The sect has established no schools, organizations, or other activities, as have most of the other Buddhist groups. Its home temple is at Koyasan, Japan.

The Nichiren sect was first represented in the islands in 1900. The first church established by this sect was erected in 1902 at Pahala, Island of Hawaii. Then followed, in 1911, a temple at Honolulu. Another temple has recently been completed, situated also in Honolulu. At present the Nichiren mission supervises, besides the central temple at Honolulu, two temples, at Wailuku, Maui, and at Pahala, Hawaii. Each temple has two organizations: "The Society for the Study of Nichiren Principles" and "The Branch of Muragumo Women's Association" (of Japan). Like the Shingon sect, it has founded no schools.

The Sodo sect began its work in the islands in 1903. In 1912 the sect in Japan sent H. Isobe to the islands in the capacity of director and superintendent of the Sodo mission. Since then the activities of the mission have spread to Kauai, Maui, Hawaii, and rural Oahu. In 1914 a women's educational department was organized which is centering its efforts on the education of girls. There are now seven stations in the islands, besides the central temple at Honolulu, and three schools with an aggregate enrollment in excess of 600 pupils.

The Jodo sect, in the islands, is second only to the Hongwanji in importance. Its activities in Hawaii began in 1894, when two priests from the Tokyo board of the Jodo mission arrived. In 1899, as a result of a conference of the leaders of the sect in Japan, Hawaii, together with Korea and Formosa, became the mission field of the sect. At first the mission's activities in the islands were confined to the Island of Hawaii, where temples were built and educational and religious work carried on. In 1900 a mission in Honolulu was opened upon what is now the site of the head temple. In 1909 missionary

activity was begun on Maui and on Kauai. Twenty-one temples have been erected in the islands and a complete system established for intercommunication among these and with the main temple at Honolulu. Each temple has an organization called "Myojo," comprising four divisions of activity: Adult men, young men, women, and children. In 1911 the mission established the Hawaii Girls' School and began the publication of a monthly paper devoted to Jodo propaganda. The schools established by this sect now number 18, having an aggregate enrollment of approximately 1,600 pupils. In this work the mission seems to have fixed its attention on the education of girls.

THE HONGWANJI SECT AND ITS ACTIVITIES.

The Nishi Hongwanji is by far the strongest Buddhist sect in the islands, as it is in Japan, embracing about 75,000 members of the island population. This sect in Japan is controlled by a cabinet formed of high priests at whose head stands the "Hoss," or chief priest. The Hoss is held in very high esteem by members of the sect, who honor him as they would a living Buddha. The Hoss is represented in the islands by a "Kantoku" (Bishop Imamura), who has absolute authority over the priests and teachers of the sect as well as over its members, controlling the whole body, according to a Japanese authority, "as easily as one moves his fingers."

The first disciples sent from Japan by the Home Temple of the Hongwanji Buddhists arrived in Hawaii in 1897. At the time of their arrival there was a small preaching station at Honolulu and one at Hilo. The work at these points had been carried on for some nine years prior to this time, though it had never been recognized by the Home Temple in Japan. These emissaries sent back a favorable report on conditions, accompanied by a request from the interested Japanese of Honolulu and Hilo asking that the field be recognized as a part of the Hongwanji mission of the home country. Accordingly, in 1898, a bishop to Hawaii was appointed, who, a year later, was succeeded by the present bishop, Bishop Imamura.

Since this time, under his active leadership, the sect has made a remarkable growth in the islands. According to reports filed with the commission, there are now in the islands, operating under the auspices of the Hongwanji mission, the following activities:

60 churches and substations, besides the main temple at Honolulu, completed in 1918 at a cost of $100,000.

About 30 Young Men's Buddhist Associations, with an estimated membership of 1,100.

40 women's Buddhist Associations, having an estimated membership of 4,500.

33 Sunday schools, enrolling about 4,000 children.

42 Japanese language schools, having 155 teachers and an enrollment of 7,100 children.

The Higashi branch of the Hongwanji sect is now very inactive in the islands. About 20 years ago a priest of this branch came to Waimea, Kauai, and established a mission. Three years later a second mission was opened, also on the Island of Kauai. In 1916 the head temple was erected at Honolulu. There are now in the islands only 4 priests of this branch of the Hongwanji. The sect maintains one language school of 2 teachers and 232 pupils, situated at Waimea, Kauai.

NUMBER AND CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE SCHOOLS.

In addition to the schools organized by Christian and Buddhist sects, there are a number of schools which have yielded to the advice given by the more progressive Japanese leaders and have dissociated themselves from religious connections and affiliations actually in a number of instances; in name only in a number of other cases. To what degree each is actually independent in fact, and to what degree each is still responsive to religious influence is conjectural.

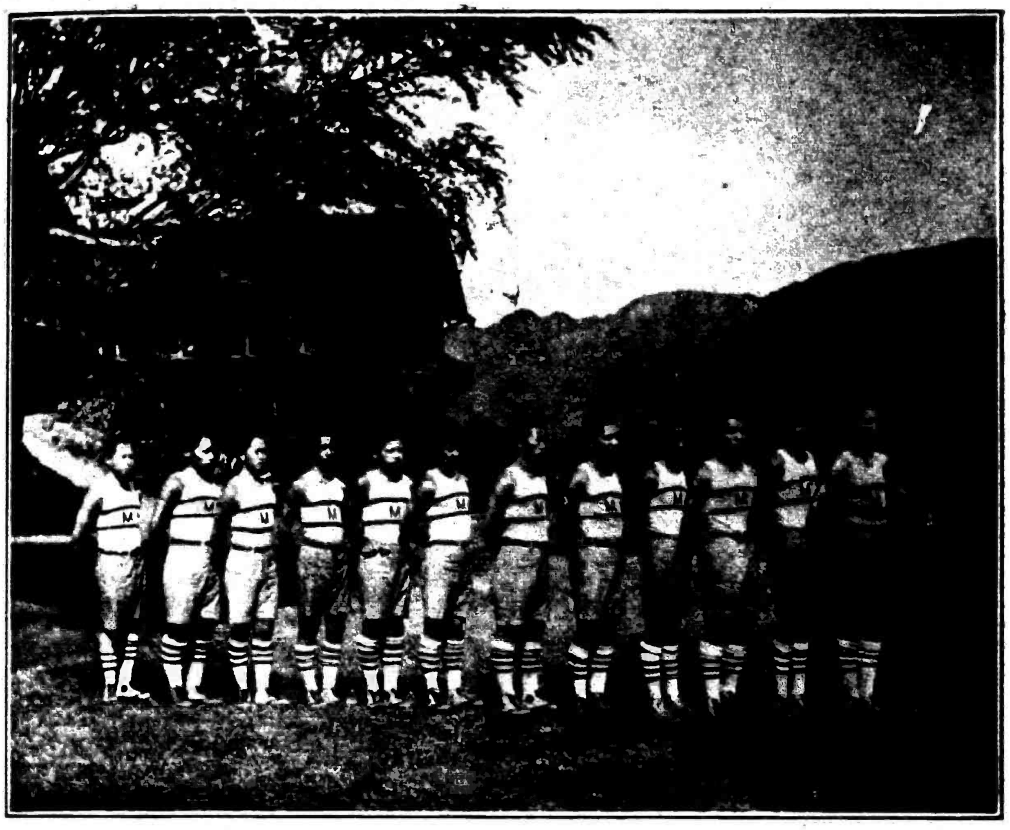
Other national groups besides the Japanese have organized schools for the purpose of teaching their native languages. Thus, in response to the quickening of the Korean nationalistic spirit, some 10 schools, enrolling about 800 children, have been established in the islands for the teaching of the Korean language. The Chinese also have about 12 schools, with an approximate enrollment of 1,150 children. In addition, there are numerous groups of Chinese children about the islands meeting at homes for the purpose of studying the Chinese language. The schools are organized and conducted much as are the Japanese schools, except that they are without religious affiliations or connections.

The following table shows the number of foreign-language schools and their status respecting religious affiliations, as nearly as the commission was able to determine:

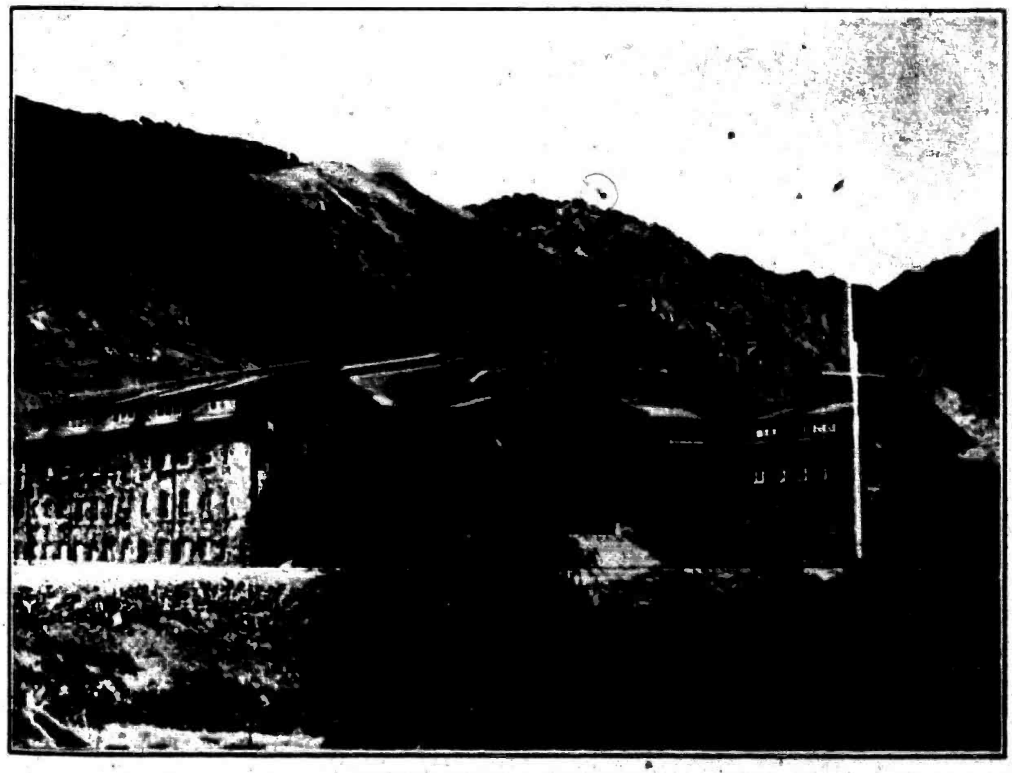
Number of foreign language schools, their enrollment and teachers, and their religious connections.

Religion.	Number of schools.	Number of teachers.	Approximate enrollment.
Japanese:			
Christian	10	23	507
Buddhist:			
Sodo sect	3	7	600
Jodo sect	18	51	1,600
Hongwanji sect	42	155	7,100
Independent[1]	90	213	10,389
Korean schools (independent)	10	12	800
Chinese schools (independent)	12	28	1,150
Total	185	489	22,146

[1] Some of these are not independent in fact.

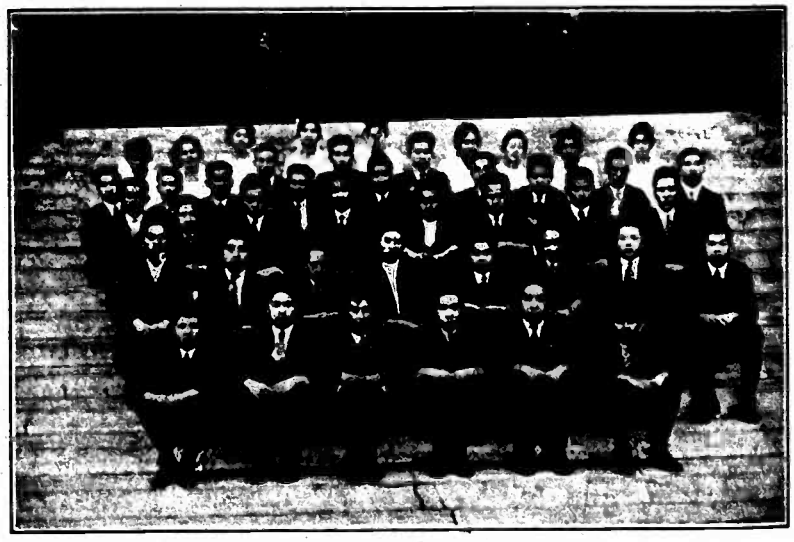


ATHLETIC TEAM—MID-PACIFIC INSTITUTE.

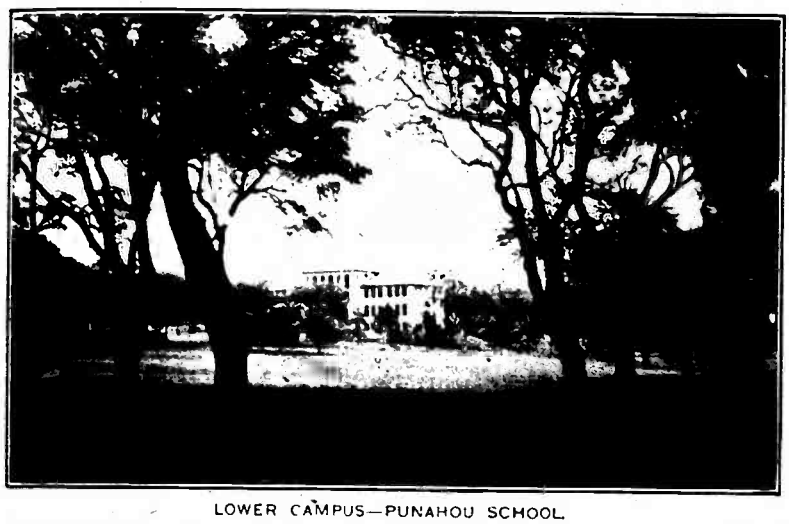


MID-PACIFIC INSTITUTE.

STUDENT TYPES—MID-PACIFIC INSTITUTE.



STUDENT TYPES—MID-PACIFIC INSTITUTE.



LOWER CAMPUS—PUNAHOU SCHOOL.

ALEXANDER FIELD—PUNAHOU SCHOOL.

CAMPUS, PUNAHOU SCHOOL.

ANOTHER VIEW OF CAMPUS, PUNAHOU SCHOOL.

2. ORGANIZATION, SUPPORT AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE JAPANESE SCHOOLS.

SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS.

In general the Japanese language schools are supported by tuition fees paid by the parents of children who attend, by subscriptions made by interested Japanese, and by the corporations owning and operating the plantations. In most instances the land on which the schools and temples are erected is plantation land leased for the purpose without charge; in some localities where land is not controlled by the plantations, sites have been purchased and title secured. In a number of instances the organizers of the school or temple provide the lumber and building materials and the plantation carpenters erect the buildings; in some cases both materials and labor are supplied by the plantation management. The plantations in most cases also contribute definite monthly amounts to the support of these activities; in some cases the salary of the entire teaching force is assumed by the plantation. Formerly the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association turned over to the Japanese consul considerable sums to be used by him in assisting such work, together with other welfare activities among his people, but the association discontinued this practice some years ago.

Without doubt the planters contribute to the support of these schools in order that their employees may be better satisfied with plantation conditions. It is but a phase of the movement, now setting in strongly, to provide better housing, health, recreational, and educational advantages for workers, and the motive back of it calls for commendation rather than condemnation.

For the convenience of the children the buildings are usually very near the public schools. In structure they compare favorably with the buildings erected by the Territorial Department of Public Instruction, though they are not so well equipped. The desks in most schools, for example, are rough, home-made benches, while the rooms themselves are bare and unattractive in appearance. Frequently the head teacher and his family live in one portion of the building. The grounds are usually ample for play activities, quite as ample, indeed, as are those belonging to the public schools.

Most of the schools are of elementary grade, though a few kindergartens have been organized, and in 11 schools work corresponding to that of the public high school is attempted. In all cases the teachers of the schools are brought from Japan, none being Hawaiian-born or educated. Most of these are certificated teachers in their home country, many having taught in the public schools of Japan. A number of the teachers, particularly those of the Hongwanji sect, are priests and conduct the temple rites and ceremonies.

While, doubtless, many teachers are brought from Japan rather than procured from among Hawaiian-born Japanese because it is sincerely believed that they speak a purer Japanese, nevertheless some, at least, share the opinion frankly expressed recently before the Japanese Educational Association of Maui by Mr. Obata Shusan, formerly head priest of the Jodo Shu Mission at Puunene, Maui, and principal of the Mitsuka Girls' School. In characterizing the type of instructor which he thought the language schools needed he said:

> Any man who is to teach Japanese language schools should not be a man with democratic ideas. The language school is not a place for a man with strong democratic ideas. A man of strong Japanese ideas should be its teacher.

The teachers themselves are paid a modest salary, ranging from $30 to $50 per month. This is often supplemented, however, by amounts received for the performance of temple services. At the last annual meeting of the Japanese Educational Association the following resolution was adopted.

> We, the teachers, feeling the pressure of high cost of living, due to the unusual high price of commodities, and seeing that we are unable to guarantee safe living or maintain proper dignity with very limited income compared with that of others, do hereby resolve to demand of the administrative authorities of the respective schools an increase of over 30 per cent of our present salaries.

SCHOOL SESSIONS.

A good deal of variation in the daily session is to be found among the schools. Most schools have either a two or three hour session, an hour or an hour and a half before the public school opens, and the same after it closes in the afternoon. In a few schools, however, it is reported that children assemble as early as 6 a. m. for a two and a half hour morning session before the public school opens. In some instances the older children attend in the morning, the younger in the afternoon. In other instances all attend both sessions. In still other cases children attend one hour in the morning and two hours in the afternoon.

Until recently the Japanese children attended their schools on Saturdays and the year around as well, except for a two weeks' vacation in the summer. Now, however, a month is allowed during the summer and no attendance required on Saturdays. Other vacations also correspond more closely to those granted by the public school.

THE JAPANESE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The affairs of the Japanese language schools are nominally controlled by the Japanese Educational Association, which was organized in 1914. This association is essentially a teachers' association, a stipulation being that "only the teachers or those who are actually teaching in Japanese language schools are eligible for membership."

At the first meeting of the association an effort was made to include persons who are interested in the work of Japanese schools other than the teachers, but this suggestion was rejected. The meetings of the association, therefore, which have since been held at stated times, have had no representation from those outside the teaching corps.

Branch associations have been formed in each of the islands: Two on Kauai, one on Oahu, three on Hawaii, and one on Maui. A standing committee of four cares for the interests of the association between conferences. Upon the convening of the annual conference, the delegates from the branch associations by ballot elect three officers of the conference—chairman, vice chairman, and secretary.

The association looks out for the interests of the schools and the teachers; it recommends and suggests reforms; but it has no authority to do more than recommend policies and changes. Indeed, the association has so far found it very difficult to outline an educational policy which will command the support of the Hongwanji, the Jodo, the Independent, and the Christian groups.

The delegation from each branch association to the general association is not limited. The association contributes part of the traveling expenses of the delegates, and the larger the balance in the fund the greater the number of delegates. Usually each branch association sends two or three representatives. On any question, however, when branch associations feel that a critical matter is to be considered, the delegates are much more numerous. The 1919 conference recently held in Honolulu was considered a very important one, both because of the legislation which the Territory sought to adopt respecting the activities of the Japanese language schools, and also because of the fact that one of the branch associations presented a resolution that the language schools be divorced from all religious connections.

Before the annual conference convenes, each branch association adopts a list of suggested resolutions. This list is forwarded to the central association in Honolulu. These proposed resolutions are then printed and submitted to the conference where each is gone over word for word and adopted or rejected by formal vote. The resolutions, in the form finally adopted, express the wish of the central association, but the association has no authority or power to compel either the branch associations or the language schools in the several islands to carry the adopted resolutions into effect. In consequence, there have been formulated many provisions which read very well to those who are examining them, but which are found, upon inquiry, never to have been executed. In one particular, however, the Japanese Educational Association has taken a significant step and that is in revising the textbooks formerly used in the Japanese schools and adapting them, to some degree at least, to local needs and shaping them up to eliminate the criticism to which they have recently been subjected.

3. THE CHARACTER OF THE TEXTBOOKS USED IN THE JAPANESE SCHOOLS.

THE REVISION OF THE JAPANESE TEXTBOOKS.

At the annual conference of the Japanese Educational Association in 1915 it was urged by the Japanese consul and some of the progressive Japanese leaders that the type of instruction which prevailed in the Japanese language schools should immediately be given up and that the textbooks then used, which were compiled under the direction of the Japanese Government and which were intended for the training of Japanese subjects, should be revised. It was urged that the content of these Japanese texts was written from the imperialistic standpoint, and that the use of such texts in the language schools of Hawaii, even though not with the purpose of teaching imperialistic ideals or for the training of Japanese citizenship, would surely invite suspicion and give rise to misunderstandings on the part of the American people, and that in consequence the books should be so changed as to make them more adaptable to conditions in Hawaii and at the same time to promote thereby, as far as possible, American citizenship.

This proposal was adopted and a committee was appointed, one Buddhist and one Christian being among the number, to revise the texts. Prof. Y. Haga, of the Tokyo Imperial University, was invited to undertake the revision. He came to Honolulu and made a study of conditions among the islands, remaining here some three months. He was assisted in his work by Mr. Tsunoda, of the Hongwanji Buddhist mission, and Mr. K. Kakehi, then secretary of the citizenship campaign committee of the Territorial Young Men's Christian Association, now secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association at Nagasaki, Japan. These gentlemen were also assisted in securing material by a committee appointed by the Japanese Educational Association of Hawaii.

The fund for the publication of the textbooks was provided by the Prince Fushimi memorial educational committee. Prince Fushimi, on his return to Japan from a visit to England, stopped at Honolulu and left a sum of money for the purpose of helping needy Japanese children. The memorial educational committee was organized to superintend the distribution of this fund. It used to offer prizes to pupils who made high records in their studies in the several language schools. Recently this plan was given up and the income employed in educating a Hawaiian-born young man at an American college. For a time, however, a portion of its income was diverted to the publishing of the textbooks, as already indicated.

THE TEXTBOOKS AS REVISED.

Twelve years is the period of study covered by the Japanese language schools. This period is broken into two principal divisions: The lower or secondary division of eight years, and the higher or advanced, of four years. The books used in the first division consist of eight readers graded in difficulty; six are primary grade books and two grammar grade. In the high schools under the control of the Hongwanji mission the books used are the same as those used in the high schools of Japan, these not having been revised as have the books employed in the lower division. The table which follows gives the courses of study in these high schools and the textbooks used.[2]

Course of study offered in the Japanese high schools of the Hongwanji Buddhists, Hawaiian Islands.[a]

	Preparatory course.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.
Moral Teaching. Etiquette (girls).	The Middle School Moral Precepts, Book I.	The Middle School Moral Precepts, Book I.	The Middle School Moral Precepts, Book II.	The Middle School Moral Precepts, Book III.	The Middle School Moral Precepts, Books IV and V.
Readings.	New Middle School Readers, Book I.	New Middle School Readers, Books II and III.	New Middle School Readers, Books IV and V.	New Middle School Readers, Books VI and VII.	New Middle School Readers, Books VIII and IX.
Composition.	Composition.	Composition.	Composition.	Composition.[b]	Composition.
Penmanship.	Penmanship.	Penmanship.	Penmanship.	Penmanship.	Penmanship.
History (oral).	Historical stories.	Japanese Ancient Stories.	Japanese Medieval Stories.	Japanese Modern History.	Japanese Civilization.
Geography (oral).	.....	Geography of Japan.	Geography of Japan.	.....	.....
Translations.	Eggleston's A First Book in American History.	Eggleston's A First Book in American History.	C. F. Dole's The Young Citizen.	Lafcadio Hearn's "Kokoro."	Dr. I. Nitobe's "Bushido" and Five Appeals to American Patriotism.
Gymnastics (boys)	Gymnastics.	Gymnastics.	.....	.....	.....
Music (girls).[b]	Music.	Music.	Music.	Music.	.....

[a] Daily lessons cover 1 hour and 20 minutes, from 7 to 8.20 a. m.
[b] Besides for girls there are optional courses of sewing, etiquette, handicraft, and Japanese music.

BOOKS USED IN THE LOWER DIVISION.

Each of the first six of the eight books used in the lower division of schools is made up by taking the texts used in the Japanese Government schools, omitting certain chapters and lessons and substituting therefor a content dealing with American and Hawaiian subjects and reprinting the remaining chapters as they occur in the Government texts.

[2] A translation of the lesson titles of these books will be found in the appendix.

Primary Book No. 1 is organized from Books I and II of the Japanese Government texts. This book consists of two parts. The first part (pp. 1–41) is essentially a primer, containing words, short phrases, and illustrations. On the first page is the word "hata," meaning flag, with a picture of the American and Japanese flags in color. On the second page are four characters meaning "tako" or kite, and "koma" or top, with appropriate illustrations. The children are depicted garbed in American dress. Part 2 comprises 24 chapters or lessons, 14 of which are taken from the Government texts. There are no distinctly American subjects treated in this book, and only one Hawaiian subject, that being in the eighteenth lesson, which is descriptive of the papaia and guava fruits growing plentifully in the islands.

Primary Book No. 2 consists of portions of Books III and IV of the Japanese Government texts. There are 52 lessons in this book, 34 of them having been taken from the Government books. One only, No. 16, entitled "Washington's Honesty" (the cherry tree story), deals with an American subject. Nine treat of Hawaiian topics. These are entitled, respectively: "The Mango," "May Day," "The Lizard," "The Mountain Apple" (Ohia), "Our Plantation," "The View from the Mountain" (Punchbowl), "The Taro," "The Man-eating Shark," and "Sugar Cane."

Lesson No. 34, entitled "The Tenchosetsu," meaning the Emperor's birthday, runs as follows:

> The thirty-first day of October is the day we celebrate the Tenchosetsu. The Tenchosetsu means the day on which our Emperor was born. August 31 is the real day on which our Emperor was born, and that day should be the Tenchosetsu. But October 31 has been set as the day on which we should celebrate. On this day every Japanese in Japan or in any foreign country celebrates the birthday. There is no place which does not celebrate. Is it not glorious to see the flag of the sun shining in the light of the dawn?
>
> Do you know any other holiday? In Japan New Year's Day and Kigensetsu (the Accession Day of first Emperor Jinmu) are the most important holidays. New Year's Day is the day on which we celebrate the coming of a new year. The Kigensetsu is the day on which our first Emperor, Jinmu, acceded to the throne.
>
> The people of every nation have a day which they cannot forget. Such a day is called a national holiday. In America Independence Day, Washington's Birthday, and Christmas are the most important holidays. (Translation.)

Primary Book No. 3 is taken from Books V and VI of the Government reading series. It comprises 54 lessons, 3 of which are on American and 11 on Hawaiian topics. The lessons on American topics are entitled: "Independence Day," a very good but short description of the war with England and the declaring of independence, "Arbor Day," and "Washington." Lessons on Hawaiian topics treat of "The Ulu" (a fruit), "Kapiolani Park," "The Aquarium" (at Honolulu), "Surf-riding," "The Hawaiian Islands" (chiefly descriptive of the volcanoes), "The Kukui Nut," "Honolulu" (places of

interest in the city), "A Letter from Honolulu," "Lei," "Pineapples," and "The Discovery of Fire" (from Hawaiian folklore).

A number of the lessons deal with Japanese mythology. The second lesson, entitled "The Golden Kite," is characteristic. A translation follows:

The first Emperor of Japan is called Jinmu. When this Emperor was on an expedition against the bad people, a golden kite, coming from no one knows where, perched upon the tip of his bow. The bad people could not open their eyes in that dazzling bright gleaming. The bad people were afraid of that light and ran away. The Emperor subdued the bad people of the whole country, and then he held the accession ceremony. That day falls on February 11th, and we call it the Kigensetsu (the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jinmu) and every year we celebrate it. (The Government text contains a longer story supplemented by the myth of the crow that guided Jinmu on his journey to fight his enemies.)

Primary Book No. 4 comprises parts of Books VII and VIII of the Government series and contains 56 lessons. Only two lessons in this book, the ninth and forty-fourth, touch on matters in any sense American. The first describes the memorial service for the dead in Hawaii and America, comparing it with the Japanese ceremonies for departed heroes, and the great Buddhist festivals of Bon, occurring in July, when the spirits of dead ancestors are supposed to revisit the earth. The second is a brief sketch of the life of Franklin.

Three lessons deal with Hawaiian subjects: "Hawaii" (a description of the islands, with a map), "Washington's Birthday" and the "Mid-Pacific Carnival," and "The Owl Returns a Favor" (a Hawaiian story).

A number of the lessons consist of typical Japanese hero stories. The fortieth, entitled "The Forty-seven Ronins," will illustrate. The story, which is based on historical incident, is greatly admired by Japanese because it exemplifies loyalty at its best. As the story runs, the 47 ronins were the retainers of the Lord of Ako, who was sentenced to commit suicide for having wounded a nobleman by the name of Kira, who insulted Ako. The enormity of the offense was the greater because it had been committed within the precincts of a temple. This band of men resolved to avenge the death of their master, which they did somewhat over a year later. They killed Kira and then calmly awaited the sentence of self-execution (hara-kiri). This they performed and were buried beside their master in Sengakuji, a Buddhist temple in Tokyo.

The lesson begins by saying, "The story which every Japanese never gets tired of hearing again and again is the story of the 47 ronins of Ako." And it ends with these words, "Every person in Japan praises the loyalty of this band of 47 ronins. But because they broke the law of the country the ronins were sentenced to 'hara-kiri' on February of the following year. The youngest of the ronins was Chikara, son of Yoshio. He was 16 years of age at that time."

Another type of story contained in Book No. 4, also based on Japanese history, describes an episode in the life of the founder of the Jodo sect of Buddhists. This is No. 50 and is entitled "Seishimaru." Seishimaru was the boyhood name of Genku Jonin, the founder of the Jodo sect. One day his father, Uruma Tokikuni, a samurai of Mimasaka-no-kuni, was attacked by another samurai, named Akashi Sadaakira, with a band of his followers. Tokikuni was all alone in his house when the attack was made. He defended himself single handed and was wounded in many places. Sadaakira, the assailant, was suddenly struck by an arrow which came from somewhere, which no one knew. Immediately he died.

Beside the deathbed of his father, Tokikuni, Seishimaru resolved to avenge his father's disgrace. But his father would not allow it. He pleaded that his son would forget the incident and become a Buddhist priest and serve his fellow men. Seishimaru followed the advice of his father and became a great priest, who was called later Genku Jonin, the founder of Jodo Shu.

Primary Book No. 5 contains lessons from Books IX and X of the Japanese Government readers, although not so many have been used as in the preceding books. There are 68 lessons, comprising three on American topics: "Mother's Day," "General Grant" (his life and trip to Japan described), and "Thanksgiving Day and the Harvest Festival." The latter compares the Puritan's Thanksgiving with the Japanese Harvest Festival, said to be the same thing. Four lessons deal with Hawaiian topics. These are entitled: "Captain Cook" (the discovery of Hawaii), "The Great King Kamehameha," "Hawaiian Correspondence," and "Hawaii" (a poem with an English translation). The sixty-seventh lesson consists of an account of George Shima, the "Potato King of California."

Primary Book No. 6, the last of the primary series, contains some lessons taken from Books XI and XII of the Japanese series. Nine deal with topics American, and seven treat of Hawaiian topics. The first group includes the following titles: "Columbus's Discovery of America," "Baseball and Football," "The Pacific Coast of the United States" (2 lessons), "Washington," "Lincoln," "America and Hawaii" (a brief account of Hawaii from the missionary period to the annexation of the islands), "The Story of the Declaration of Independence," and "The Mixture of the American Race" (an account of the mixture of the nationalities in the United States). The group dealing with Hawaiian subjects comprises the following titles: "The Paradise of the Pacific" (Hawaii), "Famous Places of Honolulu," "One Year in Honolulu," "Japan and Hawaii" (a brief account of Hawaii's relationship to Japan), "History of the Coming of the Japanese to Hawaii," "Pearl Harbor" (a description of the naval station at Pearl Harbor and the fort at Diamond Head), and "Making the Camps Beautiful" (plantation camps).

The first lesson in the book comprises the famous Japanese Imperial Rescript on Education. This rescript is generally regarded as epitomizing Japanese morals. It is read with ceremony twice every week and on national holidays in the schools of Japan. A translation follows:

Know ye our subjects:

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; our subjects ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of our Empire, and herein also lies the source of our education. Ye, our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husband and wife be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourself courageously to the State, and thus guard and maintain the propriety of our Imperial Throne coeval with Heaven and Earth. So shall ye be not only our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by their descendants and the subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue.

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji Era (1890).

(Imperial Sign Manual. Privy Seal.)

The last lesson in the book is likewise interesting, for it consists of an injunction to maintain good citizenship, written for Hawaiian-born Japanese children, who are addressed as "Future American Citizens." A translation reads as follows:

Your forefathers left the far fatherland and came to Hawaii. The majority of you were born in Hawaii and have received your education in the public schools of the Territory and have been granted the birthright of American citizenship. The greater part of you will not fail to become American citizens and you must stand in the world as good citizens. Now, your forefathers belonged to the land of Japan; at the same time they desire that which you are doing in the world.

Among the American citizens are those whose forefathers have either come from England, or from Germany, or from France. Besides, there are those who came from Russia, Spain, Italy, and Portugal. Moreover, there are Chinese, black people, and mixed breeds. All are enjoying equality under the Stars and Stripes. Further, at your school there are children of every nationality studying together as friends. It is desirable that your school should excel other schools on all points, and you should desire that your school should be better than other schools. As future American citizens, you should resolve to exert yourselves in the country's cause and for its development. The prosperity or decline of the country depends upon the people of the nation. You should resolve to stand for justice, fair and impartial; you should be good citizens of the country.

Since the beginning of the nation's history, the forefathers of the land of Japan have shown distinct character. You have learned many historical stories and you know the real development of the land of Japan. When you stand with other races in competition, you must not lose self-confidence, the essential traits of the Japanese race, and the conviction that you are the excelled descendants of the nation of Japan.

Do not forget the strong points of the Japanese nation; preserve the good traits; and so conduct yourselves that you be esteemed by all races in America. Future American citizens, do not bring a stain upon the name of the fatherland and do not disgrace your ancestor's name.

Grammar Grade Book No. 1 consists of 78 lessons, none of which deals with distinctively American subjects; nine, however, relate to Hawaiian topics. A translation of the lesson titles will serve to show pretty clearly the nature of the contents of this book. This follows:

1. Introduction to Japanese Geography. (Illustrated with a map.)
2. The Age of Gods. (The period preceding the accession of the first Emperor Jinmu. The lesson attempts to fix the origin of Japanese Empire.)
3. Prehistoric Japanese. (Characteristics.)
4. The House.
5. The Accession of Jinmu Tenno (first Emperor).
6. To-day. (In verse. English translation is given.)
7. The Caravan. (The story of Ali and Hassen.)
8. Yamatotakeru-no-mikoto. (The account of a prehistoric personage who did so much in the building of the Japanese Empire.)
9. Kansei Provinces.
10. Same. (Description of the provinces with maps.)
11. Letter from Hawaii.
12. The Sky of the Mid Sea Island.
13. The Mountains of Hawaii.
14. Nakahama Manjiro. (Account of the first Japanese who came to Hawaii.)
15. The Conquest of Korea and the Introduction of Culture and Industry into Japan.
16. The Introduction of Buddhism and the Progress of Culture and Art.
17. Himalaya and Ganges.
18. Elephant Hunting.
19. Tropical Fruits.
20. The People of Ruined Nations.
21. The Englishmen.
22. Commodore Nelson. (Battle of Trafalgar.)
23. The Ship Route. (In verse.)
24. The Habitat of Different Animals.
25. Courage.
26. On the Way in Uniform. (Depicts the mobilization of the army. The object of the lesson, loyalty to the country.)
27. Manufacture of Sugar.
28. The Fishery of Hawaii. (Tells that Japanese control it.)
29. Pineapple and Coffee Industries in Hawaii. (Tells that the majority of the independent pineapple planters and 90 per cent of the coffee planters are Japanese.)
30. Filial Piety.
31. Shiohara Tasuke. (Story of thrift.)
32. The Renaissance of Taika.
33. Same.
34. Tales of Korea.
35. Forward. (In verse.)
36. The Protecting Eye and Arm of a Nation. (Story of Horatius.)
37. Julius Cæsar.
38. The Age of Nara. (Description of the golden age of Buddhism in Japan.)
39. Tsuba Provinces. (Description and geography.)

40. Same.
41. Sympathy.
42. Relatives.
43. Love of a Mother. (In verse.)
44. Letter of Condolence and Answer.
45. The Revival of the Heian Period.
46. Admonishes a Thief. (Story of Fujiwara Yasumasa, the great Samurai (warrior) of the Middle Ages.)
47. The Way of Friends.
48. A True Friend. (Story of Damon and Pythias.)
49. The Central Provinces.
50. Same.
51. A Letter to Hawaii.
52. Rise and Decline of Genpei. (Wars of Genji and Heiji.)
53. The Battle of Taiken Mon.
54. The Great Scholars. (Pestalozzi, Froebel.)
55. Bookkeeping.
56. Hawaiian-Japanese Commerce.
57. The Snow.
58. The Kamakura Shogunate.
59. The Literature of the Kamukura Age.
60. Knowledge of Certain Things Essential in Association with Other Nationalities.
61. The Similarity of the Eastern and Western Proverbs. (English-translation given.)
62. The Kinki Provinces.
63. Same.
64. Kaibara Ekiken. (Account of a great scholar in Chinese classics.)
65. The Capture of 203 Metre Hill, Port Arthur.
66. The Imperial Restoration of the Kenmu Era.
67. Imperial Government at Yoshino.
68. The Central Provinces. (Description.)
69. Lieutenant Sakuma. (Story of an officer who died with the torpedo boat which he was commanding.—Another story which attempts to portray the loyalty to one's country even in peace time. The torpedo boat sank from the explosion, and this officer had died, thinking himself responsible for having sunk the vessel.)
70. The Torpedo and Submarine. (Cites the great development of the submarine warfare by the Germans.)
71. Peter the Great.
72. The Loyalty of a Military Horse.
73. The Great Wall. (Account of the Great Chinese Wall.)
74. The Development of Printing.
75. Kant's Carefulness of Little Things.
76. The Western Hemisphere.
77. Same.
78. Same.

Grammar Grade Book No. 2, likewise, consists of 78 lessons, none of which, however, deals with either American or Hawaiian topics. The titles of these lessons follow:

1. The Eastern Hemisphere.
2. Same.
3. Same.
4. The Ancient Civilization of Egypt and Greece.
5. Alexander the Great.

6. The Imperial Rescript of Meiji 41st, October 13th. (Rescript issued immediately after the Russo-Japanese War. The Emperor orders: In this age of international relationship, people of Japan should intermingle with other nations, and should strive to receive together the benefits of the civilization. Ye should strive to develop the nation; should redouble the resources of the land; should unite each other, high and low, and be faithful, diligent, and thrifty; should respect honesty; should be loyal to the traditions and customs; and should help each other in the cause of the nation's real development. * * * Ye should follow the will of the Emperor and the traditional teachings of the nation's deeds and records, etc.)
7. The Spirit of the Samurai of Old Japan.
8. The Literature and Arts of the Age of Muromachi.
9. The Feudal Age.
10. The Ashikaga Government and International Commerce, Commerce with Asia.
11. Atoji Kamon. (Account of a hero.)
12. Be Independent and Be Self-helpful.
13. The Newspaper.
14. The Provinces of Shikoku.
15. The Four Seasons. (In verse.)
16. The Moonlight Sonata. (Biography of Beethoven.)
17. The Plugging.
18. General Gorden.
19. The Profession.
20. The Letter of Introduction.
21. Nobunaga and Hideyoshi.
22. The Shogunate at Yedo.
23. The Culture of the Yedo Period. (Introduction of Christianity.)
24. Date Masamune. (Biography of famous feudal lord.)
25. Courtesy.
26. Western Stories. (Columbus, Newton; Sir Walter Raleigh, King Conrad; and Frederick the Great.)
27. The Provinces of Kyushu.
28. Same.
29. The Relationship of the Earth and Man.
30. Water and Scenery.
31. The Literature of the Genroku Period.
32. The Revival of National Culture.
32. Reading.
34. Isaac Newton.
35. The Invention of the Airship.
36. Wireless Telegraph and Wireless Telephone.
37. Hokkaido and Saghalien.
38. Same.
39. Four Saints. (Buddha, Confucius, Socrates, and Christ.)
40. Same.
41. Love.
42. Genjo. (Account of the founder of Jodoshu sect of Buddhism.)
43. Justice.
44. Twilight. (In verse.)
45. Queen Victoria.
46. Yoshida Shoin. (Account of a famous scholar.)
47. The Decline of the Shogunate.
48. Citizens of a Revived Nation.
49. A Letter.
50. The Marriage Application. (To the consulate and the prefectural office.)

51. The Restoration and the Dawn of the Meiji Era.
52. Formosa.
53. Hamada Yaheye. (Account of a famous merchant.)
54. The Mirror.
55. The Promulgation of the Constitution.
56. Prince Hirobumi Ito.
57. Ethics and Law.
58. The Good Citizens.
59. The Two Great Wars of Meiji Era.
60. On the Eve of the Blockading Expedition. (Port Arthur.)
61. Korea.
62. Same.
63. Meiji and Taisho Eras.
64. The Funeral of Meiji Emperor.
65. National Treasures and the Ancient Temples and Shrines.
66. The Routes of the World.
67. The Custom House.
68. The Poem.
69. William Pitt.
70. Manchuria and the Kantung Peninsula.
71. Same.
72. Western People's View of Japanese.
73. Martin Luther.
74. The Water Power. (In verse.)
75. Culture.
76. President William McKinley.
77. Famous Names.
78. Human Beings and Nature.

4. THE INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE SCHOOLS.

It must be apparent that the people who know most of the actual influence of the foreign language schools on the children who attend are the teachers, principals, and supervisors of the public school system, who are in daily contact in the schoolroom and on the playground with the children themselves, and who, beyond all others, are in a position to form a judgment which is based not on theory, speculation, or prejudice, but upon fact. Recognizing this, the commission invited every member of the public school corps of the Territory to express himself or herself on this, as well as upon any other matters affecting vitally the work which the public school is trying to do. Brief quotations of a few of the many hundreds of replies received will indicate clearly the almost universal opinion held by the school corps. For convenience, these quotations are grouped under three headings: (*a*) The Effect on the Health of the Children; (*b*) The Influence on Progress in the Public School; and (*c*) The Influence on Loyalty to America. Before proceeding, to this, however, the four replies most favorable to the language schools are given in full:

"These schools retard the teaching of English. However, the English of the Japanese pupils is better than that of the Hawaiian and Portuguese in the elementary schools, although I admit that out of school it may be less and more limited. These schools

are not as unpatriotic toward America as some would have us believe. Love for Japan comes from the mother and father, particularly from the mother if she be a 'picture bride' from Japan, knowing nothing of Americanism. She trains the child for six years before the schools have the child. The Japanese child believes that he can love both countries as he does his father and mother, and will tell you that. This status of double allegiance would be put to a test if the countries became unfriendly. The younger generation of Japanese educated in public schools would favor America, I honestly believe. Unfortunately, much of the present agitation here in the islands is anti-Japanese. Unfortunately, too, many of the coast teachers have a personal dislike for the orientals, and Hawaiians also. Some of these teachers improve in their attitude, but before they do so their acts and remarks have done no less harm than the Japanese language schools are charged with doing. Many white teachers will not live in the same cottage with oriental teachers, and many will never speak friendly to the oriental teachers. These local teachers, with limited experiences, feel that if that is Americanism they want very little of it. Some of these local girls will tell you that they hate the 'haoles.'"

"The religious training given in these schools is worth while. The moral conduct and discipline of the Japanese child will prove that. The boys' and girls' industrial schools are not supported by Japanese children, although the Japanese predominate in the island schools.

"Nevertheless, I feel that these schools should be closed to all pupils below the age of 14 to 15 years. If the religious training be given in English, allow any children to attend as we do for the Catholics.

"The general conditions of the buildings and equipment are not the best, especially the boarding schools with their crowded and insanitary buildings.

"It would not at all be impossible to have the Japanese language taught in the public school buildings after hours. It should be given as a course in every high school.

"There is a Japanese language school opposite the — — — School, with 70 pupils. When established several years ago the trustees made a formal call on me and stated that they were proud that their native-born children were American citizens and would do everything to help Americanize them, or something to that effect. The Japanese teacher attended my school for a week and we have been on the most friendly terms, always consulting upon matters of mutual interest. In his sitting room are two large framed pictures of Washington and Lincoln.

"The Japanese children appear as loyal as the other nationalities; in fact bought more liberally of War Savings Stamps than the others. The Japanese teacher took the lead in Liberty Bond and War Savings Stamp drives, etc.

"From personal observation, I judge that Japanese language schools have a tendency to cause the pupils to think in Japanese."

"The Japanese language schools have the effect of retarding their pupils in the public schools by encouraging them to think and speak in Japanese rather than in English. They help to make Japanese the easiest language of communication for their pupils to their disadvantage in the use of English. But the Japanese language school at ———— is a force for good in the community and deserves a large amount of praise. It serves as a home for pupils from the time they are dismissed from the public school till their parents arrive home from the field labor, both fathers and mothers quite generally engaging in field labor. Without something to take its place, we should have the idle and irresponsible girl and boy problem to face.

"I also find the Japanese school to be a potent factor in discipline outside of school hours, in providing statistics, and in other educational problems. The principal of the Japanese school and I cooperate quite fully, and I receive much assistance from him. As an illustration, most pupils coming to my school do not know their ages, parents' names, etc. It quite frequently happens that the parents themselves do not

know these things. But the Japanese school principal has a way of getting them, and he will put himself to an unlimited amount of trouble to do so. He is quite as obliging in all other matters pertaining to the welfare of the Japanese pupils in my school. His advice to pupils in regard to habits of life and customs annoying to Americans, to moral virtues, etc., has a powerful influence which it would be hard to replace.

"Japanese language schools should not be seriously interfered with at this time, except for careful supervision to make sure that they are not teaching the doctrine of the divine right of kings and other principles contrary to the vital principles of Americanism. A sufficient number of unquestionable Americans with a thorough knowledge of Japanese should be employed to inspect Japanese schools frequently and see to it that they are in perfect harmony with our institutions and traditions. This same principle should not be restricted to Japanese schools but should be applied to all private schools, including secular schools. The Japanese schools are doomed to elimination by the law of natural selection. As the English language becomes the easiest means of communication, the Japanese language will give way as mist before the wind. Very few of the offspring of our present school population will learn two languages, and the surviving language will undoubtedly be English. It is far better to let the Japanese language die a natural death than to cause the friction necessary in killing it."

"Up to within the past three years the influence of the Japanese language schools was essentially pro-Japanese, and, therefore, anti-American. This influence permeated from and through the national cock-sure idea pregnant in Japanese minds that Japan as a nation and a world power could easily defeat and lick America in case of a war between the two countries.

"The teachers in the Japanese schools, imported products from Japan, naturally furthered this propaganda by availing themselves of the recognized dual citizenship authorized by the Japanese Government; that is, they advocated the acquisition of American ideas, resources, and money as a means of benefiting the Japanese Government in gaining supremacy or superiority over America.

"The majority of the parents, who migrated here from Japan, were also subject and susceptible to this influence. Therefore, it is an undisputed fact that the influence of the Japanese language schools up to three years ago was a menace to America.

"But, fortunately, our entrance into the Great War, our gigantic resources operating during the same, the unity and patriotism of the American people, the enormous oversubscription of all our Liberty Loans, to say nothing of the fighting qualities of our boys, demonstrated in the trenches in Europe, and the respect shown us by the whole world have all tended to explode the unfounded pro-Japanese influence of the Japanese language schools.

"Evidently, when the test arose, the teachings and influence of the American schools predominated and the American citizens of Japanese parents were as anxious to prove their American patriotism as any others. Hundreds joined the Army, and thousands of dollars were invested in War Savings and Liberty Bonds. The school curriculum was changed considerably along American lines. The American-born children demanded and exercised their birthright. The parents underwent a very perceptible mental change to such an extent that within four or five years hence the Japanese language schools will become obsolete.

"In conclusion, I state with confidence that the present influence of the Japanese schools is more favorable toward America than Japan."

THE EFFECT ON THE HEALTH OF THE CHILDREN.

[*Comments by teachers.*]

"I have children who attend the foreign language schools before school in the morning and immediately after school in the afternoon. The result is their little minds and bodies are tired out. Our school work suffers in consequence."

"As long as the Japanese schools remain, some arrangement must be adopted which will prevent children from attending the Japanese school before our schools, which practice causes sleepiness, and mental and physical fatigue on the part of some classes and ages of Japanese children."

"I consider foreign language schools one of the greatest hindrances to the public school system of the Territory. Children come to our schools without being properly fed, and their restlessness and inattention spoil our discipline. Some of them use our school periods as a resting time because they give such strict attention to their own schoolmasters, whom they nearly worship. Several pupils in the lower grades fall asleep in school since their camp and school are so far apart and they have to rise so early."

"I feel that the work of the public schools is partly undone by the Japanese language schools. Children are tired and sleepy before 2 o'clock, owing to the long sessions in school."

"The children of oriental parentage are undernourished. Many of them eat no lunch, and often that term covers a bottle of soda water or a sack of peanuts, or possibly both. Anything done to help relieve this situation would result in greater efficiency in the school work. The Portuguese present the same problem, but to a lesser degree."

"Abolish the Japanese language schools. They are dirty and very insanitary. I am teaching in one now."

"I do not think the children are physically equal to doing the extra work of the Japanese school in addition to the English work. Many complain of headache and of being too tired to study. I have had one serious case of breakdown caused, according to a physician, from too much studying. This little girl led her class in English and was unusually bright. I thought she was overdoing and begged her parents to discontinue the Japanese work, but they refused. Now she is unable to do any school work whatever."

"The children have so many hours of school work that it makes them dull and listless."

"The Japanese school in this village takes too much of the child's time. He can not attend to his daily hygiene, home reading, or home study in English. The child's play time is not supervised and we attend to frequent scratches and cuts when the pupils come over to us from the Japanese language school. The influence is detrimental to health, to the English language, and to the Americanization of the children."

"In my vicinity children rise at 5 a. m. and leave home at 6. The older children attend language school from 6.30 to 8.30 a. m.; the younger children from 2.30 to 4.30 p. m. The result is the children are tired out, the home work and study required by the public school is not done, and more attention is given by the children to the Japanese language than to the English."

"The children come into our schools tired and often hungry. In the rural districts many of these children live miles away from the school. It is not uncommon to see these little tots leave their Japanese school and start on their way home as late as 5 p. m. Tired and without rest, these little children are forced to perform this same task day in and day out."

"The Japanese children have such long and early hours for their schools that they are often too tired to keep awake. Owing to the hours for school and the distance which must be traversed, they do not have proper food in the morning."

"On inquiry in regard to the ability of pupils to provide their lunches we found that some of our pupils did not have time to eat in the mornings because they were afraid of being late for the 6 a. m. session of the Japanese school. Some of them get up at 4.30, when their fathers do, and by the time we got them they are very tired.

There are 11 sleeping in one of the rooms at the Japanese boarding school, and they leave the lamps burning, so there is not much use in our trying to teach sanitation when they are not allowed to put it into practice."

"The Japanese language schools cause mental fatigue to the pupils by keeping them at the books too long, not allowing sufficient time for physical exercise or sport."

"Children (American citizens) of Japanese parentage are started from their homes before 6 o'clock in the morning to attend their Japanese schools before commencing their studies in the public school, only to return to the Japanese school again, it being after 5 o'clock before many of these children return to their homes.

"A particular instance frequently comes under my notice when I give a ride to two such children, who have a walk of 4 miles, and it is close upon 6 o'clock in the evening when I pick them up a mile or two from their homes. Surely such long hours are not only unnatural but must prove very detrimental to the lives and brains of these, our future American citizens."

THE INFLUENCE ON PROGRESS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

[*Comments by teachers.*]

"I think that all foreign-language schools should be abolished, as they interfere with the teaching in our public schools. The Japanese children talk the Japanese language at all times in the school yard and on the street. The other children of the islands show very plainly the effect the Japanese language has on them, for there are very few who can converse in any other than "pidgin" English. The Japanese schools are generally built next door to the public schools, and as soon as our school has been dismissed the children go straight to the Japanese school."

"I think all Japanese schools should be abolished, as the children can not master two languages at once. All Japanese pupils have the sing-song habit, and it is a very hard thing to overcome."

"If these Japanese schools are allowed to continue, our American schools will never improve in language and manners."

"Foreign-language schools should be abolished. I have 37 orientals in my room, 28 of whom also attend foreign schools. I feel sure it would not be necessary for many of them to repeat the work if they were not compelled to attend both schools."

"The schools will be greatly improved if there are no Japanese schools. Most of my pupils are Japanese. In their school they are allowed to talk out loud, and when they come to us half of our time is wasted trying to make them quiet."

"The majority of my pupils have non-English-speaking parents. Nearly every one attends an oriental school either before or after the public school, and therefore they speak the language they hear most, which makes it very difficult for us teachers. My desire is that these language schools be abolished or else the time spent in them be much lessened." (Statement by a Japanese teacher teaching in a public school.)

"I wish something could be done to stop the Japanese children in ———— from attending the Japanese schools. The only time they speak the English language is from 9 to 2 o'clock on school days. If this could be carried out, it would be a great help to the teachers of ——— School."

"Abolish the Japanese private schools. It is practically impossible to obtain the original reproduction of lessons from Japanese pupils."

"The first thing I would recommend for the improvement of our schools in Hawaii is to do away with the Japanese schools. They hinder the children in their development to become real Americans in language, customs, and ways. Being a first-grade

teacher, I have a very difficult time in making the Japanese children understand me, especially in story work. Here is a sample of the English which we get from little Japanese children of the first grade: 'Little Red Riding Hood—oh! Big teeth grandmother eat little Red Riding Hood—oh! Grandmother big eyes see little Red Riding Hood.' This really makes me feel and think that due to these Japanese language schools the ears of the class will become so accustomed to the broken language that it will be very difficult to establish the correct forms."

"The Japanese children are very ambitious children. It would help these children a great deal, and also America, if these schools were abolished in Hawaii."

"The language schools, especially the Japanese language schools, interfere with the work of the public schools in Hawaii. Whenever a child is asked a question, he answers to himself in Japanese and then translates it into English, giving his answer. If Japanese is essential for commercial purposes, let it be taught in the high school. If not, I favor complete abolition."

"The Japanese language schools have a very bad influence on the children. We have the children about five hours a day, during which time they are working and thinking English. During the rest of the time, which they spend at the Japanese schools and in their homes, they are Japanese."

"The idiomatic forms of the Japanese language are used in English. These take years to eradicate, if they are finally overcome. The methods of discipline at the Japanese schools are lax, which is true also of methods of study. Simultaneous and loud oral study permits and causes poor enunciation, lack of concentration, and lack of attention."

"I have found out, in my experience in Hawaii, that if any school work is to suffer it will be the work of the American school. The children try enough—their efforts to keep up the work of both schools is often pitiful—but the Japanese schoolmaster will see that the work of the Japanese school comes first."

"The Japanese language schools have a very bad effect on the English of the children. The pupils are punished if they fail to learn their Japanese lessons, so often study them at our schools. They talk Japanese at home, on the way to and from school, and even talk Japanese at recess time unless closely supervised. They can not learn English in the short time they attend our schools. The younger pupils, who study aloud in their schools, often forget and do the same in our schools."

"Out of an enrollment of 341, 224 are Japanese. Last year, out of an advanced class of 36, 30 told me quite frankly that they spoke no English from the time they left the school gate until the time they returned in the morning, and I suppose the same is true of nearly the whole 224."

"Children think in Japanese. Whenever they can not muster sufficient English to express their thought, it is suppressed. To a stranger it gives the idea of stupidity, but not so, as I have tested them with picture interpretations. Ours is not a picture language."

"Below the sixth grade oral or written expression is a struggle, except in "pidgin" English. With a very few exceptions, children have all been born in Hawaii, but never is the English language spoken from choice. When we realize that many of these children leave our schools without a mastery of the language in which our laws and literature are written, we must admit that there is room for improvement."

THE INFLUENCE ON LOYALTY TO AMERICA.

[*Comments by teachers.*]

"It is pretty hard to teach American ideals to a child who does his thinking in Japanese."

"I believe that the language schools should be abolished. Most of the language schools are taught by non-English-speaking teachers. A child has no right to attend such a school between the ages of 6 and 15. To become a good American citizen he needs but one language—the English language."

"As one who speaks Japanese and has had long experience in teaching orientals, I wish to say that if the Japanese schools are continued we shall have a mongrel citizenship, both in language and customs."

"I have taught seven years in a Japanese school and have a knowledge of the language and of their course of study. I am safe in saying that no child can become a good American citizen so long as he is taught Americanism in another language."

"We are aiming to make Americans of all pupils who enter our school. The Japanese children have to divide their time between the Japanese lessons and the lessons we teach. They can scarcely speak English or understand it, and their parents, with the help of the Japanese schools, force these children to be loyal to the Japanese Government instead of to the American Government. I have tested their loyalty by asking them questions pertaining to patriotism. It is hard to teach patriotism to them because they are being taught at home and in the Japanese schools to be loyal to the Japanese Government and to ignore American ideas, patriotism, and language. The abolishment of Japanese schools will help a good deal in Americanizing the children."

"The Japanese schools, under cover of religious instruction, teach the children loyalty to their Emperor and country. The Japanese language schools must go, if we are to teach the young Japanese to become Americans."

"From my observation, children seem to be more interested in the affairs of the Japanese Empire than in those of the United States. Under present conditions they will never really become Americans, for it is impossible to be loyal to two nations, and at present Japan is the most important from their standpoint. The Japanese school at ———— is under the control of priests whose religion opposes the making of real Americans."

"In my own mind I am absolutely convinced that the Japanese language schools in a large measure counteract all I aim to teach in patriotism and Americanization. It has been a frequent occurrence with me that after I have had a splendid response from the class to my teaching, after returning from the Japanese school the children have told me that their teacher thought this or that in direct contradiction to what I had previously taught, showing that the matter had been discussed there. The children never tell me now what their teachers say or think, but I know by a certain coldness and aloofness when this happens."

"The Japanese school makes the children exclusive. They associate with no other children out of our school hours and use only the Japanese language. The tendency to herd by themselves has been especially marked of late. They do not even attend moving picture shows, except those given by Japanese at this plantation."

"In my opinion the Japanese language schools are detrimental because the school is used by the 'old order' of Japanese in the struggle to hold the younger generation to ideas and ideals which, if not anti-American, are un-American."

"There is continually an undercurrent of antagonism on the part of the Japanese children toward America and things American. How could it be otherwise with these schools at our very doors running in competition to us?

"One can see such antagonism cropping out on every hand. The teacher has only to mention some of the things making America the greatest country in the world to see a quick stiffening of the children, a bright hostile gleam of the eye, and the unspoken thought that Nippon is really a much greater land than the United States—or else, what is still worse, an utter and studied indifference to everything American.

"I repeat, the Japanese schools are becoming a menace that will have to be dealt with in the very near future. In winking at the system we are committing the double crime of undermining our own dominant hold on these beautiful islands and at the same time conniving in the dividing of the allegiance of the children who will make up the bulk of its future citizens. If we can get rid of these foreign schools—in whatever language conducted—we can probably train the present generation in right ideals of American citizenship. If we let the problem go over to the next generation we will have a double menace and another generation of hostile feeling behind us.

"What I have said about the Japanese language schools applies with equal vigor to Chinese, Korean, or any other foreign language schools. They must all go, that we may not be accused of partiality. But the Japanese schools, because of their numbers and power, because of the chauvinistic nature of their teachings, because of their efforts to keep the real propaganda in the dark, justly arouse our greatest indignation and suspicion. It is a lasting insult to every real American teacher to have to compete with this survival of medievalism and nationalism flaunted, under our very noses.

"We have good material in the Japanese children, but in this case they certainly need to be loosed from the clutch of their own parents. We can eventually mold them into real Americans if we have no Japanese competition."

"These schools teach their pupils to be loyal to the Mikado. When talking to other children in the public schools a Japanese boy or girl will, 9 times out of 10, side with the Japanese in any question that comes up between Japan and the United States, whether it affects us locally or not. The language schools should be abolished."

"The language schools teach the ideals of their mother country under the false pretense of Americanism. One will notice all this when they celebrate their Emperor's birthday. The Japanese language schools should be eliminated altogether, if we expect the children to become true and loyal Americans."

"The Japanese language schools teach the children to be loyal to Japan and to respect their Emperor more than the President of the United States."

"To my way of thinking the Japanese language schools should be abolished. Are they teaching their children to be American citizens when they, the children, are required to bow before a picture of the Japanese Emperor, which hangs in the schoolroom? This happens in a Japanese school in our district."

"I consider the Japanese language school one of the worst drawbacks we encounter in our work of Americanizing children of that nationality. I find that of our total enrollment of 1,735 children 1,286 do not speak the English language in their own homes.

"The task of Americanization is a difficult one, even under the most favorable conditions. It is made doubly difficult by the influence of the Japanese teachers, many of whom do not speak the English language, nor have they the viewpoint of the American in the ideals that are dearest and holiest to him—his religion and his patriotism:

"It seems to me that if we Americans have learned our lesson from the past few years, we should know that it is absolutely wrong that any great number of people should remain un-Americanized within our midst. We must help them to assimilate and to develop a true love and respect for our American ideals and ideas. This will not be done through the Japanese language schools. What compatibility is there between Mikado worship, ancestor worship and the teaching of democracy?"

"My observations have been made while I have been for eight years principal of large country schools on the island of Hawaii and while I have been employed, during several periods of vacation, as an overseer on all of the sugar-producing islands.

"The Japanese teacher who is under the right influence may appear to loan the right way, but the older ones, whose schools are apart of the Buddhist mission, are in the majority. They have developed and teach a kind of divided allegiance theory, which fits a child to be an American for the time being—a Japanese should the occasion arise.

"An example of how this theory weakens the Americanism instilled in the Japanese children by our public schools will be cited. X—— is an intelligent Japanese girl, typical of two to three hundred others working in the Honolulu pineapple canneries during the summer and going to school in season. She has just finished the eighth grade with an average mark in her studies a little higher than her companions. She is just about to enter McKinley High School. Her mother is employed as a servant in a Honolulu house; her father is a gardener; her sister has graduated from the business department of the McKinley High School, and is now a stenographer, handling the English correspondence of a large American retail shoe house. Her companions are Normal School students. Her vocabulary is ample and bookish, and her language has the usual faults.

"The child questioned was unaware that her interrogator was a teacher, which made the conversation easier.

"'Do you believe what your teacher taught you about the reason America entered the war?' she was asked.

"'Yes, certainly; I hate the Germans.'

"'Do you think it was right for the Germans to have had German schools in the United States?'

"'No.'

"'Then why should the Japanese have their schools in Hawaii?'

"'I don't know. Not because we want them. Our parents make us go to them. I like to learn the Japanese language, but I'd like better to learn more English.'

"'Do you think of Japan as your country or the United States?'

"'I am an American, but I think of Japan as my country, too.'

"'Does your Japanese teacher know what you think?'

"'Yes. He taught us all that Japanese are the Emperor's subjects and Americans when they are in Hawaii.'

"'Has not your American teacher taught you that you can not be a true American if you are anything else, Japanese, German, or what not?'

"'Yes, she has. And I don't know which teacher is right but I like America. We are always having quarrels at our house about this. My big brother and sister want to be Americans only, and my father and mother believe we are wicked to say such things because we are Japanese.'

"'Why do you go to High School instead of Normal School.'

"'Because McKinley prepares me for business and gives special training in English. I can graduate from McKinley and then go to Normal.'

"The mental attitude shown in this conversation is typical of what goes on in the minds of the rising generation of Japanese. The next few years will produce an overwhelming number of young Japanese who will be able to make up their minds to stand by the country which gives them their bread, despite the teachings of the Japanese school.

"Realizing this situation through criticism of the hyphenated during the war, the Japanese have sought to improve or veneer it with a reform.

"But assuming that all Japanese were true American patriots their language schools would still be an obstacle to the welfare of the Japanese and the success of the public school. They prevent the Japanese from learning English."

OBSERVATIONS.

In the light of the foregoing considerations the commission is convinced that the language schools, which in the aggregate outnumber the public schools of the Territory, are centers of an influence which, if not distinctly anti-American, is certainly un-American. Because of these schools children born here of foreign parents, soon to become the voters of this Commonwealth, soon to play a prominent part in the affairs of the Territory, are being retarded in accepting American customs, manners, ideals, principles, and standards. Instead of supplementing other agencies at work in the islands, which are earnestly seeking to prepare these children to meet the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in America, these schools in their influence are obstacles standing squarely in the road.

Although the commission recognizes the inherent right of every person in the United States to adopt any form of religious worship which he desires, nevertheless it holds that the principle of religious freedom to which our country is unswervingly committed does not demand that practices and activities must be tolerated in the name of religion which make the task of training for the duties and responsibilities of American citizenship a well-nigh hopeless one. The commission, therefore, feels no hesitancy in recommending as a first and important step in clearing away the obstacles from the path of the Territorial public-school system that all foreign-language schools be abolished. It, however, desires to point out that in accomplishing this a due and proper regard should be had for the sensibilities of the people who will be affected thereby; that the reasons for abolishing the schools be made very clear to all; and that a plan be devised which will retain all the worthy features of the schools.

5. PROPOSED LEGISLATION RESPECTING LANGUAGE SCHOOLS.

In order to learn what the public sentiment of the islands is in respect to a policy for dealing with foreign language schools, the survey commission requested various civic organizations of the Territory to take up a discussion of this question among their members and to formulate recommendations for legislative action. In response, three important civic organizations, the Daughters of the American Revolution, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Ad Club of Honolulu have, after exhaustive discussion, adopted the following resolutions and proposals:

RESOLUTIONS OF THE ALOHA CHAPTER OF THE DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

Whereas the Daughters of the American Revolution is a patriotic organization representing a great national past and hoping for a greater future, an organization founded to perpetuate those principles of devotion and loyalty for which our ancestors fought and died, and to fight against disloyalty in every form and dangerous propaganda of every kind; and

Whereas the experiences of the recent war have convinced us that as a Nation we have too long harbored within our borders societies and institutions which tend to continue the spirit, customs, ideals, and languages of the foreign lands from which their members came, instead of fostering and developing Americanism; and

Whereas we believe that the penalty that our Nation paid during that war for its laxity—the appalling embarrassment to its work, the staggering property damage, and the irreparable loss in splendid manly lives—was too costly for us to have it repeated, and believe in the light of past experience that foreign-language schools are not only unnecessary, but a menace to the unity and safety of our Nation and the peace and prosperity of our people; Now, therefore, be it

Resolved, that we, the Daughters of the American Revolution of Aloha Chapter, go on record as being unequivocally opposed to all practices within the borders of the United States of America subversive to the peace and order of our Nation and the undivided allegiance of our people, and unalterably opposed to all foreign-language schools of whatever nationality; and that we take a firm stand for Americanism in its truest and loftiest form, and for one language—that of our heroic Revolutionary ancestors who gave their fortunes and their lives that the United States might live and prosper, and one flag—"Old Glory;" And be it further

Resolved, that a copy of this resolution be spread upon the minutes of this meeting, and that a copy each be sent to the governor of Hawaii and the superintendent of public instruction.

(Unanimously carried Oct. 29, 1919.)

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE (HONOLULU).

The committee of the chamber on public schools and vocational training have considered the letter of Dr. Frank F. Bunker, for the Federal School Survey Commission, dated November 15, 1919, and recommend that the chamber, in response to the letter, address to the commission a communication on the present school situation in which this chamber shall take the following definite positions:

1. While the chamber has already (Apr. 19, 1916) taken a stand in favor of the extension of the so-called Hoke Smith Vocational Training bill so as to permit of its application to Hawaii and some measure of Federal assistance in the problem of vocational education, the chamber has not been successful in its efforts. It is our hope that the members of the commission will find in their survey that the problem of Americanizing the children born in Hawaii of alien parents is more than a local problem and is one which requires the attention and assistance of the National Government, to the end that the commission will recommend that Hawaii be included in all measures before Congress by which the Federal Government proposes to assist the States in solving educational problems or in extending and hastening the Americanization of foreigners in the United States.

2. The chamber believes that the salaries of teachers in the public schools should be more substantial, so as to attract and hold in service the teachers of the right quality, and that with any raise in salaries there should be enforced higher standards for teachers, particularly in their ability to speak and teach the English language.

3. The chamber believes that playgrounds adequate in size to each community, supervised by governmental authority, should be considered a part of the educational equipment of each municipality. In our mixed population in our cities and on our plantations, the children have shown their ability to absorb American ideas as quickly on the playground as anywhere else. We believe this work should be extended and be made a governmental function, supported by public funds. We are not clear as to how these matters should be worked out in our peculiar governmental system and would appreciate such comments thereon by the commission as the members thereof, with their experience, can give.

4. The chamber believes that the vocational school idea should be extended. There is a feeling of doubt on the fitness of our rural schools as now planned. This doubt is based largely on the success which the schools themselves have made in the extension of the vocational training idea. This success would seem to point the way for a revision of the rural schools so that they will lay the primary emphasis on training in vocational matters.

5. The chamber believes all private schools should be under the inspection and supervision of public authority. Our statutes passed in 1896 attempted to do this, but the practical application of the law has caused a construction to be placed thereon to the effect that only those private schools are subject to such supervision the sessions of which coincide with the hours of the public schools. The supervision by public authority should be such as to make it impossible for any person to serve as a teacher of youth who does not possess ideals of democracy and a knowledge of American history and methods of government and of the English language. Because of our present situation, this last qualification should, for a period, be liberally construed in the teachers' favor, but it would seem to us that a reading knowledge of English sufficient to enable the teacher to get the news of the day from the newspapers printed in English should be the minimum requirement. The supervision of the curriculum also should be such as to prevent the direct or indirect teaching of standards, ethics, conduct, or morals not American. It may be difficult to apply these two elements of supervision of the private schools, neither of which touch teaching efficiency. The department at the present time is woefully understaffed. It can be said that our public schools now are not properly supervised. This is not the fault of the department, but of the people of the Territory, who have not authorized the additional appropriations. Whatever may be the practical difficulties of administering such a law, we believe these ideals should be spread on the statute books, for the purpose, if for no other, of declaring to the world what Hawaii stands for. If the original certification of teachers and schools is done perfunctorily, with such a law applicable, investigations of particular teachers and particular schools will be possible wherever positive facts are known and brought to the attention of the department.

6. The chamber believes no instruction in any language other than English should be allowed in any public or private school in the Territory in any grade lower than the seventh grade. Educators tell us that no language can be learned properly and completely except during a child's early years. To a large number of Hawaii's children English is a foreign language in that it is not the language of the home. This fact is the reason for our belief in the statement with which this paragraph begins. Children of English-speaking homes in Hawaii can well afford to give up their desire to learn other languages while still in the early grades. Regulations on this subject should extend to all without discrimination. The common basis of a common tongue is vital to the future of this self-governing Territory of the United States. Our strong feeling on this point is none other than the instinct of self-preservation.

Conclusion.—In the above recommendations the chamber has attempted to be suggestive rather than exhaustive in its statement and not to do more than to state certain points concerning which there should be a minimum of difference of opinion among the members of the chamber. These points do not deal with educational matters so much as they do with the Americanization of Hawaii's children of many races. This big task certainly concerns the Chamber of Commerce of Honolulu, and the chamber should assist the present development of public opinion on this subject by publicly making known its views.

(Unanimously adopted, Dec. 17, 1919.)

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE AD CLUB (HONOLULU).

Objections to the Language Schools.

1. Children from foreign-speaking homes need to concentrate their attention on mastering the English language.

Objections to the Language Schools—Continued.

2. The hours spent in language schools, especially the morning hours, result in a divided attention and are unfavorable to concentration on mastering English speech.
3. Teachers in the foreign-language schools are usually lacking in a knowledge of American institutions and ideals, and their influence is to make the children Japanese or Chinese or whatever race they represent rather than American.

Utility of the Language Schools.

1. They care for children outside of school hours, both of whose parents in many cases are at work.
2. They teach the correct spoken and written foreign language necessary for business or family relations with the country overseas.

Recommendations.

1. That the language schools be placed under the complete control and supervision of the board of education.
2. That the board of education adopt as its policy the gradual elimination of the language schools as rapidly as may be wise and expedient through the development of an enlarged public-school curriculum and lengthened school day, through the introduction of vocational and other outdoor activities and supervised playgrounds, and by provision for teaching in the upper grades any foreign language for which there is local demand.
3. And we should further recommend that, whenever possible, the buildings and grounds used by the foreign-language schools should be turned over to the board of education for use in connection with this enlargement of public-school activities.

Means to the End.

1. A campaign of education among all non-English-speaking people showing why the foreign-language schools are to be replaced by something better, laying especial emphasis on the following reasons:
   (a) All children born here are American citizens and must be fully prepared for the duties of citizenship.
   (b) Failure properly to prepare them will certainly block the attainment of statehood and will probably result in a loss of self-government in the Territory.
   (c) A most unfavorable reaction in the opinion of the world will come upon any nation whose representatives in Hawaii show themselves incapable of cooperating heartily with a thoroughgoing program of Americanization. Such a people will simply show by that action that they are not assimilable and will thereby make themselves unwelcome in all foreign countries.
2. This campaign should be carried on by a special joint committee containing representatives of the various civic, educational, and religious organizations doing work among non-English-speaking populations and containing members of the various races concerned.
3. Methods to be employed:
   (a) Public addresses.
   (b) Circulars and articles in the foreign-language press.
   (c) Informal talks before citizenship classes and smaller groups.
   (d) Explanations to the children in the public schools.

COMMENTS ON THE PRECEDING PROPOSALS.

The salient feature in the proposals made by the Chamber of Commerce and the Ad Club is that foreign-language schools shall be placed under the supervision of the educational department of the Territory. The Ad Club proposals, however, go a step further and suggest that as rapidly as may be deemed wise the gradual elimination of the schools shall be effected.

After a careful consideration of the thoughtful proposals which the foregoing organizations have submitted, the commission is of the opinion that no good can come of a plan which contemplates a supervision of the schools by the Territorial department of education. The commission doubts that those who have proposed departmental supervision of these schools have ever seriously considered what such supervision entails. If, as is probable, they have in mind nothing more in the way of supervision than the department now exercises under law over the private schools, both secular and religious, then the commission is clearly of the opinion that such an arrangement would be of no value: for, as is pointed out in another chapter of this report, the supervision exercised by the department of education over private schools, as provided by law, exists in name only and not in fact. If, on the other hand, it is contemplated that a system of control and supervision be adopted which would go to the heart of the matter, then the commission must point out that the department of education is now so undermanned that it is unable to give adequate supervision to its own schools. To add to the system of public schools a system of foreign-language schools, comprising more schools than the public school system does, without a very large increase in the supervisorial staff would materially lessen the efficiency of the public schools. Furthermore, the adequate supervision and control of the foreign-language school would require a staff specially trained in such work. Also, it seems clear that such an arrangement, if an attempt were made to make it effective, would lead to misunderstandings, to friction, and to the development of an antagonistic feeling diametrically opposed to the generous spirit held by those who framed the foregoing proposals.

On another count the commission finds itself opposed to an arrangement which would place the language schools under the control of the department of education. At present these schools exist outside the law. The law neither sanctions nor condemns them, for the law takes no cognizance of them. As now organized they are, therefore, extralegal. Were this system of schools to be placed, by legislative action, under the supervision of the Territorial department of education, a system which the law does not now recognize would immediately become legalized with disadvantages from the standpoint of the ultimate solution of the problems which are obvious.

For yet another reason the commission is opposed to any plan which would place the language schools under the supervision of the Territorial department of education, even temporarily. The commission believes that, but for the pressure which Buddhist priests and teachers bring to bear upon the Japanese laborers on the plantations, comparatively few of the parents would send their children to the Japanese language schools, preferring instead to permit them to give their undivided attention to the work of the public schools. Confirmatory of this opinion is the fact that at the Mid-Pacific Institute of Honolulu, an endowed institution enrolling orientals principally, electives are offered in the Japanese and Chinese languages, beginning with the first grade and running throughout the high-school period. Not quite 10 per cent of the Japanese enrolled in the school have elected the Japanese language, and a smaller percentage than this of Chinese are studying their native tongue. If now, the department of education were required to take over the supervision of these language schools, it would thereby be placed in the unenviable position of tacitly sanctioning an institution which the commission is convinced is incompatible with American traditions and ideals.

Indeed, so clear is it to the commission that such an arrangement would be an unfortunate one that it is frankly of the opinion that the defeat of the bill providing for such an arrangement, introduced at the last legislature, was most fortunate. On the other hand, the commission believes that a plan can be devised which will retain the best features of the foregoing proposal and will at the same time avoid the difficulties which are sure to arise if the Department of Education were to attempt to exercise a genuine supervision and control of these schools. The plan which the commission proposes follows:

PLAN PROPOSED BY THE COMMISSION.

Before details of the plan are suggested it must be pointed out that a distinction should be drawn between two groups of children of foreign parentage.

1. There is a group of foreign children (a small one relatively) who, because the laws regarding naturalization are as they are, can never become citizens of America even though they desired so to do, and who may expect to return to their native country. The children of officials of foreign governments, and of some professional and merchant classes, temporarily in the islands, also all children born outside the islands, would belong to such a group. Obviously, to the parents of such children, particularly to those whose stay in the islands is to be but a short one, there should be granted the right to create schools for their children, supported at their own expense, wherein the schooling of the children may be conducted wholly in their native language if desired.

Clearly, Americans similarly placed, living in foreign countries, would wish and rightly should have the opportunity of training their children in their native language at their own expense and without dictation from governmental authorities if they so desired. America has no mind to deprive any group of other national origin within her borders of exercising the same privileges which she would claim for her own people were they living on foreign soil.

The doors to the public school are not to be closed to this group, it should be noted, if the parents of such children prefer them educated by the Territory. A choice should be required, however, of one or of the other, and not of both.

2. But there is a second group of children in the Hawaiian Islands, comprising by far the largest proportion of children now attending the foreign language schools, which is very differently placed. They are Hawaiian-born and, in consequence, American citizens, soon to become members of the electorate, upon whom will shortly rest the responsibility of maintaining and preserving the principles which are interwoven in America's national fabric. To such children, the commission holds, there can be granted no such option in the content, method, and character of their educational training as should be granted those who can not become citizens and voters of the Territory.

Citizenship in America carries with it the responsibility of preserving inviolate American principles and traditions. Obviously no country can rightly be expected to delegate to another country or to a foreign group living within her borders responsibility for the training of its own citizens at any stage of their development and least of all during their most plastic and impressionable years.

With these determining considerations in mind, the details of the plan which the commission proposes follow:

1. Abolish all foreign language schools at the next session of the legislature, special or regular, except that the parents of all children not Hawaiian-born, if they prefer not to have their children enrolled in the public schools, be permitted to create their own schools at their own expense for the education of the children who can never become American citizens.

2. Simultaneously offer to organize in every school, where there is sufficient demand, a class or classes, in any foreign language desired, the same to be held for one hour per day at the close of the regular public school session, in the public school building, by teachers regularly employed for the purpose by the Territorial department of education. Work of this character to begin with the first grade if it be desired.

3. As a prerequisite to enrollment in such classes require: (*a*) That the pupil shall be making satisfactory progress in the work of the public school, except that in the case of children who are entering the

public school for the first time they may be permitted to enroll in the language class at once, if it is desired; retention in the class, however, to be conditioned upon the pupil's continuing to do satisfactory work in the public school. (*b*) That the parent shall, by written statement or statement made orally to the principal, request enrollment for his or her children and (if the Territory deems it desirable) that he be required to pay as a monthly fee an amount per child which will enable the department to provide teachers for such work without drawing upon regular school funds.

4. The Territorial board of school commissioners, upon nomination by the superintendent of public instruction, to appoint a head of this division of foreign language teaching and four assistants, one for each island, who shall be paid out of the funds of the department. The commission recommends strongly that salaries be paid to these officials sufficient to secure Americans who are thorough students of foreign languages, particularly of the oriental languages, and who are familar with public school work. Under the direction of the superintendent, the head of this division and his assistants should examine teachers as to their qualifications, recommend appointments and dismissals, conduct conferences among teachers, superintend their work, and thus gradually bring together a corps of persons who combine a mastery of the oral and written language, teaching skill and unquestioned loyalty to American ideals. Doubtless in the language schools as now conducted there could be found a number of teachers who would respond to such supervision and instruction and who would ultimately make teachers meriting permanent retention. Textbooks now in use in the language schools could be used at first, but as rapidly as practicable, a series of books should be written whose content shall be predominantly American rather than foreign, as now.

5. A fund to be provided by the legislature to take over at the appraised value the schools now belonging to the various missions, if they wish to dispose of them, which could be used by the public school system either in providing needed enlargements of crowded schools or in securing buildings for community activities. Such a fund need not be large, as in most instances the land belongs to the plantations, and in other cases the buildings are not suitably situated.

6. The Territorial commissioners of education, by and with the advice of the superintendent of public instruction and his staff, to list the buildings which the department of education can use to advantage, the same to be appraised by a commission appointed by the governor, the aim being to take over the buildings at cost to the owners if they care to sell.

7. The legislature also to provide a fund to be used by the department of education in disseminating very widely among plantation laborers by effective means information concerning the reasons for

taking this action and the nature and purpose of the work to be offered, to the end that there may be no misunderstanding growing out of false statements made by those who may oppose the abolition of the present system of language instruction and to the end that it may be accomplished with good feeling and good will on the part of all.

8. Arrangements to be made simultaneously for lengthening the school day to seven or eight hours, thereby making it possible effectively to organize agricultural, industrial, manual, and play activities for those children whose parents work in the fields and who but for such opportunities might be running the streets or roads.

9. When the demand is sufficient to justify it, offer electives in oriental languages in the public high schools, the same to be placed on the basis of electives in other foreign languages.

THE SPIRIT IN WHICH THE FOREGOING PLAN SHOULD BE ENFORCED.

The spirit in which the foregoing plan should be enforced, or for that matter any other plan designed to meet this problem of foreign-language schools, is the spirit which should be behind every effort made to Americanize the alien within our borders. This spirit is admirably defined in the following excerpts from addresses by Franklin K. Lane, recently the Secretary of the Interior, and Philander P. Claxton, the Commissioner of Education:

"There is no way by which we can make anyone feel that it is a blessed and splendid thing to be an American, unless we ourselves are aglow with the sacred fire, unless we interpret Americanism by our kindness, our courage, our generosity, our fairness.[1]

"You have got to make them Americans by calling upon the fine things that are within them, and by dealing with them in sympathy, by appreciating what they have to offer us, and by revealing to them what we have to offer them. And that brings to mind the thought that this work must be a human work—must be something done out of the human heart and speaking to the human heart, and must largely turn upon instrumentalities that are in no way formal, and that have no dogma and have no creed, and which can not be put into writing and can not be set upon the press."[2]

"There is no one thing so supremely essential in a Government such as ours, where decisions of such importance must be made by public opinion, as that every man and woman and child shall know one tongue—that each may speak to every other and that all shall be informed.

"There can be national unity neither in ideals nor in purpose unless there is some common method of communication through which may be conveyed the thought of the Nation. All Americans must be taught to read and write and think in one language; that is a primary condition to that growth which all nations expect in a government of us, and which we demand of ourselves."[3]

"I am not urging the absurdity that men can be transformed into Americans by a course in school. This is but a beginning. Knowledge of our language is but a tool. * * * Our strange and successful experiment in the art of making a new people

[1] Franklin K. Lane.

is the result of contact, not of caste, of living together, working together for a living, each one interpreting for himself and for his neighbors his conception of what kind of social being man should be, what his sympathies, standards, and ambitions should be.

"Now, this can not be taught out of a book. It is a matter of touch, of feeling, like the growth of friendship. Each man is approachable in a different way, appealed to by very contradictory things. One man reaches America through a baseball game, another through a church, a saloon, a political meeting, a woman, a labor union, a picture gallery, or something new to eat. The difficulty is in finding the meeting place where there is no fear, no favor, no ulterior motives, and above all, no soul insulting patronage of poor by rich, of black by white, of younger by elder, or foreign born by native born, of the unco' bad by the unco' good. To meet this need the schoolhouse has been turned into a community center. It is a common property or should be. All feel entitled to its use."[3]

"Get in your own heart, if you please, in the first place, some sympathy with that man who is in a foreign land. Let the best of your nature come out, the tolerant part, the kindly part. If you are an employer, give him opportunity that you would not give to others. Deal with him not as one whose labor you buy, but as a human soul, and we can transform that man before a generation has passed.

"There is only one way to translate yourself to him and that is by your conduct to the foreigner who is here—by translating America into square dealing, into justice, into kindliness."[4]

"Americanization is a process of education, of winning the mind and heart through instruction and enlightenment. From the very nature of the thing it can make little or no use of force. It must depend, rather, on the attractive power and the sweet reasonableness of the thing itself. Were it to resort to force, by that very act it would destroy its spirit and cease to be American. It would also cease to be American if it should become narrow and fixed and exclusive, losing its faith in humanity and rejecting vital and enriching elements from any source whatever.

"Our program of education does not compel but invites and allures. It may, therefore, probably must, in the beginning be slow, but in the end it will be swift and sure."

"Americanization is not something which the Government or a group of individuals may do for the foreign born or others. It is what these persons do for themselves when the opportunity is offered and they are shown the way; what they do for the country and the thing called democracy. The function of the Government and all other agencies interested in Americanization is to offer the opportunity, make the appeal, and inspire the desire. They can and should attempt nothing more than to reveal in all their fullness the profit and the joy of working together for the common good and the attainment of our high ideals, to create the desire to have a part in the inspiring task, to show the way by which each may do his part best, and to help him set his feet firmly on the way."[4]

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[3] Franklin K. Lane. [4] Philander P. Claxton.

Chapter IV.

TEACHING STAFF OF THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.[1]

CONTENTS.—Racial distribution; distribution by sex; distribution by age; grades and pupils per teacher; education and training; length of service; improvement while in service; certification; promotion and rating; dismissal; salaries; proposed salary schedule; salaries of elementary school principals; recruiting from mainland.

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY RACIAL DESCENT.

The public elementary school children of Hawaii are taught by local teachers and by teachers recruited from the United States. Some teachers have come from Canada and other British possessions, and in prewar times a few German teachers found positions in the schools; but, both in total number and in comparative per cent, these latter sources of supply have been negligible. A decade ago 33 per cent of the teaching force was American; to-day this percentage is 40. The remainder of the teaching body, being almost altogether island born, is made up of Portuguese, who contribute annually from 10 to 12 per cent; of pure Hawaiians, whose numbers have remained almost stationary, but whose proportion has fallen from 15 per cent to 9 per cent; of part Hawaiians, who have furnished and are now furnishing about one-fourth of the teachers; of Chinese, who between 1910 and 1919 have increased from 3 per cent to 9 per cent (the Chinese now equaling, or nearly so, the pure Hawaiian teachers); and of Japanese, whose representation in the teaching force has increased about 18 fold, that is, from 2 teachers in 1910 to 37 or more in 1919.

In Table 1 and Graph I are shown the findings of the questionnaire touching the distribution of the elementary staff by racial descent, the total number and percentage of each group being indicated. The table should be read as follows: Of 771 members of the elementary staff answering the questionnaire, 303, or 40 per cent, are Anglo-Saxons; 96, or 12 per cent, are Portuguese; 72, or 9 per cent, are Hawaiians; 37, or 5 per cent, are Japanese; 139, or 18 per cent, are

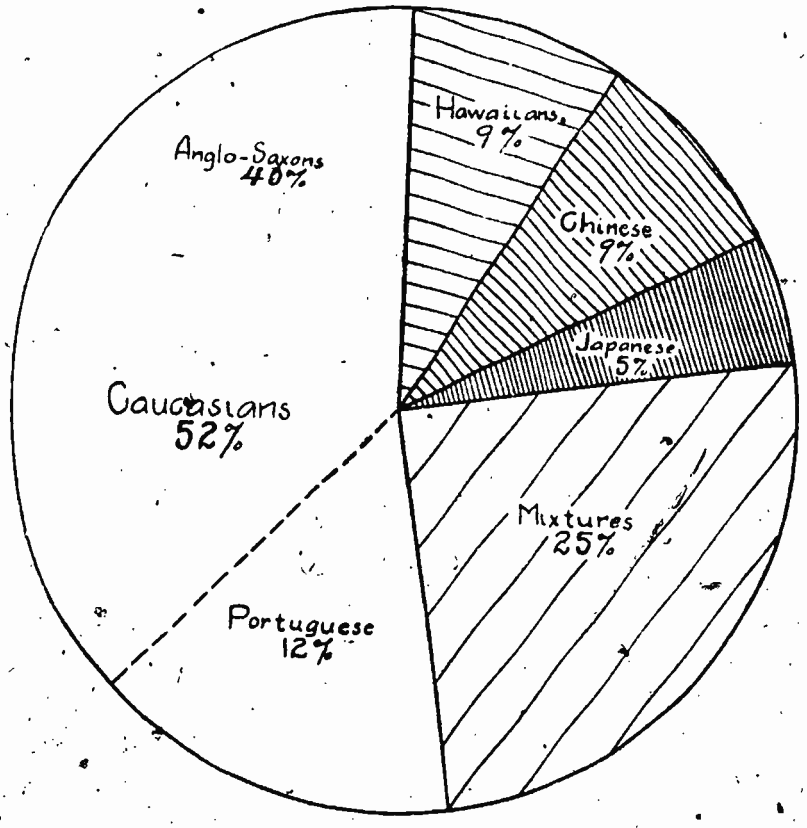
[1] The data used in this chapter are gathered from answers to questionnaires, replies to which were sent in by 781 persons, teachers and principals, in the elementary field. It will be noticed that totals do not correspond to certain statistics of a similar character in another part of this survey. The percentages on the other hand are very comparable. If all questionnaires had been returned by teachers, differences would have been very slight.

part Hawaiian and part Caucasian (Anglo-Saxon or Portuguese); 48, or 6 per cent, are part Hawaiian and part Chinese. Table 2 and Graph II give comparative percentages as regards all teachers for the years 1910 and 1918, respectively.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of elementary teachers by racial descent.*

	Races (unmixed).						Hawaiian mixed with						
	Anglo-Saxon.	Portuguese.	Hawaiian.	Chinese.	Japanese.	Total.	Caucasian.	Chinese.	Japanese.	Chinese or Caucasian.	Total.	Miscellaneous mixtures.	Total.
Number of teachers	303	96	72	[1] 69	37	577	[2] 139	18	.....	3	190	4	771
Per cent of teachers	39	12	9	9	5	.....	18	9	.....	0.5	.....	0.5	100
Per cent by races		52	9	11		.....		.....	.....	.....	25	.....	100

[1] 2 Koreans included.
[2] This includes mixtures with Anglo-Saxons and Portuguese.
[3] of Malay race and 1 African-Cherokee Indian.

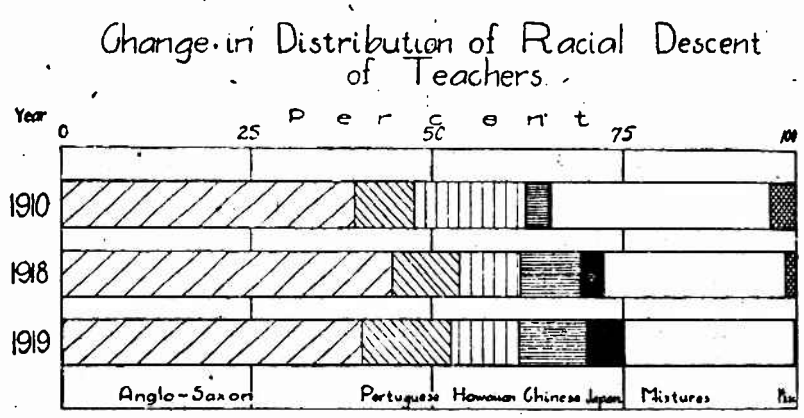


GRAPH I.—Distribution of teachers by racial descent.

TABLE 2.—*Comparative table of racial descent, including all teachers as computed by the superintendent of public instruction in 1910 and 1918, and data from questionnaires in 1919-20.*

Per cent of distribution of teachers.	Races (unmixed).					Hawaiian mixed with—			
	Anglo-Saxon.	Portuguese.	Hawaiian.	Chinese.	Japanese.	Caucasian	Chinese.	Japanese.	Miscellaneous.
Per cent in 1910	[1] 39.5	8	15	3	[2]	30	.....	.....	4.5
Per cent in 1918	41	9	8	8	3	26	.....	.....	2.0
Per cent in 1919	40	12	9	9	5	24.5	.....	.....	.5

[1] Includes mixtures with Anglo-Saxon and Portuguese.
[2] 6 per cent British in 1910 and 1.7 per cent in 1918.
[3] 2 Japanese teachers among the total of 501.



GRAPH H.

From the facts set forth above the problem of teacher supply for Hawaii would seem to present two minor problems for future consideration. The first of these is the problem of recruiting teachers from mainland America. Not for many years to come will the Territory be prepared to train all of its teachers. From another point of view it should probably never seek to do this. Where city school systems in America train teachers locally, they are coming to realize that, in order to avoid too great inbreeding, it is advisable to prepare not more than 60 to 70 per cent of the teachers in a local institution. So that Hawaii ought not, in all likelihood, to look forward to a reduction of her "outside" supply of teachers much below 35 per cent of the entire teaching staff. The commission, therefore, believes that some suggestion for the securing of mainland teachers will be in order, the discussion of which will be taken up later.

The other problem, implied above, is that of recruiting local or island teachers. It touches both the procedure with reference to certificating teachers through the Territorial department of education and the present status of training teachers in the Territorial normal and training school. Both of these matters will likewise be

dealt with in later sections of this chapter. At this point, however, it may be well to point out certain items of local importance and interest. With a proportional decrease in the supply of pure Hawaiian teachers, and with the supply of Part-Hawaiians remaining at about the same percentage from year to year, the Territory will have to depend on an increasing number of teachers of Asiatic descent. Within a decade or two an increase of Chinese and Japanese teachers, until they represent one-fourth of the teaching body, is not at all improbable. Furthermore, in view of present-day rates of population increase, it is safe to estimate that such a group will be very largely Japanese.[2]

DISTRIBUTION BY SEX: MARRIED AND UNMARRIED.

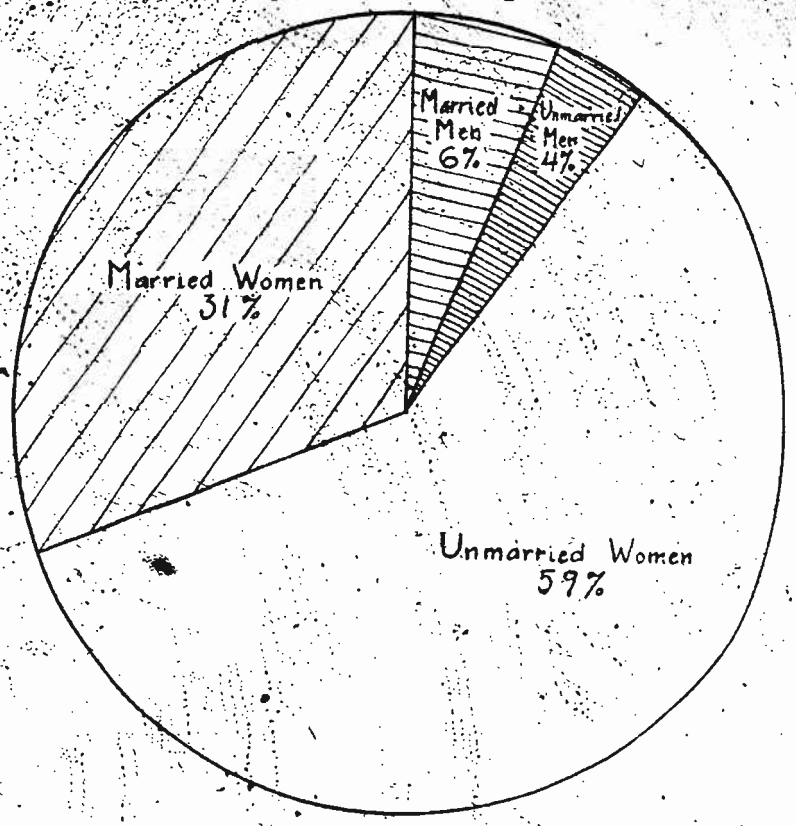
Table 3 and Graph III show the distribution of 770 married and unmarried teachers according to sex. The most interesting fact to be noted is the high per cent (31) of married women teaching in the schools of Hawaii. The commission believes this is not equaled for any similar area or population. In some instances married couples are engaged in school work, and the arrangement has proved highly satisfactory. Indeed, in two or three cases only was the Federal commission able to discover that the presence of a man and wife on a school staff had been the source of trouble and discord. The employment of married couples from the mainland, where both parties have had training and teaching experience, offers one plan, at least, whereby teachers from America might find teaching conditions in the remoter sections of the islands more tolerable, in consequence of which they might accept longer periods of service in the schools.

Of the 240 married women in Table 3, however, all but the few exceptions referred to above are the wives of employees of plantations or of those holding clerical and other positions in the larger communities. The classroom work of these teachers does not suffer in comparison with that of unmarried teachers. And while the large percentage of married teachers is explained for the most part by year to year emergencies touching teacher supply, the commission desires to recommend the practice for permanent procedure.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of school-teachers by sex: married and unmarried.*

Teachers.	Men.			Women.			Grand total.
	Married.	Unmarried.	Total.	Married.	Unmarried.	Total.	
Number	48	31	79	240	451	691	770
Percent	6	4	10	31	59	90	.....

[2] The enrollment of students in the Territorial normal school, Oct. 31, 1919, showed a total of 423, of whom 205 were Chinese and Japanese.



GRAPH III.—Sex of married and unmarried teachers.

There is a dearth of men teachers in the Territorial schools, and the groupings of Table 3 indicate to what an extent this is the case in the elementary field. The total of 79 men, or 10 per cent out of a grand total of 770 replying to this question, includes men who serve as school principals and as special subject supervisors or teachers—manual training, for example. If these were segregated, the number of men engaged as classroom teachers would be negligible indeed. The Hawaiian schools therefore are true to type in this particular, and the field of elementary education is given over to the work of women in accordance with prevailing conditions in America. But the Federal commission believes more men should be found in the classrooms of the islands. While this can not perhaps be accomplished by dependence on recruiting from the mainland, it is believed that young men of the Territory itself may be led to enlist in the work of the schools. Such work does not have to compete to the same degree of intensity as on the mainland with remunerative work in other fields of enterprise. Furthermore, a teaching position in the

archipelago carries a comparatively higher degree of dignity and recognition than elsewhere. But in the recruiting of men locally much will depend on the organization of a professional course of teacher training which will appeal to alert and vigorous and ambitious young men.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE.

The distribution of the elementary staff according to age is shown by means of Table 4 and Graph IV. It should be read as follows: Of 771 persons answering, 56 were under 20 years of age; 278 were between 20 years and 24 years and 11 months, etc. The median age of the elementary teacher is 26 years and 6 months. One-fourth of the teachers are under 22 years of age, the youngest being 17 years; one-fourth are 34 years or more, the oldest being 78 years. The middle 50 per cent group has an age range of 22 years 5 months to 33 years 8 months. In 1916 the median for Cleveland teachers was 31 years, or 5 years above that for Hawaii in 1919; the range for Cleveland's middle 50 per cent was 31 to 40. In the more recent St. Louis survey the median teacher reporting was 29 years and 5 months of age, and the range for the middle 50 per cent was between 24 years and 38 years and 6 months.

From the point of view of impressionability, responsiveness to suggestion, resourcefulness, a very great majority of the Hawaiian teaching body is at work during the best possible age period. But, on the other hand, whatever of advantage may be gained by the above may be offset in Hawaii, possibly, by lack of experience and an immaturity caused by such factors as isolation, provincialism, and poor preparation.

TABLE 4.—*Ages of 771 teachers reporting.*

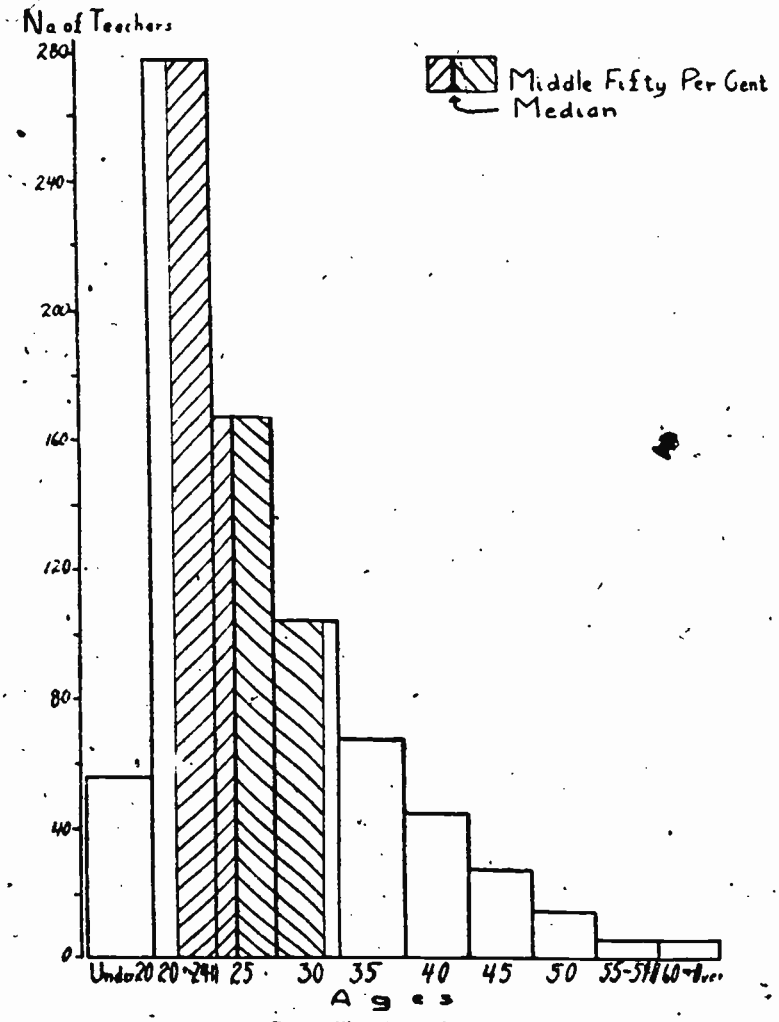
	Under 20 years.	20 to 24-11[1]	25 to 29-11.	30 to 34-11.	35 to 39-11.	40 to 44-11.	45 to 49-11.	50 to 54-11.	55 to 59-11.	60 to 64-11.	65 and over.	Total.
Number of teachers	56	278	167	105	67	44	29	14	6	4	2	771

[1] 24-11 means 24 years and 11 months.

Youngest, 17; lower quartile, 22-5; median age, 26-6; upper quartile, 33-8; oldest, 78.

The upper range of ages in Table 4 is influenced by replies from principals, although this group is not represented fully enough to justify a separate tabulation. Practically all principals appear in the upper fourth of the table. The truth is that many of the principalships are in need of new and younger blood. Adequacy of supervision throughout the island group must, to a considerable extent at least, wait on the provision of a uniformly high standard of leadership, nowhere less so than in the case of the principalships. This

is not, it should be said in fairness, an attempt to arraign the entire staff of principals. Indeed, some of the oldest among them, whether in years or in point of service in Hawaii, are unquestionably the most efficient. The varying ability of principals is commented on



GRAPH IV.—Ages of teachers.

in the questionnaire replies from the teachers, among which the following are representative:

"Some principals are very helpful, some are never helpful."

"The schools need intelligent principals who can speak good English."

"We need principals with a fair knowledge of modern pedagogy and child psychology and with a personality to inspire respect and courtesy."

"We need younger principals with up-to-date points of view."

ASSIGNMENT OF GRADES TO TEACHERS AND OF PUPILS PER ROOM.

Table 5 represents the replies of 751 teachers with reference to the number of grades assigned per teacher. In this regard the islands make a remarkably fine showing. When the extent of rural conditions is taken into account it is doubtful if any similar area on the mainland has such a large per cent of its teachers in charge of rooms where the number of grades per teacher is as happily arranged. That is to say, of 751 teachers reporting, 562 have one grade each, 82 have two grades each, 45 do departmental work (column 6), and 62 only (columns 3, 4, 5) of those in rural sections are obliged to teach under this type of unfavorable conditions. Expressed in percentages, fully 80 per cent of the teachers (columns 1 and 6) have ideal assignments as to number of grades in a classroom.

The advantage, however, is very much offset by overcrowded classrooms. True, the overcrowding is no worse than may be found in very many mainland communities,[3] but classes are much too large for effective work, and all the more so in view of the enormous struggle which the teacher must carry on against the so-called "pidgin" English of the pupils. An examination of the number of pupils per room in the case of 212 classrooms[4] gives the following facts: The median number of pupils per room is 38, the lower quartile is 33, and the upper quartile is 45. These figures indicate that probably three-fourths of all the classrooms in the Territory have a larger enrollment than present-day opinion sanctions, namely, 30,[5] and that in one-fourth of the classes the pupils range in number from 45 to 72. Good teaching under conditions like this can not be done, and the department of education should not expect it. Among the suggestions for improvement of the school system which were sent in by the teachers, the problem of overcrowding is one of those receiving most emphasis. "Our early grades are so overcrowded," writes a teacher, "that proper training is impossible, causing many to repeat the work over and over three or four times." The replies of hundreds of teachers reflect the same opinion and couple with it the specific recommendation that a maximum of 30 pupils per teacher be established for the first grade and a maximum of 35 pupils per teacher for the other primary grades. The Federal commission heartily concurs in this recommendation.

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[3] E. g., see Report of the St. Louis Survey Commission, p. 200.

[4] 80 rooms selected at random, 20 rooms reported by the principal of Hilo Union School, 103 rooms reported by the supervising principal of Kauai.

[5] In this connection, see the table giving the number of children per teacher in the public schools of 50 American cities of 100,000 population and over for 1917–18, Amer. Sch. Bd. Jour., Jan., 1920, p. 58.

TABLE 5.—*Assignment of teachers by grade or grades.*

Teachers of 1 grade or half grade.		Teachers of 2 grades.		Teachers of 3 grades.		Teachers of 4 grades.		Teachers of 5 or more grades.		Teachers of subjects in departmental systems.	
Grade.	Number.	Grade.	Number.	Grade.	Number.	Grade.	Number.	Grade.	Number.	Grade.	Number.
I	187	I and II	21	I to III	8	I to IV	6	I to V	7	V, VI, VII	6
II	191	II and III	18	II to IV	2	II to V		I to VI	3	VI, VII, VIII	6
III	90	III and IV	17	III to V	2	III to VI		I to VII		IV, V	5
IV	68	IV and V	11	IV to VI	5	IV to VII	4	I to VIII	4	VII, VIII	19
V	42	V and VI	9	V to VII	3	V to VIII	2	Miscellaneous	9	III to VI	6
VI	31	VI and VII	2	VI to VIII	7					IV to VII	3
VII	17	VII and VIII									
VIII	17										
Total	542		82		27		12		24		45

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE ELEMENTARY STAFF.

Table 6 gives a summary of facts touching the education and preparation of the 781 members of the elementary staff who answered this question. Of this number, 533, or 68.2 per cent, have been prepared in the Territory of Hawaii; 248, or 31.8 per cent, have been prepared outside the Territory. These proportions are in themselves excellent, but an analysis of each group shows that the department of education has had to accept much irregularity of preparation in its quest for teachers. Of the 248 teachers from without the Territory, three-fourths have had 14 or more years of preparation, as follows:

111 represent elementary-school graduation and high-school graduation plus normal-school graduation (2 years course).

10 represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus some college work.

[illegible] represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus some normal-school work plus some college work.

33 represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus normal-school graduation and some college work.

18 represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus college graduation.

6 represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus normal-school graduation plus college graduation.

2 represent elementary-school graduation plus high-school graduation plus college graduation plus graduate study.

The remaining one-fourth of the 248 have had irregular preparation in high schools or poor-grade normal schools, the total years of training for each amounting to elementary and high-school preparation or less, and 3 were not even graduates of an elementary school.

TABLE 6.—*Education and training of public elementary-school staff as specifically reported by 781 persons.*

Education and training.	White teachers.		Others trained in Hawaii.	Total.	Total percent.
	Trained on mainland.[1]	Trained in Hawaii.			
Less than elementary-school graduation	3	3	12	18	2.3
Elementary school graduation		6	13	19	2.4
Elementary school graduation and—					
Some normal school training		13	54	67	8.5
Some high school training	10	10	19	39	5.0
Normal school graduation	11	61	141	213	27.0
High school graduation	10	5	21	36	4.5
Some high school and normal school	5	10	24	39	5.0
Some high school and normal school graduation	13	9	21	43	5.4
High school graduation and—					
Some normal school training	11	3	7	21	2.6
Normal school graduation	111	14	50	195	25.0
Some college	10	1		11	1.4
Some normal school and some college	5	1	5	11	1.4
Some normal school and college graduation					
Normal school graduation and some college	34	2	4	38	4.8
College graduation	18		1	19	2.4
Normal school and college graduation	6		1	7	.9
College graduation and advanced study	2			2	.3
Total	248	158	375	781	99.0
Percent	31.8	20.2	48.0		99.0

[1] Twelve trained in British possessions.
[2] Include Anglo-Saxon and Portuguese teachers and some Anglo-Saxons learning by a very little teaching training in United States.
[3] Two trained in Japan.
[4] Two-year course or more.
[5] One-year course, average amount in Territorial Normal and Training School.

On the whole, however, conditions of preparation for teaching is much better: in fact, about two years better, in the case of those teachers who enter the service from abroad.

Of the 553 home-trained teachers, 84 graduates of high schools only have gone on to the normal-school graduation, which in Hawaii represents one additional year; and 14 other persons only have gone beyond high-school graduation into some normal school or some college work, and of the latter only two attained college graduation. Why so few high-school graduates in Hawaii go on to the Territorial Normal School is a question that engaged the attention of the Federal commission, until it became apparent that the normal school, through its administration, was known to disfavor this plan of preparation for teaching, seeking rather to recruit direct from elementary-school graduates.

The remaining teachers of the group locally trained, 455 in number, are distributed in columns 2 and 3 in Table 6, and show the following diversity of training:

10 have gone from high-school graduation into normal school, but have not completed that course.

15 have had less than a complete elementary-school training.

19 have had only elementary-school training.

67 have gone from the elementary school to the normal school and from there into teaching before graduating from the normal school.

36 have completed high-school graduation and gone direct into teaching.

39 have gone into teaching from the high school and before graduation.

39 have had some high-school and some normal-school work, but are graduates of neither.

259 (216+43) have completed normal-school graduation.

The significance of the list is that it represents too low standards of preparation in comparison with modern progressive school systems. At best it shows but 12 years of education and training for the bulk of the teachers, equivalent, in other words, to elementary and high school graduation. The best opinion on the mainland is calling for two additional years or a total of 14 years of preparation, divided into an elementary period of 6 to 8 years, a secondary period of 4 to 6 years, and on top of this a two-year period of specialized training in the art of teaching.

After visiting hundreds of classrooms the commission is convinced of the need of a longer period of preparation. The personnel of the prospective teachers, and the peculiar drawbacks which the schools face with reference to correct speech, give undoubted emphasis to this need. There are too many immature teachers in the schools, most of whom an not realize the importance of the tasks before them. Too many of this type, moreover, are in overcrowded lower grades. The school authorities should seek to raise the standard of preparation for local candidates by raising the entrance requirements to the normal school. Entrance should be based on graduation from a four-year high school. In this connection, the commission feels that the small percentage of teachers who have graduated from a high school and taken the one-year course at the Territorial Normal have shown themselves to be more resourceful in the classroom than those who have taken the four-year course following graduation from an elementary school.

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN HAWAIIAN SCHOOLS.

Table 7 and Graph V give a distribution of the 777 elementary teachers answering to the question regarding length of service in Hawaii.

For the entire group the median length of service is 3.47 years, the middle 50 per cent ranging from 1.12 years to 8.31 years. This is much too low for any teaching body. It means, of 777 teachers, 182, or 23 per cent, were in their first term's work; 103, or 13 per cent, were beginning their second year's work. At the other extreme 19 had seen 25 or more years of service. The median for Caucasian teachers (Anglo-Saxon and Portuguese) from the local field is 6.42

years of service, the lower and upper quartile being 2.87 and 13.08 years, respectively; while that for other local teachers is somewhat less, 4.36 years, with 1.64 years and 9.13 years as the lower and upper quartiles. The medians for these groups are nearer normal conditions. Each would be several points higher but for the fact that a great increase in school population has caused the rapid addition of new teachers.

Greater interest, however, attaches to the facts concerning mainland teachers, who have been much criticized for their short tenure of service in the islands. "The tourist teacher, out for a holiday year," is a typical comment upon them. Of these, California-trained teachers are said to be the chief offenders. The table, it will be seen, gives some basis for the above criticism, and explains fairly well why the average length of service for *all* teachers is so low. The median for the mainland group is 1.72 years. That is to say, more than one-half of these teachers have not yet completed the second year of island service—152 out of 281—and 110, indeed, are in the first year of such work. This means, of course, that the mainland teacher group is a very fluctuating one, a condition which makes it all the easier for those who by inclination resent the presence of the "outsider" to draw conclusions as to her "insincerity" and "indifference." Inexperience in the classroom is a partial explanation as to those especially who are recruited from the Pacific coast, for of 247 mainland teachers replying to the question regarding pre-Hawaiian teaching experience, 95 have reported none, a proportion which is greater than 1 in 3.

But something may be said in behalf of the teachers who go to Hawaii from the United States. The very great majority of them are not adventurers seeking a year of idleness at Territorial expense. In point of fact very few are of this sort. Nearly all of them are rendering good service, even though it be for a short period. Responsibility for frequent changes and frequent returns of teachers to the mainland has lain, for the most part, with the department of education. The department has in a number of schools failed to provide the living accommodations which it has assured teachers would be found. Too many teachers have had to start working in isolated places under such trying conditions that a whole term's teaching has been required to overcome the disappointment and chagrin. The department of education should, in the opinion of the commission, give immediate and thorough-going attention to the comfortable housing of the teachers. In addition to the problem of housing, the department needs to devise a better method of placing teachers. When these two problems have been more happily arranged, not only will mainland teachers be willing to continue longer in the service,

but the department will be justified in requiring contracts for two or more years of teaching from those newly appointed.

TABLE 7.—*Length of service in the schools of Hawaii to December, 1919, specifically reported by 777 teachers.*

Number of years	Caucasian teachers: From mainland[1]	Caucasian teachers: Of Hawaii[2]	All other teachers	Total
0-0.9	119	15	36	170
1-1.9	12	10	31	53
2	35	11	31	77
3	15	31	29	75
4	9	7	23	39
5	8	7	23	38
6	7	13	11	31
7	10	9	17	36
8	7	11	12	30
9-9.9	5	7	17	29
10-14.9	5	15	33	53
15-19.9	9	10	18	37
20-24.9	1	2	7	10
25-over	3	7	6	16
Total	281	141	355	777
Lower quartile	0.61	2.87	1.61	1.12
Median	4.72	6.32	4.36	3.47
Upper quartile	6.29	12.68	9.13	8.31

[1] Caucasian includes Americans and other Anglo-Saxons.
[2] Include Anglo-Saxons and Portuguese.

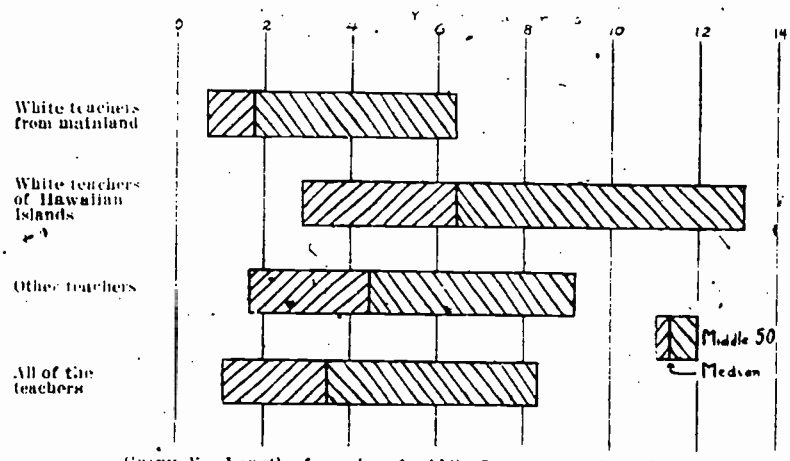


CHART V.—Length of service of middle 50 per cent of teachers.

Table 8 supplements Table 7 by presenting facts as to the number of years teachers have been in present positions.

There is something to be said in favor of teachers who can take advantage of experience on different islands of the archipelago, but there is hardly justification for such wholesale changes as occur from year to year. Apparently there are frequent changes from school to school on each island, much more so than from island to island.

Members of the commission found schools with six, seven, and eight teachers where all but one or two of the entire staff were new to the school and community. The table bears this out. Of 764 teachers listed, 46 per cent (355) are new to their environment; and almost 70 per cent of them (355+112+61) have not been three years in their present positions. The facts, it will be realized, make more emphatic the problem of teacher placement which the department of education must meet.

TABLE 8. *Tenure of teachers on present school on Dec. 1, 1919.*

	Under 1 year.	1 to 2	2 to 3	3 to 4	4 to 5	5 to 6	6 to 7	7 to 8	8 to 9	9 to 10	10 and over	Total.
Number of teachers	355	112	61	35	32	25	23	15	8	7	4	764

	10 to 11.9	11 to 12.9	12 to 13.9	13 to 14.9	14 to 15.9	15 to 16.9	16 to 17.9	17 to 18.9	18 to 19.9	20 and over	Total.
Number of teachers	50	16	33	21	7	2	1				764

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS WHILE ENTERING THE HAWAIIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Table 9 presents the distribution of 730 teachers with reference to the extent of special training or additional training since entering the service in the Hawaiian schools. Of these, 566, or 78 per cent, have not sought additional training either through summer schools or other educational institutions. This is in part explained by a general attitude that the diploma of high school or of normal school or of college, as the case may be, represents a completion of formal education for teaching; that nothing further is needed, once full certification has been met. It would be unjust, however, to assume that there is no desire for the additional growth that such agencies might offer among the 566 members of the staff. The commission, in truth, believes that opinion among these teachers would favor the extension of such agencies as are now available.

Table 9 shows that 20 per cent (147) of the teachers reporting have taken some special training; all but 19 of the 147 have attended from one to several of the summer school sessions which the department of education has maintained at the Territorial Normal School or at the very successful summer school organized in 1919 near the Volcano House, on the island of Hawaii. Of the others, 3 have added some high-school work, 2 some college work, and 14 have had special courses in music, business procedure, or in correspondence work. No modern school system would care to stand on such a meager show-

ing as this seems to imply; and the Hawaiian school system, to judge by its summer school achievement of last season, is not content with the present status. As a matter of fact, the present department of education is aware of the inadequacy of opportunities whereby the teachers of the Territory may be kept abreast of progressive movements in education in general as well as of changing methods in the art of teaching. It has plans for the extension of last summer's experiment to all of the islands. It is to be hoped the Territorial government will provide funds sufficient to bring about this highly needed extension. Along this line the following suggestions are made:

1. Conduct summer sessions in 1920 on at least two of the islands, each session to run for a period of six to eight weeks.
2. Arrange the program of courses in such a way that some of the lecturers may alternate between the two sessions.
3. For the year 1921 and thereafter conduct summer sessions on two islands alternately.
4. Require teachers to attend one of these sessions every other year or show some equivalent work: for example, study at the College of Hawaii or study at some mainland school or a professional reading course.

Referring to Table 9, it will be seen that the Hawaiian teacher seldom gets an opportunity for advanced study on the mainland. Only 2 per cent of 730 teachers indicate either study or observation at mainland institutions after having accepted positions in Hawaii. Just how large a per cent one should expect for this group is a question. The distance and the cost, as well as the limited means of transportation, are insurmountable barriers for the teaching staff as a whole and for a decided majority of those from the mainland. On the other hand, it is very evident that in times past the Territorial department has discouraged any movement of this kind by its narrow attitude with reference to leaves of absence. A very considerable number of teachers have, through the questionnaires, brought this defect to the attention of the Federal commission. According to them, teachers going to the mainland for advanced study were denied any assurance of a position on returning. It is therefore a pleasure for the commission to note in this connection the recent change of attitude adopted by the department of public instruction on December 10, 1919, and to recommend as a permanent policy the new ruling, which reads:

> In cases where a teacher who has given satisfactory service for not less than five years wishes to be absent for not more than one school year, the department may assure such teacher of reappointment as soon as practicable upon his giving notice of being ready for service.

TABLE 9.—*Special training of teachers since entering the service in the Hawaiian Islands.*

Type and period of education.	Anglo-Saxons from mainland.	Anglo-Saxons and Portuguese of Hawaii.	All others.	Total reporting training.	Per cent.
No additional training	239	88	249	576	78
Studying in Hawaiian Islands.					
Normal school summer sessions 6-11 weeks [1]	12	11	31	54	
Normal school summer sessions 12-17 weeks	5	13	25	33	
Normal school summer sessions 18-23 weeks	6	3	8	17	
Normal school summer sessions 24-29 weeks	1	2	3	6	
Normal school summer sessions 30 weeks and over		4	8	12	
Normal school one year and over	1	1	4	6	
Some high-school training		3		3	
Some college training		2		2	
Miscellaneous [2]	4	4	6	14	
Total				147	20
Studying on the mainland.					
Elementary-school training			1	1	
High-school training			1	1	
Summer school 6-11 weeks	1		2	6	
Summer school 12-17 weeks	3		1	4	
Summer school 18-23 weeks	1	1		2	
University, one year or over		1		1	
Miscellaneous [2]	1		1	2	
Total				17	2
Grand total				730	100

[1] Summer school training on the Hawaiian Islands taken mainly by those having little or no normal school training—a means of higher certification.
[2] Music, correspondence, business, etc.

TEACHERS ARE FAMILIAR WITH THE ISLANDS BUT NOT WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Although the larger islands of the Hawaiian archipelago are sufficiently distant from each other to make of interisland travel an item of fairly considerable expense, nearly the entire teaching staff seems to possess a rather extensive knowledge of the geographical features of the group and a knowledge of local conditions on particular islands. Six out of every seven teachers have lived on or visited at least two of the islands, and more than half of the staff has first-hand acquaintance with three of the four important islands. Mainland teachers are especially well equipped from this point of view, but the locally trained teachers have shown a degree of interest almost as great. In consequence, one finds less provincialism as between islands and districts of the same than may at times be found among rural sections of some of our States.

Provincialism, however, is very noticeable as soon as one turns to considerations touching the mainland, the United States. Neither the United States, nor its people, nor its Government, occupy much space in the consciousness of those teachers who possess only the

Hawaiian or Hawaiian-Oriental background. The full meaning and significance of Americanism or of America's place in the family of nations is not grasped. Not that these teachers are lacking in a sense of loyalty. Their pupils are as well trained in flag drills as any others: they can recite as lofty sentiments of patriotism in prose and poetry as any others. What they really need as American teachers of American boys and girls is an opportunity to experience the thrills that come from knowing in an intimate and direct way something about our bustling cities, our marts of trade and industry, and our sweep of prairies where so much of the world's food is grown. Opportunity for observation and study through specific courses of training might well be put within the reach of one or two score of Hawaiian-born teachers each year. China and Japan and the Philippines are sending their quotas from far greater distances. Like these countries, Hawaii would discover that rich returns are realizable on a public investment of this sort. The effect such a policy would have on the professional improvement of the teaching body would be difficult to overestimate.

PROFESSIONAL READING BY TEACHERS.

Educational magazines are subscribed to or are accessible to a great majority of the teachers. Frequently groups living in the teachers' cottages will secure club rates for a number of educational and other magazines. Again, individual teachers report that they are subscribers to as many as four to six of these periodicals. Technical educational magazines are known to very few. Many, however, seem to be readers of the Educational Review, while School and Society has just passed the introductory stage. The local Hawaiian Educational Review, a journal of much merit published by the department of public instruction under the leadership of the superintendent, is closely followed by nearly all of the teachers. Taking for its shibboleth "The schools of Hawaii belong to the people of Hawaii, who should be fully informed concerning all details of the same," this journal undertakes to exploit the cause of public education, to set forth in a very frank manner the local conditions and needs, and to foster a high standard of professional interest and ethics among the teachers. Recent issues of the journal are on such a high plane and contain material of so much value to the teacher as well as to the public that the commission believes it promises to become an important factor in the improvement of teachers.

The commission believes that much more can be done than is done at present along the line of prescribed as well as suggested professional reading for the teachers in the field. In the first place, the department of public instruction can avail itself of one resource, which is immediately at hand, but which is not now appreciated in

any adequate sense, namely, the Library of Hawaii. It is recommended that some form of closer cooperation be sought with this fine institution, to the end that groups of important works on educational movements and methods may be kept in circulation in all parts of the Territory. In the second place, the department itself needs an official one, of whose chief duties will be the administration of reading-circle work among the entire staff. This person could, for instance, become the coordinating officer between the department and the library, and also between the latter and the Hawaiian Educational Review.

TEACHERS' MEETINGS AND THE LEADERSHIP OF PRINCIPALS.

In modern school administration much is being accomplished by the principal who has the qualities of leadership and who can put the same into practice among his group of assistants. The teachers' meetings under such a person lose their perfunctory and tiresome character. Teachers respond to the call for teamwork and to the call for a study and discussion of classroom and school problems. Ere long they find themselves in an attitude of appreciative interest, engrossed in the consideration of real problems of the day's work, each a contributing member of the sum total of conclusions. Problems of promotion may be thrashed out at one period, the relation of mental age to class work at another. Thus a school faculty may make of itself a prime agency of improvement and growth.

The schools of Hawaii lack the stimulus that comes from this type of cooperative activity. Teachers were asked to report on the frequency of teachers' meetings. Few failed to do this, and many have reported on the perfunctory nature of the same. The time of holding the meetings varies. In some places a meeting or conference is held every other week; in other places there is a meeting each month; elsewhere the practice is to hold at least two such meetings per term. Routine matters are the rule, or possibly the reading of some new regulations sent out from Honolulu. Constructive suggestions touching classroom procedure, we learn, are rarely heard; neither are exchanges of opinion on mooted questions made a matter of request, nor references cited to trustworthy discussions of them. These conditions emphasize what was said in an earlier section in regard to the need of more aggressive leadership on the part of principals. To what extent can the principals of Hawaii accept as a function of their positions responsibility for the professional improvement of their assistants? The principals on the island of Kauai have recently formed a study club, and this problem might well be made a subject of study and investigation by them for the coming year, a suggestion which is equally pertinent for the principals on the other islands.

TEACHERS' CONVENTIONS.

Hawaii made very early provision for teachers' conventions. These were held frequently on each island, and once a year, though with only partial regularity, a general convention was held in Honolulu. From 1888 to 1900 yearly central meetings of all teachers were held regularly, and on two occasions at least teachers' traveling expenses to and from Honolulu were paid. Since 1900 this general convention has been superseded by the summer school, to which reference has been made, and which has been attended from year to year by those teachers, irregular in their training, who have wished to advance the grade of their certification.

To-day the Territory brings the teachers of each of the large islands into a one-day convention or institute. These are all held on the same day and, as a rule, on a Friday in the month of November. The time is too short for carrying out a very adequate program, and the commission holds the opinion that much more could be made of this occasion; that in fact these meetings can come to hold an important place among the activities designed to promote esprit de corps among the teaching staff. Certainly two days, and perhaps three, should be given to these meetings. Communities in which the conventions are held should be urged to cooperate with the school officials and the department of public instruction to make these sessions noteworthy for democratic hospitality and for the inculcation of a spirit of good will among teachers and school patrons. The department should make a studied effort to provide inspiring speakers, both those who can deal with the theory and practice of teaching and those who can bring messages from the world without the classroom; for example, from the church, the court room, the Government office, the bank, the industrial plant. Some of the sessions should be given over to contributions from the teachers themselves—from committees of teachers who bring in the results of a year of study on some special problem of the Hawaiian schools. Furthermore, these conventions should be held on different dates. For instance, the islands of Hawaii and Maui might divide one week in November for their meetings; Oahu and Kauai might divide the following week. Thus a group of superior speakers could be listed for all of the islands, which would not only effect a saving in costs but would simplify the problem of program planning. If, in order to accomplish the proposed change, each island were obliged to close its schools for the greater part of a week, there would be ample justification for the innovation.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

The Territory recognizes credentials for elementary certification as follows:

1. University or college degrees.

2. Diplomas from State normal schools.
3. Diplomas from the Territorial Normal and Training School in Honolulu.
4. Normal certificates issued by the Territorial Normal and Training School.
5. State grammar grade certificates.
6. State life diplomas.
7. Primary grade certificates attained by successfully passing examinations (three groups) given each year by the Territorial board of examiners.
8. Grammar grade certificates attained in similar manner.

The requirements as listed are not unlike those found generally in the United States. But the problem of teacher shortage has brought into acceptance certain departures that need to be pointed out. The fourth item above, namely, the normal certificate, issued by the local institution operates as an easement of the usual requirements for the regular diploma. Students who have not taken algebra and geometry, who, in other words, can not master these subjects, and who also fail to reach a certain attainment in English, have been accepted for these certificates in lieu of diplomas. They are supposedly of lower rank in intelligence, and under normal conditions should probably have been eliminated from the teaching group. The extent to which normal-school students have been graduated with the certificate rather than the diploma is shown in Table 10 below:

TABLE 10.—*Graduates of the Territorial Normal School.*

	1895	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907
Graduating with—												
Diploma	1	2	9	6	2	4	.....	1	5	6	4	8
Certificate	8	3	10	11	19	7	26	17	16	13	18	19
Total number	9	5	19	17	21	11	26	18	21	19	22	27

	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	Total.
Graduating with—											
Diploma	9	17	21	22	31	27	20	16	30	37	277
Certificate	19	23	10	6	6	11	11	14	8	19	294
Total number	28	40	31	28	37	38	31	30	38	56	571

In a period of two decades, it may be observed, more students were sent over the easier road of certification than were credentialed by means of diplomas. When it is realized that the normal school requirements for graduation are two years less than is required in the more modern mainland States, its justification must apparently be put on other grounds than good normal school practice. From one point of view, it has tended to double the enrollment of the normal

school; from another, it has kept a fair percentage of prospective teachers from seeking certification for public school service through less desirable channels. Because of recent legislative action, however, which fixes a lower salary schedule for holders of it, the normal certificate will doubtless fall into gradual disuse. This should enable that teacher training center to concentrate attention on the possibility of organizing and maintaining a relatively high standard of accomplishment for those who are to carry its stamp of approval and guarantee into the classrooms of the Territory.

Another departure in the machinery of certification has to do with item 7 above; that is, with the procedure leading to primary grade certificates. As indicated, this type of certificate is based on passing three groups of examinations. The first of these is in the subjects of the course of study of the elementary schools, and if successfully passed the candidate is given a first permit, which carries authority to teach for the next school year only. The second examination may then be taken, which is a test of the candidate's knowledge of teaching methods in the grades in which she has been employed. If passed, a second permit is issued for another year of teaching. The third examination is based on pedagogy, school law, and general methods of teaching. Practically all States allow some type of certification by examination, in addition to credentials from training institutions, and this Hawaiian plan is theoretically as good as, if not better than, others. But the demand for teachers has caused what is in fact a pretty general disregard of this regulation which is supposed to be the minimum standard of teacher accreditation. In the first place the school system has retained teachers on first permits after repeated failures in examinations. It has also employed them when they have failed to pass the first test. The following cases, taken from the teachers record books, in the office of the superintendent of public instruction, will illustrate the points. They represent a few among numerous instances:

Case 1. Teacher A secured first permit 1915; has taught continuously to December, 1919, with no record of advance in certification.

Case 2. Teacher B has taught since spring of 1916; took examination for primary grade certificate 1917; failed.

Case 3. Teacher C has taught since fall of 1915; no credentials; failed in examination each year.

Case 4. Teacher D has taught since fall of 1915; first permit secured 1915; second permit secured 1917; no further credential.

Case 5. Teacher E has taught since fall of 1917; failed in primary grade examination in 1917; failed in 1918; failed in 1919.

Case 6. Teacher F has taught since fall of 1915; failed in primary grade examination held in 1917; failed in 1918; failed in 1919.

Case 7. Teacher G has taught since fall of 1917; failed in primary grade examination held in 1917; failed in 1919.

In the second place the school authorities have met the problem of under supply by employing so-called "substitute" teachers, some of whom have been ex-teachers possessing credentials, some normal school senior students, and some have been persons without any credentials. For example, the roster of teachers in the employ of the public schools December, 1918, shows 1,063 persons. Almost one-tenth of the number (98) had no actual credentials. They belonged to the two classes (*a*) "substitutes" and (*b*) "failed in examinations." If, now, we add to the 98 those teachers, 214 in number, who held primary grade certificates only, we find that 312 teachers or approximately one-third of the elementary staff were holders of either the minimum standard for certification or of no standard at all.

These facts have prompted the Federal commission to make the following suggestions concerning certification of teachers:

1. The normal certificate should be done away with after the end of the current year and the diploma should be made the sole standard of graduation. While the diploma may be given for the completion of different courses within the institution, it should be based on equivalent values as to excellence of attainment.

2. The department of public instruction should as early as possible deny certification to any new applicants who come without acceptable credentials and who can not meet such tests as are now set up for the primary grade certificate. It should also administer more rigorously the present regulations for said certificate, with a view to eliminating those who after due trial exhibit inability to understand the content of elementary grade subjects. Such teachers, it may be surmised, can hardly do justice to the subjects when in charge of classes.

3. In addition to the fixing of a maximum salary limit which is lower for the holders of this certificate (a rule now in force for those certificated after August 31, 1919), the standard of requirements for the same should be gradually raised until, within four or five years, it parallels the standard for grammar grade certification.

4. For whatever loss of teachers the suggestions entail, and until local agencies and local candidates can readjust to the changes, let the department increase its efforts to secure properly certificated teachers from abroad.

PROMOTION AND RATING OF TEACHERS.

In the past any promotion policy as regards teachers has been confined almost altogether to the automatic increases in salary from year to year. Changes from one school to another, to one more desirable, have been based largely on momentary conditions and the persuasiveness of individual teachers. Experience in some rural sections of the Territory has usually been required in order to secure a position (in other words, promotion to a position) in Honolulu. In addition

to this, an examination of the Territorial regulations reveals three items that bear indirectly on the question of promotion, as follows:

(1) Competent teachers in undesirable locations may be paid above schedule—the factors determining competency in such cases are not stated, though conceivably the rule covers teachers holding higher forms of credentials.

(2) Principals of schools of from 2 to 10 rooms shall be required to have a primary-grade certificate; of schools of 10 rooms or more, a grammar-grade certificate.

(3) Each supervising principal "must be the holder of a grammar-grade certificate."

The department of public instruction has used for a number of years a regular form of rating of teachers, and the data thus collected are kept on file in a series of Teachers Record Books. The ratings are made by the supervising principals, some of whom send in new reports every term—that is, three times per year—and others of whom report two times per year on an average. An illustration of this plan of teacher rating is given below:

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HAWAII.

Report on M..... from ..... 191... to ..... 191...

Neatness of room and pupils	5	4	4	4
School atmosphere	5	4	4	4
Discipline	5	4	4	4
Territorial school laws	5	3	4	3
Equipment due to effort	5	4	5	4
Register	4	4	3	4
Daily lesson plan and program	8	7	7	7
Care and correction of pupil's written work	8	7	7	7
Preparation	10	7	9	9
Presentation	10	8	9	8
Illustrative matter	10	8	9	9
Pupil's expression work	25	21	22	21
Average per cent		81	87	84
Year's average				
Grades taught		1	1	1
Time (in minutes) in room		60	70	70
Date of visit		12-7-15	3-15-16	6-8-16
Comments:				

An examination of the ratings leads one to the belief that there is a general absence of any real study or analysis of teacher achievement. Indeed, the form that is used would seem to put undue emphasis upon the routine of the school. It leaves ample space for "comments," but here one does not find enough attention given to constructive criticism of the teaching of subject matter. This will be observed in the following typical reproductions of comments as made by different supervising principals supplementary to their percentage ratings:

TYPES OF COMMENTS SUPPLEMENTING THE FORMAL RATING OF TEACHERS BY SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS.

Case 14. Anglo-Saxon teacher.

March 3. The pupils respond fairly well, considering their isolation. Some of them are bright. Talked with them on the doing of things.

March 22. She does very well in this isolated school. Pupils respond well. Order and discipline above the average.

March 13. Teacher goes right ahead in a businesslike way. Makes some errors in English and is not especially strong as a teacher, but is probably the best we can get here.

Case 15. Part-Hawaiian teacher.

November 22. Plan book not followed. Many days had no plan. This teacher could be a success in a school under a good principal; she is quiet in her teaching and has good control over pupils.

June 6. Teacher is putting forth effort to carry out instructions.

September 21. The school makes a good impression on a visitor. The teacher has a pleasing manner.

February 19. This is the best-regulated school on ..... The teacher is capable of doing still better work.

May 14. Work was all oral, with no attempt at teaching the subject.

September 17. Teacher not physically fit to be in classroom.

March 11. She gets fair results.

Case 16. Portuguese teacher.

December 7. Teacher shows interest and is doing good work for a beginner.

March 15. Teacher has collected some useful equipment. Has also bought materials for sewing classes. She has subscribed for helpful educational journals. Pupils are alert and interested.

June 8. Pupils are interested and respond well. Results show teacher has been doing good work.

October 5. Teacher is practical in her work. Discipline a little weak.

March 27. Teacher is trying to make good. Her class is too large.

March 27. Teacher has succeeded in carrying out instructions given on last visit.

October 12. Quiet, industrious, and pleasing.

March 8. Quiet, deliberate, interested, energetic, and pleasing.

November 6. Bright, energetic, interested, and pleasing.

Case 19. Anglo-Saxon teacher.

November 20. This teacher is weak in bringing out ideas and drilling to fix results. Good in music. Has reached only seventh page in reader.

November 30. Voice and manner pleasing. Is improving by her experience.

May 17. Her work has greatly improved. The attention was good.

November 23. A fair teacher, who seems to be developing. An excellent disciplinarian, but hardly vivacious or enthusiastic enough in presentation.

January 22. A fair teacher. Does careful work, but too phlegmatic.

June 4. Has been ill; improving, but too placid. Excellent disciplinarian. Scrupulously clean.

October 9. Seems lacking in enthusiasm; quiet and deliberate.

November 6. Ill—absent.

June 4. Quiet, deliberate, and interested.

September 30. Reading. Cheerful but listless. Pupils speak indistinctly and read haltingly.

January 20. Cheerful, not forceful. Pupils much improved in enunciation.

May 12. Cheerful, interested, and developing force. Results good.

Case 21. Hawaiian teacher.

October 28. Teacher is sincere and industrious. Her work is fair.

March 22. She will attend the summer school.

June 21. Teacher is industrious and faithful, but she is weak in school.

January 15. Teacher is doing her best. Her scope is limited.

November 18. Great native ability. Efficient within her scope.

November 20. Works hard. English poor.

September 27. Enthusiastic. Geography. Conscientious, earnest, painstaking. Teacher's English is poor.

February 11. Industrious, earnest, painstaking. A good teacher.

Case 22. Chinese teacher.

September 20. A few years more in school may be helpful, but I am doubtful. Rather inane and spiritless.

February 15. Needs a few more years in grammar school.

May 14. Improving but should be back in grammar school. Unprepared and immature. With training should make a promising teacher.

October 7. Academically limited but doing fair work this year. English her drawback. Efforts this term and results deserve a "passing mark."

January 29. English shows a remarkable improvement. Her steady work has brought this about. Excellent response.

Just to what extent the supervising principals are engrossed in petty administrative details and to what extent they conceive one of their chief functions to be the enriching of their teachers' resources and the improvement of classroom skill is fairly well indicated by a study of the great list of comments that are accumulating in the central office at Honolulu. Aside from this consideration, however, there arises the question, To what use is all this information put? Seldom if ever has it been studied as a basis for promoting teachers, either individually or as a group. That it has ever been a matter of much weight in the selection of principals is likewise very doubtful.

The most unfortunate feature about the plan, however, is the reaction on the teachers themselves. The following comments by teachers are typical:

"It has been well said in a recent statement by the department of public instruction that the work of the supervising principals should be constructive rather than formalistic and destructive. Taking that statement as a basis for action, it seems to me that no more vital change could be made in the method of supervision than to abolish the perfunctory and petty method of judging the work of teachers by a certain grade given largely on routine work, such as making out registers properly, etc. I refer to the typewritten formalistic reports given each teacher by the supervising principal."

"It will surely be apparent to anyone really concerned with the vital issues of education that such a method is nothing less than an insult, a personal affront, to every sincere teacher. How can the sincerity of purpose, the vitality given to the work of the pupils, the interest shown in all the interests of pupil life, be in any way represented by the way the registers are kept, the plan book made out, or any such mechanical work? We all know good teachers whose plan books and registers are perfect abominations for one reason or another, poor writing or what not, yet this formal report gives 12 out of 100 points on these two unimportant and absolutely worthless things from the standpoint of real teaching."

"I am sorry if my attack upon this phase of supervision seems virulent or unwarranted. Yet think a moment. The things that I considered worth while, the things that I stressed as a principal, were not even remotely mentioned in this report upon my standing as a teacher. The interest shown in the lives and future careers of the children, the interest shown in local needs, the effort to develop clean play and real ideals of honesty and true sportsmanship in the boys and girls, where do they come in? Are such things so unimportant, so remotely connected with education, that they receive no emphasis in making up the real worth and standing of a teacher? I would be pleased to know what other teachers and members of the department think about this."

In view of the foregoing, the Federal commission makes the following recommendations:

1. The department of public instruction should undertake a revision of its whole plan of teacher-rating and promotion after a study of the most successful plans now in operation in the United States.

2. The new plan should include the possibility of promotion based on merit as well as on service. A teacher is no exception to the rule that most people do their best work under a constant stimulus to improvement. While a salary schedule may and should be based *in part* on years of service, it may also wisely offer additional rewards for growth and efficiency after the common maximum has been reached. Such a combination schedule offers one of the best means of stimulating continued professional growth on the part of teachers.

3. The new plan should recognize the right of the teacher to know, approximately at least, the rating of her teaching efficiency, and those persons in charge of this branch of work should be trained to cooperate with the teacher, not only in classroom suggestion, but in pointing out analytically the elements of strength and weakness in methods employed.

THE DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS.

The question of the dismissal of teachers from the public schools of Hawaii is governed by the following regulation of the department of public instruction:

A teacher may be dismissed from the service for cause after a hearing of the case before the department or authorized agent of the department. The following may be considered as sufficient cause for dismissal: (*a*). Immoral conduct; (*b*) insubordination; (*c*) inefficiency; (*d*) conviction of a penal offense; (*e*) incurable disease.

A teacher may also be dismissed from the department whenever, after a hearing, it shall appear to the department that such dismissal will be for the benefit of the department.

Dismissal for any of causes (*a*), (*c*), (*d*) will include cancellation of certificate.

A teacher may be transferred from one school to another at the discretion of the department of public instruction.

While this regulation has seldom been invoked, there have occurred from time to time both dismissals from the service and transfers from desirable to less desirable schools or positions. Moves of this kind are usually the cause of much bitterness of feeling, which may be of long standing and lead to prolonged factional strife. Hawaii has had her share of such trouble. It has resulted in a certain undercurrent of feeling in the school system—a feeling that in any case of serious difference between school official and the teacher the latter has little hope of having unbiased judgment rendered. The Federal commission believes there is a middle ground of procedure in such cases, by means of which the rights of both parties are considered. This procedure has been so well stated by Prof. E. P. Cubberley in his book on "Public School Administration" that the commission desires to include it here for the consideration of not only the department of public instruction and the teaching staff but the public as well.

The notice of dismissal should in itself be given under certain definite conditions which are just to both sides. In the first place, no teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory services who has not been notified of the deficiencies and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them. If improvement does not result sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that written notice be served on the teacher, for specified reasons, to the effect that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher, to take effect at the close of the school year. If the board approves, the notice should be given to the teacher, and not later than the last day the schools are in session during the school year, and when so served the contract with such teacher terminates at the end of such school year. For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract the superintendent and the board should be the sole judge, without the meddling of lawyers or the interference of the courts. Teachers not so notified continue in service from year to year.

This middle ground is equally just to both sides. The usual condition is not just to teachers who have spent years in making preparation for a life

work of service, and the life-tenure plan is not just to taxpayers or to the children in the schools. The middle ground gives practically life tenure to every worthy teacher and school officer, but merely reserves to the board of control for the schools, acting on the recommendation of their chief executive officer, and only after helpful advice has failed to bring the desired improvement, the right quietly to remove from the schools those who should not be there.

SALARIES OF THE ELEMENTARY STAFF.

Among recent noteworthy advances in Hawaii's public schools particular mention may be given to the new salary schedule adopted in August, 1919. This schedule, which has provided substantial increases, is given herewith for the elementary staff:

SALARY SCHEDULE OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS AND ASSISTANTS.

	Per month.	Per year.[2]
I. Holders of the grammar grade certificates and normal diplomas, or equivalents.[1]		
First year	$85	$1,020
Second year	90	1,080
Third year	95	1,140
Fourth year	100	1,200
Fifth year	105	1,260
Sixth year	110	1,320
Seventh year	115	1,380
Eighth year and after	125	1,500
II. Holders of primary grade certificates[3] or normal-school certificates.[4]		
First year	75	900
Second year	80	960
Third year	85	1,020
Fourth year	85	1,020
Fifth year	87.50	1,050
Sixth year	90.00	1,080
Seventh year	92.50	1,110
Eighth year	95.00	1,140
Ninth year	100.00	1,200
Tenth year and after	105.00	1,260
III. Uncertificated teachers	55.00	660
Permits:		
First year	60.00	720
Second year	65.00	780

[1] University and college degrees, normal diplomas, State grammar grade certificates, and State life diplomas may at the discretion of the board of examiners be accepted as the equivalent of Hawaiian grammar grade certificates or diplomas.

[2] The school year consists of 10 months of teaching and 2 summer months, viz, July and August. All salaries for each school year terminate Aug. 31. All teachers who are in the service of the department at the close of the spring term shall be entitled to as many tenths of their respective salaries for July and August as they have taught months.

[3] The maximum salary for holders of a primary grade certificate issued after Aug. 31, 1919, will be $85. Those teachers at present in the service who have held primary grade certificates 10 years or more, and who have on June 30, 1919, completed 10 years of satisfactory teaching, shall receive the maximum salary of the grammar grade certificate. Half time taught elsewhere than in the Territory, not to exceed three years, may be allowed in determining the initial salary of teachers; provided, however, that after one year of satisfactory service full time not to exceed six years may be allowed.

[4] The maximum salary for holders of a normal-school certificate issued after June 30, 1919, will be $85.

TABLE 11.—*Annual salary of elementary staff, based on 692 persons reporting.*[1]

Salaries	Caucasian teachers: From Mainland.	Caucasian teachers: Of Hawaiian Islands.	Caucasian teachers: Others.	Caucasian teachers: Total	Total in per cents.
Under $600	1		4	5	0.7
600-699	2	7	17	26	3.8
700-799	4	2	11	17	2.5
800-899			1	1	
900-999	10	8	29	47	6.8
1,000-1,099	67	25	76	168	24.3
1,100-1,199	35	11	24	70	10.0
1,200-1,299	50	16	33	99	14.3
1,300-1,399	4	13	15	32	4.6
1,400-1,499	3	2	6	11	2.0
1,500-1,599	31	41	72	144	20.8
1,600-1,699	5	2	1	8	1.1
1,700-1,799		1		1	
1,800-1,899	5		5	8	
1,900-1,999	1			1	
2,000-2,199	5	1	1	7	
2,500-over	7			7	
Total	229	129	314	692	99.8
Median salary for each group	$1,185	$1,272	$1,099	$1,148	

[1] Some of the elementary principals are included; in fact, they represent all the salaries above the $1,500-$1,599 group. Most of the principals in Hawaii have teaching duty.

[2] Lowest salary reported is $4.44. Where salaries are reported less than $600 per year, it probably indicates that teachers will be employed less than a full year. See note under schedule above. Or it may be a calculation for the year 1919 based on old and new schedules. In either case it has only the slightest effect on the table.

The status of actual salary received has been reported on by 692 of the elementary staff in Table 11, the data of which are summarized. While the largest group of teachers (24.3 per cent) in this table received an annual salary of between $1,000 and $1,099, the median salary of the entire number reporting is between $1,100 and $1,200. Bearing in mind that the median length of service in the public schools is 3.47 years, the relationship of Table 11 to the salary schedule above is very well indicated. The medians for the different groups of teachers are seen to vary. The median salary for mainland teachers is about that for the group as a whole. The median for Caucasians (Anglo-Saxons and Portuguese) who are locally recruited is $200 greater than the median for other local teachers, and it is $100 greater than that for the entire number. The difference between the first and second groups (columns 2 and 3) is explained by length of service and its effect on the salary schedule, while the difference between both of these and the third group (column 4) is due in part to less teaching experience and in part to a lower grade of certification.

If salary conditions in Hawaii are compared with similar conditions in the United States, the Territory will appear in a favorable light. Such a comparison may be made by means of Table 12, which presents salary statistics with reference to elementary teachers in 392 cities for the year 1918-19.

Strictly speaking, the comparison can not be an exact one, because of the inclusion of a small percentage of principals in Table 11, whereas in Table 12 there is no certainty as to this point; on the

other hand, the data are comparable as to salary ranges up to $1,500. Table 11 shows that the largest group of teachers in Hawaii (24.3 per cent) receives a higher salary ($1,000 to $1,099) than the largest group of teachers (32.2 per cent) in the 392 cities ($800 to $999). In Hawaii only 16 per cent of the teachers receive less than $1,000, as against 71 per cent receiving less in 392 cities. Again, in Hawaii 71 per cent of the teachers receive a salary between $1,000 and $1,599, while 28.6 per cent of teachers in 392 cities were receiving between $1,000 and $1,599. Turning to the western group of States in Table 11 (Group E), 34.3 per cent of the teachers in these States were receiving less than $1,000 per year and 65.3 per cent were receiving between $1,000 and $1,599. Corresponding figures for Hawaii, as previously noted, are 16 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively.

From a comparative point of view, then, Hawaii is found to be progressively abreast of the present movement of better remuneration for the teaching profession. But like other parts of the country, Hawaii will doubtless be called upon to meet further increases for this class of public servants. Commendable though it was, it must be realized that the recent adoption of the new salary schedule for the Territory was a belated act. If statistics for the 392 cities for 1919-20 were at hand,[6] they would doubtless show very marked progress toward still higher salary ratings for elementary teachers, and Hawaii is too dependent upon mainland teachers to be unresponsive to these facts.

TABLE 12: *Elementary teachers' salaries for 1918-19 in 392 cities.*[1]

[Distributed according to geographical grouping and salaries received.]

Salary groups.	Group A.[2]		Group B.[3]		Group C.[4]		Group D.		Group E.[5]		Total.	
	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.	Number of teachers.	Per cent of total.
$200-399	78	0.7	184	2.5	13	0.8	14	0.2	2	.....	291	0.9
$400-599	993	9.5	1,003	13.9	499	9.6	303	5.0	23	0.5	2,823	8.1
$600-799	3,462	33.2	3,071	42.5	2,043	39.4	1,109	18.2	352	10.2	10,387	29.9
$800-999	3,748	35.9	2,619	36.2	1,592	30.7	1,924	31.5	1,274	23.6	11,157	32.1
$1,000-1,199	1,768	17.0	295	4.1	758	14.6	1,429	23.4	1,660	30.8	6,110	17.6
$1,200-1,399	292	2.9	45	.6	221	4.3	1,224	20.0	1,344	24.9	3,148	9.1
$1,400-1,599	45	.4	12	.2	33	.6	60	1.0	515	9.6	665	1.9
$1,600-1,799	28	.3	4	.....	15	.3	26	.4	19	.4	89	.3
$1,800-1,999	4	.....	3	.....	5	.1	17	.3	1	.....	30	.1
$2,000-2,199	.....	.....	1	.....	3	.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	.....
$2,200-2,399	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....

[1] From Public School Survey of Memphis, Tenn., U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1919, No. 50, p. 68.

[2] Group A. Eastern, including Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont.

[3] Group B. Southern, including Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia.

[4] Group C. Great Lakes, including Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota.

[5] Group E. Western, including Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, Wyoming.

[6] See in this connection facts regarding the advances which have been made in teacher's salaries since 1914, Memphis Survey, U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1919, No. 50, p. 65. Separate figures for 1919–20, however, are not given.

There are, however, facts of a local nature which enter into consideration. These have to do with (*a*) living expenses, (*b*) the question of whether the teacher has other persons dependent upon her, and (*c*) the possibility of a margin of savings from present salary.

Tables 13 and 14 show the variation in living expenses (room, board, and laundry) of those teachers who live in cottages provided by the department of public instruction and those who have to obtain quarters outside.

Of the teachers grouped in Table 13 the median monthly expenditure is $37.64. Those in the middle 50 per cent of the group find that their expenses range between $25 and $51.25 per month. Those in the upper fourth of the group pay under this item from $51.25 to $100 or over per month. Table 14 gives comparative figures for teachers who depend upon private boarding places. The median monthly expense for this group is $50.85; for the middle 50 per cent the cost ranges between $36.90 and $66 per month, while for those in the upper fourth the range is from $66 to $100 or more.

TABLE 13.—*Living expenses per month of teachers in teachers' cottages (including board, room, and laundry).*

Amount of expense.	Caucasian teachers		Others.	Total.
	From mainland.	Of Hawaiian Islands.		
Under $20	3	1	2	6
$20-29.99	32	6	32	70
$30-39.99	41	4	24	72
$40	21	2	22	45
$50	11	2	11	24
$60	4	2	7	13
$70	4	1	5	10
$80	2	2	2	6
$90		1	2	3
$100 and over	5	3	5	13
Total	126	24	112	262
Median for total group, $37.64				

TABLE 14.—*Living expenses per month of teachers not in teachers' cottages (including board, room, and laundry).*

Amount of expense.	Caucasian teachers		Others.	Total.
	From mainland.	Of Hawaiian Islands.		
Under $20	2		6	8
$20-29.99	6	3	6	15
$30	16	10	19	45
$40	7	9	21	37
$50	15	9	17	41
$60	11	4	14	29
$70	4	6	6	16
$80	1	4	7	12
$90		1	2	3
$100 and over	1	7	3	11
Total	63	53	101	217
Median for total group, $50.85				

It must be realized that the tables set forth facts touching only the fundamental necessities of living expenses and that heavy inroads are thus made at the very outset on the teacher's monthly warrant. But in addition to this teachers in Hawaii, to a greater extent than elsewhere, have others depending upon them for support. In fact, the extent to which this is true is shown in Table 15 herewith.

TABLE 15. *Other persons dependent upon teachers for support in whole or in part.*[1]

Number of dependents.	Caucasian teachers— From mainland.	Of Hawaiian Islands.	Others.	Total.
0	118	15	26	189
1	47	17	43	107
2	26	24	87	137
3	13	17	62	92
4	3	10	32	45
5	3	3	40	46
6	1	4	18	23
7		6	15	21
8		3	11	14
10		2	2	4
11	1	3	3	7
12		2	3	5
13			1	1
		1		1
Total	212	137	343	692

[1] Many local teachers help in the support of unusually large families.

Thus, out of 692 teachers replying to the question concerning dependents, 189 persons only report none. Those having at least one dependent are 503, or 74 per cent; those with two or more dependents are 396, or 57 per cent. Therefore, with living expenses proportionately high, and with such a large percentage of teachers assuming the responsibility of one or more dependents, it seems evident that the Hawaiian teaching staff is not as yet in a position to save anything out of prevailing salaries. And the facts as presented in Table 16 bear out such a conclusion.

TABLE 16.—*Amount of salary teachers save per year.*[1]

Amount.	Caucasian teachers— From mainland.	Of Hawaiian Islands.	Other teachers.	Total.
Nothing	98	71	177	346
$1-$49.99	13	9	63	85
$50-$99.99	5	8	27	40
$100-$149	10	6	15	31
$150-$199	12	2	11	25
$200-$299	22	12	14	48
$300-$399	29	12	17	58
$400-$499	9	4	10	23
$500-$599	11	2	2	15
$600 and over	19	5	9	33
Total	228	131	345	704

[1] Some married women save all of their salary. A number of married couples are teaching. Many report saving this year for first time. Many are in debt, largely because they are new in the system and have borrowed money for transportation from mainland.

According to this data almost one-half of the 704 persons answering save nothing from their yearly salary, while three-fourths of them save less than $200.

IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS FAVORING HIGHER SALARIES.

The building up of an adequately paid, contented teaching staff is one of the most essential conditions to the success of a school system. Considerations in support of this view are to be found in nearly all recent school surveys, but more particularly so in the case of the Memphis Survey. Statements of such convincing logic are to be found in the latter that liberty is taken to quote at some length, as follows:

Good business practice outside of the teaching profession is recognizing this need, for it is learning that success within the field of business enterprise is largely dependent upon offering to employees inducements such that long tenure and the taking of a vital interest in the business will inevitably ensue. If it be true that a happy, contented, and care-free employee is requisite for success within the domain of business, how much more must a serene mind be essential to work of a superior quality in the business of teaching. Good teaching, perhaps more than good work in any other activity, is dependent upon a buoyant, hopeful, joyous mind; for good teaching is a matter primarily of the spirit. A state of mind is contagious. Happy teachers mean happy children, and unhappiness in a teacher inevitably begets unhappiness among children. Men and women, as well as children, can never do their best work when they are dispirited, discouraged, and depressed. True, some teachers are able, however adverse the conditions, to live in the realm of the free spirit, but with most the response to external conditions is powerful and immediate. In the interest of the children, therefore, school officials should give much practical consideration to the ways and means of improving the material conditions which press in upon the life of their teachers.

The qualifications required of teachers are constantly rising. There was a time when young people who could do nothing else or who wished to gain a few dollars to enable them to attend a business college or a medical or law school turned to teaching with no intention of remaining in the work longer than a year or two at most; but those days have gone by never to return. It is now generally recognized that qualities of character and intelligence, as well as careful training, are essential; and, more and more, officials who are responsible to the people for the administration of their schools are raising the required standard of qualifications. The teacher should always be, and in most cases is, the equal of the men and women who enter other branches of professional life; and yet she, all too frequently, receives a recompense which is less than the wages of those who are doing the most menial and unskilled labor of the community.

* * * * * * *

Furthermore, a teacher should purchase many books, she should attend conventions and conferences, and she should travel. Her growth can not be maintained unless she reads daily, unless she comes in personal contact with people outside her own community who afford a corrective against the provincialism of localities, and unless she broadens her horizon through travel. But these things can not be accomplished without money. A teacher should be so situated

financially that she can spend a fifth of her salary, at least, in such effort at self-improvement and in the acquisition of self-culture.

In short, a salary should be paid sufficient to enable teachers to live in reasonable comfort and still have left a margin adequate to permit them to take advantage of the various opportunities for personal growth offered by their own and other communities; and with a margin, too, generous enough to make it possible for them to command that respect and recognition in the community to which the dignity and worth of their profession entitle them. In addition, a teacher who has proved her worth in actual practice should be placed completely at ease with respect to tenure. Provisions should also be made, again with the welfare of the children in mind, for a retirement fund which will enable an allowance to be made to the one who has faithfully served her community during the active and virile period of her life span and which will make it easy for her to be withdrawn from the classroom when her usefulness has ended.

* * * * * *

An analysis of the problem of the individual teacher from the standpoint of the foregoing considerations shows that a compensation which can be considered adequate must cover the following items, at least: (1) Clothing and subsistence; (2) medical and dental care; (3) life insurance; (4) family support or support of dependents; (5) social and professional growth, such as books, magazines, music, art, the theater, membership in teachers' associations, and attendance upon summer schools; (6) incidentals; (7) establishing a reserve. At least $300 per year should be saved and safely invested. At prevailing prices it is difficult to see how these items can be covered, even with severe economy, under a minimum salary of $1,000 per year.

In addition to the foregoing, most teacher salary schedules give no recognition to variations amongst teachers in the matter of meritorious service. This is true of the present schedule in Hawaii. It is therefore pertinent to suggest that the department of public instruction consider some plan whereby its present procedure with reference to teacher rating may be combined with some plan of salary increase. Thus teachers who are noteworthy for special industry and interest and for effort for self-improvement may be assured of more substantial compensation than the mere consciousness of duties well done.

PROPOSED SALARY SCHEDULE FOR HAWAII.

In this connection the Federal commission would suggest a study of the following schedule for Hawaii:

TABLE 17.—*Proposed schedule for elementary salaries in Hawaii.*

Teachers.	Salary schedule for each group.		Yearly salary increase.	Year in which group maximum can be reached.
	Minimum.	Maximum.		
One-year teachers (probationary for 3 years)	$1,140	$1,200	$60	Third.
Three-year teachers	1,320	1,440	60	Third.
Five-year teachers	1,500	1,740	60	Fifth.
Permanent teachers	1,800	2,040	60	Fifth.

The following excerpts from the Memphis Survey[7] are included here as an explanation of the above table:

When the maximum of each group is reached, the following alternative courses should be open to the board of education:

1. Termination of the contract (permissible each year in group No. 1).
2. Reappointment annually at the group maximum.
3. Promotion to the next higher group.

The promotion from group to group beyond that of the three-year teachers should be granted only to those who have shown special merit and have given evidence of valuable professional study. To satisfy the latter condition, the board might require the candidate for promotion to spend a year in study at some recognized college or university, or a year in teaching in some good school system in another part of the country, or perhaps a year in study and travel combined.

* * * * * * *

A schedule such as the one prepared would have teachers who enter the first group looked upon as being on a probationary status subject to reelection each year for three years. Those who are rated as "successful" at the end of this period may be promoted to the group of three-year teachers, where they will advance automatically by $60 increments for a period of three years. Those who are rated as "unsatisfactory" can in turn be continued from year to year at the maximum of the probationary group or dropped from the corps. When a teacher has reached the maximum of the "three-year" group, the board can then promote her to the "five-year" group, if she has met the requirements demanded for promotion, and reelect her from year to year at the maximum she has reached or dismiss her. And so when the maximum of the "five-year" group is reached, the teacher who has won promotion by her success in the classroom and by her efforts at self-improvement can be made a member of the "permanent teacher" group, where she will remain until she retires. If, in the judgment of the officials, a teacher has not merited this promotion, she can be retained for a time at the maximum salary granted to the group she is in or be dropped. In this manner an adjustment can be worked out between the teachers' proper desire for security of tenure and the board's proper desire to eliminate the teachers who do not continue to grow in efficiency. At the same time, the teacher knows that efforts at self-improvement will find tangible reward in terms of salary increase.

Schedule of salaries of elementary school principals,[a] put into operation August, 1919.

	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.	Sixth year.	Seventh year.
With 1 assistant	$90	$95	$100	$105	$110	$120	$130
With 2 assistants	95	100	105	110	115	125	135
With 3 assistants	100	105	110	115	120	130	140
With 4 assistants	110	120	130	140	150	.....	.....
With 5 assistants	120	130	140	150	150	.....	.....
With 6 assistants	130	140	150	160	170	.....	.....
With 7 assistants	140	150	160	170	180	.....	.....
With 8 assistants	150	160	170	180	190	.....	.....
With 9 assistants	160	170	180	190	200	.....	.....
With 10 assistants	170	175	185	195	210	.....	.....
With 11 assistants	180	185	190	200	220	.....	.....
With 12 assistants	185	195	200	210	230	.....	.....
With 13 assistants	190	200	210	220	240	.....	.....
With 14 assistants	195	205	215	225	250	.....	.....
With 15 assistants	200	210	220	230	260	.....	.....
With 16 assistants	205	215	225	235	270	.....	.....
With 17 assistants and over	210	220	230	250	275	.....	.....

[a] Requirements, grammar-grade certificate.

[7] The Public School System of Memphis, Tenn. U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1919, No. 50, p. 75.

The great variation in size of schools in Hawaii, as well as rural and urban differences, give justification for variance in salaries for principals, in spite of the fact that city systems tend to favor the flat salary rate for these officials. It is recommended, however, that the above groupings be considerably reduced. Principals with 1 to 2 assistants, those with 3, 4, or 5 assistants, those with 6, 7, or 8, those with 9, 10, or 11, those with 12, 13, or 14, those with 15, 16, or 17, those with 18 or more might better be grouped for specified salary rates. As in the case of suggestions in Table 16, advance in salary from year to year should be on the merit basis.

RECRUITING TEACHERS FROM THE MAINLAND.

Reference was made in the early part of the chapter to the fact that Hawaii must depend upon the mainland United States for something more than one-third of her elementary teachers. This being the case, there are certain considerations touching the recruiting of teachers that ought to be mentioned. In the first place, the Territory must compete with States, most of whom for the period of the war, at least, have found it impossible to fill their own school vacancies. California with a shortage of more than 300 teachers is just one example out of a total of 40 or more States that are likewise handicapped. Again, standards of certification are advancing very generally, so that the type of teacher sufficiently enterprising to seek positions at such a distance from home and friends will very likely be among those holding the best grades of certification. These conditions point with certainty to the need of a comparatively high salary schedule for the Hawaiian Islands.

In the second place, something must be done to insure longer service on the part of the mainland recruit. The Philippines require from American teachers a two-year contract, and it is entirely possible for Hawaii to inaugurate and successfully maintain similar contractual terms. Indeed, it will not be difficult to recruit on this basis if the Territory, for her part, will give better assurances as to housing conditions for teachers at the school centers of the plantation camps and other more or less isolated places. Furthermore, in view of Hawaii's past success in placing and retaining married couples who have come with teaching experience from the mainland, it is possible that this source offers a part solution of the problem.

Equally important with the above points is the method of securing candidates from the mainland. At present the department of public instruction is in touch with a number of appointment bureaus in mainland normal schools and colleges, and with some of the teacher agencies of a private character. Through these various centers it has been possible to assemble a considerable list of applicants. But, naturally, the desirability of each applicant has been based on the printed credential. The department is too much in the dark concerning such important considerations as general character, personal appearance,

successful experience, initiative, and professional enthusiasm of these distant candidates. More than this, after the selection of some particular group of teachers from among the many applications, the department then faces the probability of learning that a large per cent of them has already accepted positions in mainland schools.

In view of this situation two alternative courses are proposed:

1. The Territory should provide in the department of public instruction an official who shall spend at least one-half of each school year in visiting teacher-training centers and public-school systems on the mainland. This officer should interview prospective candidates whose applications may have been filed in Honolulu previously, and he should discover successful teachers in the classrooms who might be interested in accepting positions in Hawaii. His field for recruiting should include not only the Pacific slope but also the Mississippi Valley, New England, and the South, and where Hawaii's salary schedule would offer more favorable comparison. In this work the importance of personal interviews with candidates should be stressed, and each yearly trip should be preceded by information from prospective sources of supply, in order that the officer might have a definite plan of procedure.

2. The department of public instruction should establish definite affiliation with one or two teacher-training centers in several of the Western States, making each of these an agency for reporting specifically and definitely the foregoing important information usually not included in the credentials which accompany applications. For this alternative the Territory would probably have to assume some expense, such as the actual cost of bookkeeping and clerical assistance. Certainly in a majority of cases personal application for positions could be made at one or the other of these centers in each State.

Finally, it is advisable that the department of public instruction consider some plan whereby mainland teachers may have an opportunity to inform themselves of those features of the Hawaiian school situation which are peculiarly different from conditions in American schools. In the matter of differences caused by Hawaii's racial elements and their bearing on the curriculum and procedure of the classroom the new teacher has need of some insight and guidance. This could be acquired quickly if opportunity for observation of school work were provided; a week, or two weeks at most, would suffice. The following proposals, therefore, are made to meet this situation:

1. Open the schools of Honolulu, or even of the island of Oahu, two weeks in advance of the opening date on other islands.

2. Arrange a schedule of observation for mainland teachers, if not for *all who are new appointees.*

3. Require such teachers to carry on this observation with the same degree of faithfulness that would be expected in classroom teaching,

Chapter V.

CLASSROOM PROCEDURE AND THE COURSE OF STUDY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

CONTENTS.—Suggestions from teachers; general conditions relating to course of study; school handicaps in Hawaii; lack of supplementary material; time allotment in course of study; penmanship; reading, literature, and story work; "Hawaii's Young People"; language and grammar; arithmetic; spelling; geography; history and civics; hygiene; music; science and nature study; physical education; vocational and industrial education; revision of course of study; need of a textbook commission; method of distributing textbooks.

COMMENTS FROM THE TEACHERS.

"I find the course of study very unsatisfactory. Many of the books are entirely unsuited to the grades and classes of children. There is too much repetition of work. Too much rote work is given. Children are obliged to use the same reader through the fourth and fifth grades. The school has no school library, very few reference books, and no books for children to read."

"In the beginning it is very difficult, I may say impossible, to keep a large class of children interested whose knowledge of English is limited to a few words, especially when classroom equipment is also limited. For reading matter I would suggest something more interesting than the present primer. Children soon lose interest in 'The bug that lived in a rug,' or 'The nest that hung in a tree'; while they never tire of the story of 'The Three Bears,' or 'The Little Red Hen.' More time should be given to oral expression."

"Revise the course of study; do not give so much technical grammer in the first four grades; simplify hygiene, arithmetic, and geography; have less drill on a few stories, and more stories and poems in general, in the first five grades; allow for some play periods in the first four grades—children should be taught to play as well as to work. Install a set of new and up-to-date textbooks; appoint a capable committee to ascertain which textbooks have proven to be the most successful. Install a phonetic system."

"I recommend a new set of readers. Those which we are using at present are not suited to the needs of the children of Hawaii. They contain many difficult words which are never used in ordinary conversation, especially by the children whom we teach."

"I recommend a new course of study. The readers used in the primary grades are too difficult for the children. More kindergarten work should be done in the beginning grades."

"An entirely new course of study. The present one is a half century behind time in methods of teaching. There are other ludicrous things about it, especially geography, which portrays the Hawaiian Islands as being the center of the universe and the remainder of the world as of no consequence."

"I would suggest a new standard reader for the fourth grade. There may be a worse reader than the one in use, but I have not seen it. Abolish plan books which require each minute detail set down each day; it is impossible to follow it in every item; an outline of each day's work is enough. Examinations given by the department in the grades should be eliminated; it is an unfair way to promote a small child. Can not principals and teachers be trusted to judge promotions up to the fifth grade? We need three or four times the school equipment now in use; also books and more books."

"Limit number work in first grade to counting and simple addition; more oral language and outdoor conversation. Use Beacon's Primer or First Reader or some other good, simple reader, instead of the books we are now using."

"The privilege of taking a class or school to the beach or mountains might be restored. The children discover a great deal on these trips. Formerly I took my entire school to the beach three times a year. It was a great joy to the children and furnished material for oral and written composition."

"Much less arithmetic in the first three years and an increasing amount of reading. Two or three readers a year instead of one, but reading that can please and develop love for literature without the thought of passing an examination being uppermost in the mind of teacher and pupil."

"The children place too much importance on examinations. As long as these are continued children will cram three times a year and let things slide during the term. If it is impossible to find teachers capable of judging a child's work and ability, some other way should be found than examinations sent out by the department."

"There are many words in our spellers which we as teachers never use. Why should the children learn them when they can not spell the simple words of everyday use correctly?"

"I would have phonics taught in the primary grades. The Japanese children especially need this. Dictation exercises show how they confuse the short sounds of the vowels and the sounds of certain consonants such as *b* and *p*, *b* and *v*, and *l* and *r*. I would have geography work in the second grade given in the language period and not taught for the sake of information. Primary grades should have several sets of supplementary readers."

"This school is at least 10 years behind the times in methods and equipment. We need live, well-trained principals and supervisors who know how the American schools are managed."

"The work to be covered is too much. The children are not drilled enough orally. More work in phonics should be given."

"The course of study requires too many facts in geography and history."

"The course of study should be rearranged; new requirements crowd upon old requirements."

"Physical training throughout the islands is neglected. This subject must be emphasized. Special teachers should work out an outline or course to be used throughout the schools."

"Revise the course of study. Much of the work required is too hard for the children in these schools and not suited for their needs. This should include the adoption of the most up-to-date textbooks. We ought to have *good readers* right up through the grades to teach these children to read."

"The course of study needs to be improved a great deal. I have the third grade, and have found it very hard to teach according to detailed prescriptions. It is tedious work. The arithmetic is far too hard for the pupils."

"So much written work is required in the course of study for the lower grades that it is impossible to find time for oral work. If the children had more of the latter in lower grades they would be able to express themselves better in the upper grades."

"Give a simpler course of study in the public schools. Our present arithmetic is not adapted to pupils of Hawaii; the problems are not practical. Readers are not suitable. In some grades too much geography per term."

"(1) Change school laws relative to compulsory attendance and require that each child shall have attended a certain number of days before being allowed to be released from school. This will insure regularity of attendance. Most of the backward pupils are those who are irregular at school. This irregularity interferes with the progress of others. (2) Establish *kindergarten* classes in every school as a preparatory step to primary school entry. Our non-English pupils should acquire a vocabulary before they can successfully take up the work of the grades. These kindergarten classes should be in charge of experienced and well-trained officers. (3) Employ none but specially trained teachers for grades one to four, inclusive. Unfortunately, the rule heretofore has been to assign the weak and inexperienced teacher to these grades, especially to the first and second grades. (4) Adopt a set of *modern* readers adapted to non-English speaking children. Provide each primary teacher with a phonetic chart. (5) A complete revision of the present course of study is necessary. There is too much subject matter in it now. It tends to rush work in order to cover work of the term. Pupils get only a smattering of the work—nothing more. (6) At present schools are preparing pupils for examinations. This is not education. There is no time for anything but examinations and tests. Schools should be social-educational centers. Provide for it in the *new* course of study."

"(1) *Kindergarten schools.* Every large school should have one for the betterment of the first-grade work. Such schools to be under the supervision of the department of public instruction. (2) *Medical examination of pupils.* There should be a better and more thorough medical examination of pupils than heretofore. A better examination of a child's eyes, nose, ears, teeth, throat, as well as his general physical and mental conditions. A child very often is poor in his school work through one or more of the above causes. A better understanding of the child's ailments and a quick remedy for same very often work wonders."

"For the first four years do less written work and more oral. Develop 100 per cent Americanism. Let the school be the leader in community life. Obtain stereopticon slides and films and use them for the purpose of awakening the patriotic spirit. Send a competent lecturer around to the schools if the teachers will not do it. Create a love for the beautiful by means of good pictures, tasteful surroundings, etc. Drop Literature and use a good magazine or paper in its place. Use St. Nicholas or something up to date. The children say we are not teaching the truth at present. Do less memory work and teach more through the eye. Use the stereopticon to develop geography, hygiene, and history stories. At present, all that our children see of the world is what they learn from the movies. Develop hand work. Secure from plantations sets of problems in daily use about weighing cane, measuring land, etc., and use them

for upper grades. Use forms that are used by large firms in Hawaii for example."

"(1) More oral work and less written work should be given. This could be done by eliminating the necessity of filing daily written work. (2) I would like to see more oral reading in the upper grades, some of such nature as would not be too hard. Then the pupils would understand what they are reading and could learn to use the American language more fluently. (3) All the reading would be improved if pupils in the first, second, and third years were taught phonetically."

"The Golden Treasury Reader should be replaced by some other good reader that is suitable for the children of Hawaii. The words in the above reader are too difficult for the children here, and the stories are not interesting. Most of the time the children have no idea of what they are reading. Plain every day words mean a great deal to the children. The Champion Speller is also not suitable for the children of these islands. The words are too hard and most of them the children will never hear or use after they leave school."

"(1) Supplementary reading for the lower grades. (2) The geography and story work in the lower grades is very much beyond the pupils. (3) No examinations from the department. This narrows the course down to a mere process of memorizing in order to pass the examinations. We should have the opportunity to give the subjects in a broader and simpler manner. (4) Too much repetition in the course of study, especially in hygiene. (5) Much more equipment for the first grade. I think the work above the third grade could be handled nicely if the lower grades were prepared."

"If the work was not presented quite so formally and gave an opportunity for more individuality of expression among the children, I believe it would be an improvement in the school system."

"(1) Simplified course of study for rural schools to meet the need of the pupil. (2) Abandon use of spelling books in primary grades and use words from daily lessons. (3) Simpler readers and arithmetics for primary grades. (4) Reduction of number of pupils to each teacher. (5) Strict enforcement of entire use of English language while attending school, whether on the playground or in the class. (6) Necessary and better schoolroom equipment. (7) Frequent lectures or short courses on methods of teaching for teachers."

The foregoing list of comments and recommendations from the elementary staff of Hawaii is representative of the urgent and widespread demand for a thoroughly revised course of study. It speaks well for the interest of the teachers to state that in the 781 questionnaires returned to the commission 85 per cent of the teachers replied to question 18, which reads as follows:

"Without discussing the matter with others, as you see the public school problem of the islands, what would you recommend for the improvement of the schools or school conditions? Please enumerate briefly your most important recommendations. (Use a separate sheet if necessary.)

Nineteen teachers only replied that conditions were sufficiently satisfactory and that there was nothing to suggest, and 98 teachers returned their questionnaires with No. 18 unanswered. Of those who did respond, practically everyone had suggestions touching either the course of study or school conditions bearing on the same.

SOME GENERAL CONDITIONS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS THAT HAVE A BEARING ON THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The success or failure of a school curriculum is closely related to the environing conditions under which it operates, nowhere less so than in the Territory of Hawaii. Because of this it has seemed advisable to point out, in a brief manner, important features of the schools which give the course of study a favorable setting, other features which offer a serious handicap to the work of the teacher, and still others the lack of which prevents the class teacher from reaching even moderate efficiency.

Hawaii is a country of the open-air school. In no other part of the United States probably is there a school system comparable in this respect. Fully half of the children are housed in open-air bungalows. The larger school plants contain, usually, one or two of the conventional buildings. Where they represent modern construction the classrooms are everywhere fitted with adjustable windows which make possible an admirable open-air effect, but even in the case of old-style structures windows and doors are very seldom closed. Since artificial heating is not a problem in Hawaii there is no interference coming from some highly complex heating system. The consequence, as may be imagined, is the making possible of almost 100 per cent efficiency in the matter of ventilation. On all the islands poorly ventilated rooms are the exception; for example, on one island out of a total of 130 classrooms visited by a member of the survey staff, just two rooms were found having poor ventilation. In so far therefore as fresh air and constantly changing air are factors in the success of classroom work, Hawaiian children enjoy a marked advantage.

In addition to the above, climatic conditions are favorable. May and June are oppressive months through the Territory, and some sections find the humidity objectionable for about four months of the year. Taken altogether, these children have a decided advantage in that weather changes or disturbances are of such mild character as to make school attendance convenient and school work pleasurable throughout the year.

The comparative ease of discipline is another factor that is conducive to good classroom work. Except in the case of very immature, inexperienced, and poorly trained teachers, the problem is practically nonexistent. Hawaiian children are unusually tractable. Though slower in response, they appear to be as friendly to teachers who are kindly and sympathetic as any group in American schools. More than this, their home training develops more rigid ideas of obedience, and these they bring to the classroom teacher as added guaranty of cooperation. They expect the teacher to command.

Obedience, too, is linked with a good school spirit on the part of the children. No matter how complex the racial elements, the children indicate a pride in the public school sufficient to justify much hope as to the quality of their future citizenship.

Finally, classroom work is materially advanced by the fact that teachers are uniformly held up to high standards of good housekeeping. Untidy rooms are seldom found. Clean floors, clean blackboards, and tidy desks are doubtless demanded by supervising principals, for they are everywhere the rule, save perhaps where classes are being held in some of the Japanese-language schools, and responsibility in this case is not chargeable to the public school. Classrooms are not only clean but they are artistic in arrangement and decoration to a very commendable degree. Furthermore, in the matter of cleanliness and tidiness of pupils the Hawaiian schools set an enviable standard for other city or rural schools in America.

On the other hand the Hawaiian schools are conducted under a number of trying conditions which have a very apparent effect on classroom results. The following are among the more noticeable handicaps:

SCHOOL HANDICAPS IN HAWAII.

1. There are not enough classrooms and consequently not enough teachers, and the effect has been an unreasonable overcrowding of classes. This is especially true in the primary grades, where there is emphatic need of relatively small classes in order to insure to each pupil abundant opportunity for individual work in the English language. Classes of 50 or 60 or even more children make necessary an undue amount of administrative machinery, in looking after which a teacher too easily overlooks the child. Group reciting becomes a fixed procedure, during which many an error grows into a habit.

2. The department of public instruction has injudiciously placed too many poorly certificated teachers in the early grades, and pupils have thereby made a bad start. It is true that such action is not always avoidable, but nevertheless a better plan of teacher assignment can be worked out. Capable English-speaking teachers should be assigned to the first and second grades.

3. As soon as possible the double desks used so extensively in the schools should be replaced by single desks of a modern type. At present desks are not fitted to pupils, and they can not be. In the upper grades particularly the desks are misfits, and seriously so, because of the great amount of seat work that prevails. In very few classrooms are the desks up to an acceptable standard. Pupils are developing bad habits of sitting, due to the lack of proper seating

accommodation, and as for the pupils using the classrooms of the Japanese-language schools, conditions are impossible.

4. The elementary classrooms are poorly equipped. Blackboards in about half of the schools need improvement. They have an unusual amount of usage, and, if for no other reason, should be modernized and kept in good condition. Some of the outlying classrooms at Hilo, for example, are pitiably handicapped in this regard. Equipment such as wastebaskets, brooms, dustpans, erasers, and even chalk are frequently provided by the teachers out of their own salaries. In one school the teachers have provided ink for the pupils rather than have them use a very poor quality furnished by the department. In the matter of school maps and charts, the Territory has furnished only meager assistance. Teachers are expected to provide additional ones. Among these the hygiene charts offer a decided example of misdirected policy. Excellent hygiene charts can be purchased in the market, but teachers are asked to spend weary hours in the drawing of sets of them sufficient for the respective grades. The time thus spent could be used in more profitable work, while their expense should not be levied against teachers' salaries. Similar lack of foresight holds with reference to supplies for classes. At comparatively slight cost to the system the work of the children could be very perceptibly advanced if the department were to furnish such things as drawing paper, paste, scissors, and other materials of handwork. At present these supplies are purchased by teachers or pupils in the case of the few schools that encourage their use.

5. The work of the classroom would be improved if the system of "plan" writing could be reorganized. It has become a mechanized routine. The constant repetition of forms, phrases, details in each subject day after day and week after week is hampering and unnecessary to the well-equipped teacher. For the inexperienced teacher it probably habituates as much bad theory and practice as good. There is little or no evidence that plans are reviewed in any constructive and helpful manner by the supervisory staff. They must be presented to the principal, and they are inspected by supervising principals, but both procedures are characterized by the teachers as wholly perfunctory. Wherever one inquired there was the same reaction regarding the requirement. What is needed is a system of outlines which will make them a benefit and an aid, not deadening armor. Successful teachers should have in syllabus or outline form each subject covered by their respective grades, copies of which may well be furnished principals and supervisors. Then principals and supervisors for their part should be ready with suggestions for improvement at any time through the term, and they should hold themselves responsible for seeing that classroom work maintains the accepted

standard set forth in the syllabus. In the case of new and inexperienced teachers outlines for subjects week by week and later month by month ought to suffice if the work of administrative and supervisory officers is kept abreast of the work of teaching.

THE FORMAL EXAMINATION SYSTEM.

6. A system of formally examining all classes in nearly all subjects has until recently been the rule of the department of public instruction. These were given by the department three times a year, and they were attended by very rigid rules. Theoretically they have served as a partial basis for promotion; in practice they appear to have been made the really determining factor. Under the present administration the system has been rationalized to a great extent, but traditions still cling with overpowering effect on the majority of the teaching staff. In fact, throughout the islands the forthcoming term examinations hang like Damocles' sword over the classroom. Memorizing of facts and cramming are invoked universally, because of the realization that a teacher's success is based very largely on the ability of pupils to reproduce informational facts in the most absurd detail. Members of the survey staff had an opportunity to observe one of these term examinations, as well as the preparation leading up to it. Frequently classrooms were found in which the teacher had filled blackboard spaces with the questions and answers from former examination sets. Inquiry showed that pupils were memorizing both questions and answers in the expectation of having many of the old questions included in the test immediately ahead.

Whereas the former custom required these tests in every grade, principals are now permitted to conduct their own examinations in Grades I to IV. Force of habit, however, has kept the old practices very much alive, and even under the new régime there remains an engrossing amount of routine and time-absorbing detail in connection with the scheme as it is applied to the upper grades. Many schools conduct monthly examinations in addition, in order that pupils may be properly primed for the greater ordeal. "In my own school," writes a teacher, "the requirements as to examinations and the recording of the marks thereof are a waste of time and energy which I need for teaching," and this is representative of the general opinion of the staff. It is the belief of the commission that these examinations test the ability of pupils only within narrow limits, require an undue amount of time during each term which should more properly go to oral work and work calling for more vital thinking, and are so nearly useless as to deserve almost total elimination. The following alternative is therefore offered as a possible immediate step and as an approach to complete elimination ultimately:

(1) Departmental examinations at the end of the sixth and seventh grades.

(2) Departmental examinations at the end of each term in the eighth grade.

(3) To give pupils an opportunity for a variety of choice, the list of questions should be double the number required to be answered. (Ten questions out of twelve is the present regulation.)

(4) The questions should ask for more general and less technical and specific information than they do at present.

(5) Promotion at other times and in other grades should be left to the combined judgment of principal and teacher, in consultation with such supervising officials as are available. Principals and supervisors should be charged with greater responsibility in the discharge of this function and, accordingly, more time should be at their disposal for the same.

7. The public schools are giving too much time to written work. The essential need of Hawaiian children is opportunity for oral expression. Least of all do they need training in penmanship, as will be shown on a succeeding page. In spite of this fact many classrooms, indeed a large majority of them in the opinion of the survey staff, devote the greater portion of each day to the writing of exercises or outlines in connection with the daily subjects. Members of the staff have visited the classes of an entire school and have found oral work being conducted in less than one-third of them. On occasions entire days were spent in a school when oral work was found in one or two classes only. It is quite possible that such practices are not the rule of the school or of the particular classroom; that teachers hesitated, rather, to have the commission judge the work of the class through oral performances. But though discount be made for such considerations, there remains abundant evidence offered by the teachers themselves. Antiquated school policies have fixed this overemphasis on written work throughout all the grades. In some schools each teacher must send a set of "show" papers to the principal each week, and hours must be devoted to their preparation. Where teachers are conscientious in reviewing and correcting written exercises, time must be given outside of school hours; how, then, can they have time either for wholesome recreation or for professional reading and study? The practice should receive prompt attention from the department of public instruction, since it is a handicap to both teacher and pupil. It would improve matters to discard most of the written work below the third grade except blackboard work, and to reduce it by at least one-half in the other grades.

INSUFFICIENT SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL.

8. One of the most striking characteristics of the Hawaiian schools is the great insufficiency of supplementary materials of all kinds—books, pictures, lantern slides, stereographs, collections, etc. There is little danger of overestimating the effect of such facilities in the work of Americanizing the children. Not one of the schools, it would seem, is properly supplied with supplementary readers or other library facilities. As for the other kinds of helps, they have been made possible only in isolated cases where a teacher or principal has provided them at personal expense.[1] No modern course of study can be put into successful operation under these conditions; nor can teachers and schools do very effective work. The problem doubtless can be met in part by seeking a closer affiliation with the Library of Hawaii, where a number of collections of supplementary materials can be assembled in adequate quantity, and where there is already organized an administrative machinery for securing the convenient dispatch of materials from one community to another. In addition, the Territory should make a sufficiently liberal allowance to provide within the department of public instruction a large library of supplementary readers and other reference books, and a collection of other modern materials which through visual instruction are so well adapted to enrich the content of knowledge and also offset the humdrum of the classroom.

SUGGESTED IMPROVEMENTS.

In order that elementary instruction may more completely fulfill its purposes, the school authorities should consider a number of desirable improvements, other than a revised course of study, which have a material bearing on the status of classroom morale.

A brief statement of possible improvements that came to the notice of members of the Federal commission is given herewith:

1. Because of the initial difficulty which most of the children face on entering school, namely, the use of the English language, there is a very general feeling among teachers that the school system should introduce receiving classes in the form of kindergartens or some adaptation thereof. It is believed that the suggestion has decided merit. Children could be received at the age of 5, and for one if not two years could be put through a curriculum of informal work with little attempt at concentration, save upon the reading and understanding of English. That this plan would materially help to solve the problem of teaching our language to oriental children there can be no doubt. And it would conceivably help to offset the powerful influence of the foreign-language schools.

[1] In matters of general supplies there is the same inadequacy.

2. Where larger schools are reporting considerable numbers of backward children—that is, of children whose general intelligence seems to hold out no hope of their progressing beyond three or four grades of the public-school curriculum—it is time for the department at Honolulu to work out a plan whereby such pupils may be segregated and put under the direct instruction of a special teacher. To this teacher there might also be sent those boys and girls who need special but only temporary help. The Territory has provided a school for defective children in Honolulu, but this does not meet either of the above situations. American city systems are finding it possible and economically sound to form these special classes at various school centers, though not necessarily in every school. A study of the problem by Hawaii will probably show that it can be put into operation at little additional expense. Its effect on the work of many classrooms, where a few backward pupils retard the progress of an entire group, would be incalculable.

3. The schools should have more adequate assembly halls. In the past building programs have overlooked the necessity of these largely because their value was not understood. In all school plants of the future and in all plans for enlarging present school plants it will be most advisable for the department to insist on the inclusion of some provision for an assembly hall large enough to accommodate all the pupils of the school. For modern courses of study such a room is as essential as shop or laboratory.

4. All the larger schools should be provided with pianos. Indeed the piano is an essential part of modern equipment for all schools. But in rural sections of Hawaii there is too little certainty that they could be generally put to use. Phonographs might be substituted in such places.

5. School playgrounds should be provided with apparatus of the simpler types and with play material such as footballs, volley balls, and the like. Supervised American games should be introduced as soon as teachers can be found who are capable of directing them. A special study of play and recreation possibilities is now under way in the islands. The Federal commission can do no better than to indorse the spirit that prompted the inauguration of this investigation, and to bespeak the hearty support of the final recommendations by public opinion in the Territory. In connection therewith we believe the school authorities should consider the practicability of extending the school day from 8 o'clock in the morning to 3.30 o'clock in the afternoon, and providing for morning and afternoon periods of recreation and supervised play. The plan should and can easily be so formulated as to give all teachers such a variety of work as to obviate the fatigue that comes from long periods of work of one kind. Details such as these are easily administered, save in

schools that have only one or two teachers; but here the introduction of a small assortment of play material with suggestions for children's games will very likely suffice.

THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The course of study now in use in the schools is one for which the present administration is not responsible, and with which it is not in agreement. The present administration on assuming office in April, 1919, took immediate steps to initiate the revision of the course of study. It found that professional opinion among the teachers was overwhelmingly in favor of it. Subsequently the decision was reached that no changes in textbooks or curriculum should be made until after the report of the Federal survey commission.

The latest complete course of study was published in 1915. A revision was authorized in 1916 which consisted of changes in page apportionments of the textbooks in three subjects—grammar, geography, and arithmetic. A second revision was authorized in 1917 which greatly amplified and improved the arithmetic course for Grades I and IV and which added a supplementary course in English, namely, "Correct English Usage—Oral and Written," for all of the elementary grades. This revision also reduced the page apportionments of the grammar texts, assigned a new list of reading books in literature, and authorized a new set of textbooks in geography.

This course of study with revisions is required to be in the hands of each teacher, and observation proved that it is. Its details are carefully, and in many instances slavishly, followed due to the exaggerated emphasis which appears to have been put upon it by former administrations. That a well-defined course of study should be in the hands of every teacher is everywhere accepted as a fundamental of good school systems; that it should contain a body of well-organized material and be rich in suggestions for supplementary aid is quite as essential; but in these days a course of study should particularly avoid bringing together merely an assortment of exacting details covering for the most part the assignment of sections of textbooks to the different grades. In this respect the Hawaiian course of study is meager and inadequate. It represents the assembling of a knowledge content such as is found embodied in a small series of books and not necessarily well-organized into acceptable thought movements. Where, moreover, the organization of material is only that of textbooks, which may frequently represent a very low standard of organization and of selection of material, the effect on classroom teaching may and does become disastrous. Hawaii's course of study betrays—

a marked preference for definitely memorized facts and summaries as expressing the final result of training in various subjects. Emphasis upon formal drills and reviews shows an evident neglect of the higher spirit of training and culture implied in such familiar expressions as self-activity and independence in thinking, initiative, mental, and motor activity in working out problems, practical adjustment to community life, and appreciation of literature and art. Training for efficiency and for service under life conditions is a much higher conception of the purpose of education than mere knowledge of more or less disconnected facts. (See San Francisco Survey, Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1917, No. 46.)

All too frequently, in actual practice, Hawaiian children are required to learn whole paragraphs and pages of subject matter in order that they may be letter perfect.

TIME ALLOTMENT.

The following table gives the maximum amount of time in minutes per week prescribed for the different subjects of the elementary course:

Maximum allotment of time in the several subjects.

[In minutes per week.]

Subjects.	Grades.							
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
Opening exercises	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
English, composition, language, story work	465	470	400	420	420	400	405	380
History								
Geography and map drawing	75	75	100	125	150	150	150	150
Arithmetic	100	100	175	175	175	205	205	225
Music	75	75	75	75	50	50	50	50
Physical exercises, games, etc.	75	75	50	50	25			
Hygiene, physiology, and sanitation	50	50	50	50	75	75	75	75
Spelling	50	50	50	30	50	50	50	50
Grammar							120	125
Reading, word study, phonics	300	280	275	250	250	175		
Penmanship	35	50	50	30	30	30	30	30

In vocational work time to be allotted by inspector general and supervising principals according to school and the class of work.

The chief point of interest in the table is the great amount of time given to the three Rs and closely allied formal subjects. The program of work is comparable to the elementary programs found in operation by the survey staffs of San Francisco, Calif., or of Butte, Mont.

HANDWRITING.

Systematic instruction and drill in writing is given in all of the elementary grades. Teachers are asked to follow closely the general instructions and to have in their hands "Modern Business Penmanship" as the basic system. The plan outlined is reasonable and practical. No subject has shown better results in Hawaii than that

of handwriting. It should be recalled, however, that probably no school system in the mainland gives so much attention to handwriting. Pupils are held to standard writing in all their written work, of which there is a very great amount. In all parts of the Territory the survey commission found remarkably good handwriting. Not only in the formation of letters, but in neatness of papers, regardless of the subject, the schools deserve great credit for what they have accomplished. This is illustrated in the following data, which measure the handwriting of pupils in Grades IV to VIII, inclusive, Royal School, Honolulu. The results are a little above what might be held to be typical of all schools, yet not very much so, and they certainly represent standard conditions in Honolulu. The table which follows gives the ratings of a handwriting test of some 404 pupils of the above school, accuracy of writing, and not speed, being taken into account.

For comparative purposes Graph I is included herewith. It shows handwriting accomplishment according to the Ayres Standard, as against similar accomplishment in San Francisco and in Hawaii.

Hawaiian handwriting, scored by the Ayres scale.

[Grades IV–VIII, inclusive; quality regardless of speed.]

Scores.	Grades.				
	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
30–40		1			
40		2			
50	11	5	2	2	
60	39	18	13	4	3
70	20	17	41	19	28
80	11	2	33	43	61
90	2	1	2	4	20
Total	83	46	91	72	112
Average	60.5	67.6	77.2	81.0	83.8

The lower (continuous) line of the graph represents the normal accomplishment of American boys and girls, as measured by the Ayres Handwriting Scale—that is, it gives the qualities at the various grades at which American children write at their natural rate (the test is limited to two minutes) and as well as they can. The measurements thus include both speed and accuracy, and are not absolutely comparable with the measurements of Hawaiian children (upper dotted line), which takes into account accuracy alone. The middle line of the graph, however, measures San Francisco children for accuracy alone, and can be used for comparison.

According to these comparisons, Hawaiian pupils are highly skilled in accuracy of writing—how much so will appear in the next statement. A quality as high as 60 on the Ayres scale is considered by competent opinion as of sufficient merit to meet all practical requirements of life; quality 70 is considered sufficient

for persons in commercial callings. Interpreting these facts, it means that Hawaii is needlessly overemphasizing writing in the curriculum, is spending too much time on written work, and thus infringing on time that ought to go to other subjects.

READING, LITERATURE, AND STORY WORK.

These subjects in the course of study tend to be prescriptive because of the limited suggestions which they offer. Nothing of a

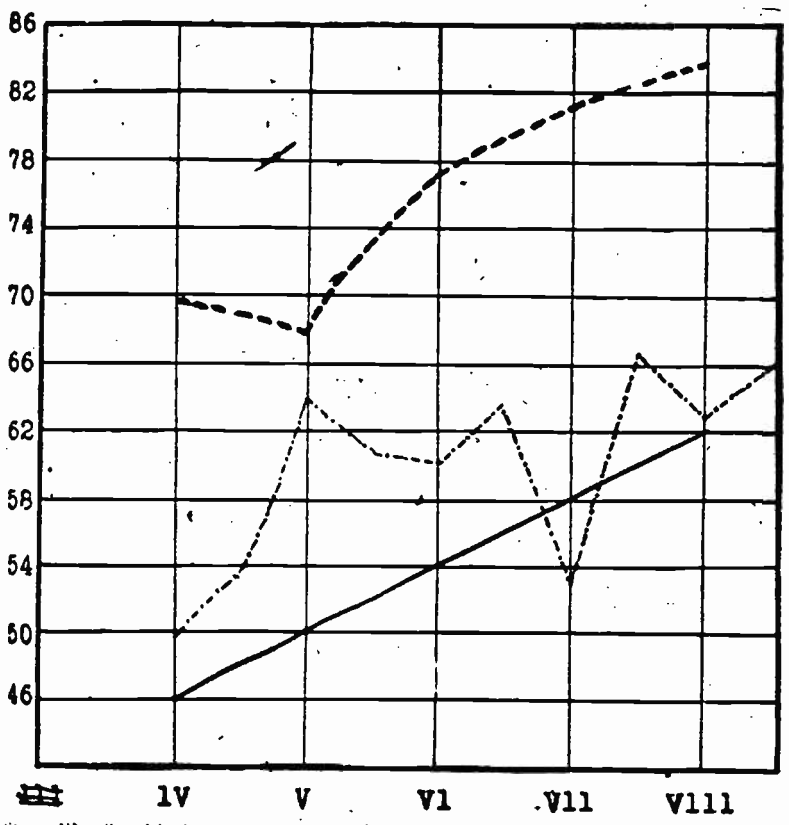


CHART VI.—Graphical representation of Hawaiian handwriting (.....) compared with the Ayres' scale (———) and the handwriting of San Francisco pupils (-.-.-.).

stimulating character is to be found, and there is no hint of the rich field of supplementary material that might be drawn upon. Cover a certain reader for the grade, drill on certain forms, teach the four or five listed stories—these are the phrases that catch the eye. In general, the subject matter for this work is altogether uninteresting and deadly for Hawaiian children. The present readers are condemned by practically the entire teaching force. Their content is poorly adapted and difficult. In the nine years

intervening since their adoption by Hawaii, school readers of vastly superior merit have been published.

Equally uninteresting is the present practice of dessicating a few short stories each term for the story hour. And to one's surprise very few of these tell of Hawaiian life or customs, although hundreds of the most beautiful local legends and myths could be made available. The work of reading is stilted and spiritless. Words are recited glibly in spite of the difficulties of pronunciation: and phrases and sentences, even pages, are memorized and rendered verbatim. To add to the monotony, the fifth-grade pupils are obliged to repeat the fourth-grade reader.

The literature work of the upper grades is not very much better. Stories and essays selected from American classics need to be more carefully considered before being adopted for the grammar grades of Hawaii, no matter how inspirational they may be to children in mainland schools.

It is evident that the schools must give more attention to reading, particularly so in the early grades. This is the most important subject in the course of study, for it is the gateway to the understanding of the other subjects and the foundation of a literate and contented citizenry. A new modern series of readers should be adopted. Fortunately, publishers in very recent years have been offering remarkable improvements along this line, so that it is a question of finding the best for Hawaii from among five or six excellent series. A good phonetic system should be introduced into the first two grades, with definite suggestions for teaching it; and on each island there should be some official capable of supervising its introduction and furthering its success. In addition to reading textbooks, supplementary readers must be made available and classes must be encouraged to cover an increasing quantity of books from the lower to the higher grades, reading these largely for the joy of the story and for the advantage of practice in the oral use of English.

Hawaii can also do much to improve oral story work in the early grades, making of it an important introduction to literature as well as an immediate means of enriching the lives of the children. But to do so the schools ought first to give up the attempt to secure a lengthy "rehash" of each story from the children, just as they ought to change the plan, observed in many classes, of dividing a story (for example, "The Three Bears") into five sections and then spending a week in the telling of it. The following statements from teachers contain good suggestions for the department: "Let us have usable up-to-date material and an abundance of it for the story work." "More interesting stories requiring simpler language." "We have to spend too much time on the four stories which are to be read to the class each term. By constant repetition these get so tiresome

that the class loses interest. Give us more stories."—(Second-grade teacher.) "Entire stories should be told at one time rather than to divide the same into sections or 'scenes,' as we are taught to do at the normal school."

Dramatization of story work is badly neglected. In only a few classes was work of this character observed; in several instances, however, the performances were very creditable, indicating the practicability of the idea for a Hawaiian classroom.

Finally, Hawaii, in the not very distant future, would do well to consider the preparation of a series of readers with subject matter extensively based on Hawaiian stories and descriptions of island life, customs, and industry. The Japanese language schools have already revised their reading texts by introducing considerable material of this kind. In this one respect they are more modern than the public schools. Excellent suggestions might be had from the Philippine Islands, where for some years past specially prepared readers have been provided for their schools. In point of fact, the department of public instruction is to be credited with having taken the first step in this direction. In September, 1918, a primer was published. For the type of stories, the arrangement, and the illustrations this is a creditable piece of work. But though the book was adopted for supplementary reading purposes, it has had, apparently, very limited use in the schools.

HAWAII'S YOUNG PEOPLE.

Furthermore, until recently and for a number of years a magazine called "Hawaii's Young People," has been issued monthly for 10 months each year. This magazine is unique in many ways. It was written and edited at the Lahainaluna school (Maui) and printed on the presses of the school and bound by the boys in attendance. It has circulated widely in the public schools of the Territory and in many schools are to be found complete sets of this publication. Its contents have comprised much excellent material of a varied character of value as supplemental material. For example, many stories are drawn from the Hawaiian folk lore of the islands. The publication of this excellent magazine was suspended recently on grounds of economy. The commission is glad to note that arrangements have now been made for its resumption.

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

The printed time schedule of subjects allots to oral and written English the largest proportion of the weekly program; that is, an average of 420 minutes, or 84 minutes per day, though, strictly speaking, the story work should be included in this time instead of in that

allotted to reading. The outlines of these subjects from the first grade on are of such a character as to stamp the class work with a highly formal treatment and to overemphasize written lessons. And in actual practice this is just what happens. Though printed advice tells the teacher to use plenty of oral English, everyone has a firm belief that the child's status at the end of the term is really founded on his ability to pass written and memorized examinations. Accordingly, originality and freedom of thought and expression, which ought to be the keynotes in these lessons, are generally lost sight of. Too many teachers find it easier to do the talking themselves, and the result is that comprehension of the language, though poor in itself, may outrun ability to express it. The work in English could be greatly improved if the child were encouraged to talk from the beginning: he would sooner become less diffident about reciting, because he would be able to say something. The fear of making mistakes is an all-pervading obstacle at the present time. English, and more English, English that is *spoken* and that is made free and natural and less "cut and dried," is what is needed in the elementary schools.

In order to indicate the present point of view touching the value of oral English, the following excerpt is taken from the recently published course of study, of Duluth, Minn.:

> There is nothing which the school can give a child that will help him so materially in his later business and social life as the ability to express his ideas fluently, coherently, and forcefully to others. Of the two forms which language expression takes, i. e., the oral and the written, the past practice of the school was to give the major emphasis on the latter. There has been a decided change in tendency, however, due to an awakening to the facts:
>
> That it is the oral form which is most commonly needed by the average individual.
>
> That the status of any individual in society is determined largely by a consideration of his ability to talk in a clear, coherent, forceful, and interesting way.
>
> The school, then, in seeking to prepare the child for life should give its attention first to the oral form of composition. Although some training in oral composition has always been involved in the topical recitations of the school subjects, yet, due to the difficulties connected with it, oral instruction should have a definite period, definite preparation, and equal emphasis with the other subjects.

For the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades a series of language texts is introduced. These have been justly estimated by the supervising principals as "fragmentary in make-up and inapplicable" to language conditions in Hawaiian schools. It is not surprising that they have been little used in the classrooms. Their purchase seems to have been a waste of money. In the seventh and eighth grades classes follow very closely a textbook of formal grammar written about a decade ago and representing the status of development then reached in the teaching of this subject. It is felt to be, again quoting island

opinion, "too technical and difficult," and it fails in its purpose "to set forth in a simple and practical manner the principles of modern English grammar," as far as Hawaiian pupils are concerned. These pupils, it is true, show unusual facility in glibly reciting the "principles," but that is far from understanding their import or getting from them any help in fixing correct speech. The book is also objectionable because of the type sentences which are used. Lost as to the abstract and foreign implications of their meanings, pupils, and frequently teachers, grope about to make them fit the principles and rules which precede.

ARITHMETIC.

The course in arithmetic for the first four grades is well defined and represents well-organized continuity of development. In the upper grades it gets no further than to apportion sections of the advanced book to the different classes and to authorize certain omissions.

The chief criticism to be made is that too much is attempted in the early grades, and too much time is given to the subject in consequence. The metric system should probably be taught in Hawaiian schools because of the unique position of the Territory touching international relations; but in other respects the eliminations should be carried further in all the grades.[1] If the pupils can enter the fifth grade with a thorough grounding in the four fundamentals, it will be quite sufficient. After this the chief concern should be to give a mastery of common and decimal fractions and simple operations in percentage. It would doubtless be advisable to omit all formal arithmetic in the first grade, allowing children at this time to get the simplest number concepts through language work. This plan would leave ample time during the next three years for the work in counting, in addition to the above fundamentals.

In observing actual teaching it was noted that the course in arithmetic was better carried out than seemed to be the case with any other subject. Though too difficult, especially for the primary grades, the work was systematic and directed toward definite goals. Teachers appeared to be surer of themselves in this work. Many admirable devices for concreting the lessons were observed. Board work and seat work were put in good form. However, pupils were frequently held to needlessly exacting details, and problem work lagged very much behind mechanical work.

That modern courses in arithmetic are fast losing their highly technical, abstract, and medieval characteristics is shown by an exam-

[1] See the recommendations of the committee of the southern California teachers in their report on Minimum Courses of Study; also Wilson, G. M., The social and business usage of arithmetic. Teachers College, Columbia, Contributions to Education, No. 100.

ination of any one of a number of recent revisions put forth by certain American school systems. Particular attention may here be directed to the arithmetic course published in 1919 by the Duluth (Minn.) public schools.

SPELLING.

The course in spelling is in effect "the words in *large print* in the Champion Speller," apportioned by sections to Grades III to VIII, inclusive. The printed course names these requirements as "minimum." The text, so the course states, is to be used as a desk book. We read:

> This book is to be in the hands of the teacher only, each pupil being required to make his speller by sewing together sheets of paper, adding thereto each day the words of the new lesson. It is suggested that the words missed by each pupil each day be written correctly in the back of this home-made dictionary, so that the child has a complete list of his misspelled words, which may be taken to the teacher's desk and recited.

But much doubt arises as to the general observance of these details. Observation leads to the belief that spelling, save for the incidental work in the first and second grades, consists of periodic assignment of words from the text and in column formation. Ability in spelling varies with schools, but the average was found to be high, a condition that might be expected in view of characteristics heretofore noted.

Modern opinion holds that words coming up in other subjects and words related to the workaday world of the child should form a part of the regular spelling exercises. But in the islands spelling is a thing apart. Most of their spelling words are so much "dead timber" to these children, or to any children for that matter. What an opportunity is lost in not correlating this work with English and other class subjects!

GEOGRAPHY.

The geography course, like some of the other courses, is very inadequately outlined and is not well divided. Requirements are lumped together and are correspondingly indefinite. Here again one finds the apportioning of textbooks rather than a well-considered and well-organized course of instruction. The geography of the children's home locality occupies Grades I and II. In the next two grades Hawaiian geography is studied and world geography is begun. Hawaiian geography is based on a local textbook of similar title by Baldwin, which has proven to be quite satisfactory. Grades IV and V study world geography from the first book of Brigham and McFarlane's Essentials of Geography, and Grades VI, VII, and VIII cover the second book of the same series. The course prints a

few references to very good supplementary material, several of which were usually to be found on the teachers' desks.

In classroom practice the work in the early grades was for the most part good. In many instances, however, teachers were found in an attempt to put before the young beginners highly abstract and vague conceptions of "heat" and "wind" and "rain," etc., in literal fulfillment of the terms in the printed course, which said nothing, unfortunately, about the need of relating such things to the stage of child development. Hawaiian geography work merits the greatest commendation. There is fairly good functioning of these lessons, save in isolated cases here and there. World geography in the upper grades does not reach the same standard. It is very largely given over to the cramming and reciting of facts. Seldom, so it would seem, does the child feel these facts to possess anything of present, vital relation to himself. But this upper grade work, and the geography course as a whole, is strengthened by map studies painstakingly prepared by both teachers and pupils, and the occasional teacher has devised an excellent plan of outline maps showing the distribution of world products. The opportunity for other handwork in geography is lost sight of all along the line—such, for example, as sand and clay models; and the wonderful possibility of the stereopticon as an adjunct is as yet untouched.

HISTORY AND CIVICS.

The course of study shows a woeful neglect of the important field of history and civics. Only the barest page allotments are made to the three textbooks used in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades—American history in the two former and European beginnings of American history in the latter. As for Hawaiian history in these grades, the course gives only one general topic of study per term. Civics is not anywhere mentioned.

One has to turn to the work of the classroom for further information. Here one finds that the home geography in the early grades touches slightly upon community life, as does the hygiene work in several grades, that Hawaiian geography includes the civic and political organization of the Territory, and that infrequently history stories of local or wider interest are to be found in grades below the sixth. The fact remains, however, that the upper-grade pupils are subjected to the most formal diet of facts to be memorized in this subject which, above all others, ought to furnish them with a background for American citizenship. No other subject of the course of study (in mainland schools) has been so responsive to the stimulus of recent world events in recasting on bigger and broader lines the content of its material; and in no other subject has there been such

an assembling of enriching material. Little, if any, evidence is at hand to indicate that the public schools of Hawaii have responded to these important changes.

Under the circumstances class work in history and civics is poor in quality. It stands for form and not for substance. It does not sufficiently bring the pupils into the circle of American life and American ideals. It does not sufficiently interpret our democracy to Hawaiian boys and girls, and so fails to inspire them with a love for and a tremendous faith in our fundamental principles of government.

In any revision of the course of study it is recommended that the course in history and civics be started from the foundation: that it be given a definite place in each grade, together with a larger percentage of time: and that it be amplified and carefully organized in accordance with the best practice of to-day.

HYGIENE.

The course in hygiene, as a whole, has good subject matter and is very well outlined. To what extent it functions in the lives of the children is open to some question, but it is probably fair to assume that certain of the living standards among the foreign population have been influenced for good by these lessons. The chief criticisms of observed classwork are these: (1) Teachers frequently teach the subject by having pupils copy outlines from the board, to be later memorized. (2) The work in places carries too many physiological facts now regarded as of questionable value, and in places (especially in the eighth grade) more technique is included than is necessary. (3) The essential facts of a hygiene course can be taught in less time than that now given to it; daily recitations of 10 to 15 minutes may be questioned. (4) Requiring teachers to prepare, at their own expense, highly technical charts for this work seems quite unjustifiable and actually not necessary. (5) School plants very frequently violate in a serious and indifferent manner the principles taught in these classes: for instance, insanitary and inadequate toilet facilities and careless water supply.

MUSIC.

More time should be given to the music work. Its possibilities for all the children can hardly be overestimated. There seems to be an innate love of music permeating the Territory, and children evince unusual interest in it. Very noticeable is the united response which music teachers everywhere command. Rural schools need more assistance in this work, country children being so dependent upon their own resources for enjoyment. Groups of rural schools should, if

possible, be provided with special music teachers, and each school of this type ought to have its phonograph.

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE AND NATURE STUDY.

A course in nature study for Hawaii was last printed in the bulletin of 1911. Since that time no separate course of this kind has existed, although a small percentage of the teachers have reported giving some attention to it. The action of the Territory is in line with a general tendency, in vogue a few years ago, of omitting nature study from the elementary curriculum because it had fallen into disrepute. But nature study is to-day being revived in modern school systems, along with elementary or general science for upper grades. Simple facts of everyday life and of school life having a scientific basis and pertinent relation to the real and immediate interests of children represent the types of materials being assembled in such courses. The Territory of Hawaii is so rich in material for many phases of this work, and it offers such excellent possibilities for overcoming much of the ultra-formalism in the classroom, that the commission believes a recommendation for the reintroduction of science lessons in the elementary schools is in point.

In this connection, therefore, we desire to call the attention of the department of public instruction to the very excellent and concise statement regarding elementary science instruction which was incorporated in the report of the Memphis survey staff:

Science and nature study lessons in some form constitute a part of every really progressive elementary school curriculum. Such lessons should not attempt to present science in the form and order in which it is presented in high school and college textbooks. The lessons should be largely concerned with simple facts of a scientific nature that the children can learn by direct observations or from simple experiments that they can understand and even make for themselves. The lessons should grow naturally out of the other lessons and projects at which the pupils are working from day to day. For example, if they are learning about weights and measures in arithmetic, they ought at the same time to learn by use and experiment the simple principle of the equal arm balance and many easily understood facts about balancing, center of gravity, and stability that are related to this principle. In connection with their lessons in hygiene which should be given in every grade, the children should learn some of the simpler facts of physiology on which our knowledge of hygienic laws are based. Alongside their lessons in music and singing, they ought to learn some of the simple facts about sounds, about how music tones are produced, and what are the physical causes of the differences in loudness, pitch, and tone quality upon which the musical properties of sounds depend.

School gardening, poultry keeping, bird study, the care of house plants and animal pets, and the suppression of harmful insects and other pests should furnish a rich assortment of projects and problems out of which profitable science lessons may grow.

Geography in the elementary grades is another subject that bristles with facts affording opportunities for first-hand learning of simple principles of

physics, chemistry, and biology through observations and experiments that can easily be made by young children under suitable guidance.

Science lessons in the elementary grades, though closely connected with the other studies and growing naturally out of them, ought not to be merely incidental and without plan. There should be a well-conceived and well-balanced development of a body of scientific facts through first-hand experiences with them, but with very little theory, from the lowest grades up to the seventh. In the seventh and eighth grades there should be a systematic course in general or introductory science, based on one of the best of the recent textbooks on that subject, to be used as a guide by the teacher, but not as a basis of set book lessons by the pupils. The book should be used by the pupils as a basis for systematic reviews and as a guide to systematic organization of principles and the facts which they describe.

Such a scheme of science lessons in the grades is a very vital and important part of public education, but if left to the teachers to develop and conduct it will not be a success. There should be a supervisor of elementary science instruction, whose business it would be to plan the scheme of lessons, to teach the teachers how to teach it, to give model lessons in the various grades, and to supervise and test the work of instruction done by the teachers. We recommend that such a science supervisor be employed, who shall immediately begin the gradual introduction of such a scheme of lessons, perfecting and extending the course as fast as teachers can be trained properly to do the work.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

The course of study contains an "outline" for physical education, but it is a very poor one, measured by any modern standard for this work. The subject gets a minimum of attention in the classrooms and the schools generally are only awaking to the importance of it. Since no examinations occur in the subject, it may easily be one of the portions of the curriculum to be forgotten in daily work. A number of the larger schools presented an exhibition of their work to members of the survey commission. This was everywhere well done by the pupils and gave evidence of much drill. But it was most formal in character, the putting of children through a selected set of calisthenics. Yet it is safe to assume that it covers all the work done under this subject in such schools.

State-wide programs of physical education have been inaugurated in a number of mainland States. With certain limitations the California program might well become a model for the Hawaiian Territory. At any rate, the new policy of the department at Honolulu should have in mind both physical exercise in class groups and recreation and supervised play on the school ground. There is need of a director of this work for the Territory as a whole, and there must be added a number of persons who are prepared to take charge of the administration of a physical education program at each of the Honolulu schools and at the larger centers on other islands. Furthermore, such teachers must be sufficiently released from enough of their other school duties to give their major effort and interest to this work.

VOCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

As yet no course is in print covering vocational and industrial work in Hawaii. It may therefore be considered as in an embryonic state of development, with goals rather indefinitely set. The Territory has been too tardy in selecting its leaders for this important work, and the leaders frankly face the problem of setting out with a teaching staff that has not been competently trained in the required technique or in an understanding of the place of vocational education in a modern public-school system. In the future all plans for vocational training must come to occupy a very large part of the educational program.

The types of vocational work now carried on in the elementary schools are as follows:

1. *Cooking* is established in many, but not all of the large schools. It is usually housed in a small bungalow, where it is given a fairly good set of equipment for conducting cafeteria lunches. Class groups are not taught in Hawaii, that is, the schools do not have the laboratory with its individual stoves in which a group of girls (as in mainland schools) is given practice in experimental cooking. Girls go to the cooking room to assist the teacher in the preparation of lunches for the pupils who pay for the same in very moderate amounts. The rules require this work to be entirely self-supporting, and the budget is accordingly a very vital concern of the teacher. She must watch closely every possible avenue of waste. Under the circumstances she finds that too many pupils are a decided handicap to her efficiency as a server of lunches, and she prefers to look after all important details herself. Thus the training of pupils in cooking too easily tends to resolve itself into the assigning of a series of daily kitchen chores to a small group of girls, usually 6 or 7, but at times observers found as many as 10 girls so occupied. The list of duties are about as follows:

Cutting bread for sandwiches and spreading sandwiches; pealing potatoes; apportioning food; washing dishes; helping to serve lunches; and cleaning kitchen.

From the standpoint of a cafeteria doing public school service, these kitchens are highly successful. They are conducted with clocklike precision and they offer a creditable standard for good housekeeping. More than this, they possess greater educational value than the above recital of details would indicate. But, after all, they reach too few of the pupils. The system, too, does not fit into the regular class work, since it takes only a few of the girls of a class at one time. There is no time or opportunity to teach girls to plan and serve meals, and they are seldom taught any methods of purchasing. The point is that the present plan of work does not seem to be sufficiently comprehensive or extensive. To the plan, it is believed, there should be added phases of laboratory work similar to that found in modern school systems. And all schools of sufficient size should have cooking work installed.

2. *Sewing* offers opportunities for larger groups and is conducted along lines familiar to mainland schools. With regard to motivated activities, the course is not abreast of modern practice. It calls for too many exercises on details most of which could be learned in connection with the making of garments.

This work is also self-supporting. Like cooking, it should be extended to many more schools, and much of the material should be furnished.

3. *Manual training.*—In making manual training self-supporting the classes have, as in the case of cooking, been very much limited, and the lack of adequate equipment has given it a further handicap. Only in a comparatively few cases were these shops found to be well equipped. If there were enough hand tools, other necessities were short, or vice versa. The work suggests good possibilities for project activities were it not for two facts: (1) There is an exaggerated emphasis on the making of models. (2) The teacher can not give the boy too free a rein, knowing at the same time that articles must of necessity reach a certain market value. Hence the manual training teacher, such is the tendency, originates and creates, and the boy becomes the helper. Groups of 20 boys at a time ought to have accommodation in these shops. In practice, the groups are half the number, if not less. Mainland schools supply the material for practically all of the manual training work, and Hawaii is certainly in a position to extend the same support to it in the way of larger accommodation, more equipment, and free materials with which children can work.

4. *Gardening.* Every school in the Territory should and could have a school garden, but interest in such a thing appears to be only sporadic. Children should also be encouraged to make gardens at home under the direction of the school. The survey staff found some excellent gardens under way, but in no case did one measure up to reasonable expectation in the matter of dimensions, considering the size of school and the availability of land. Not enough things were being experimented with. It is feared that the enterprise is viewed as too much of a fad by the average school. On the other hand, instances did come to the attention of the commission in which it appeared that a start had been made in the direction of agricultural project work. The idea contemplated in such cases is to have school and plantation cooperate by having the pupil undertake a real piece of agricultural work, just as in real plantation life, though on a limited scale. It is felt that there are, happily, many plantations willing and ready to offer such cooperation and to allow the use of portions of their lands by the schools just as soon as the public schools can develop adequate administrative machinery and leadership. The Federal commission is pleased to learn that only recently proposals for a very original and promising form of cooperation have been under discussion between the department of public instruction and one of the leading plantations.

Of all phases of vocational training there is the greatest demand for agricultural education, and it is fortunate that the attitude of the department of public instruction has become one of keen interest in this work. A very large proportion of the boys in the upper grades should have an opportunity to enter upon simpler forms of agricultural training employing the project method therein.

In Honolulu and other cities boys should have advantages for engaging in industrial activities of broader scope than the present work in manual training, and the project method should also form its basis.

It seems certain, therefore, that in beginning the task of reorganization the department will need to take one of its chief points of departure from the vocational needs in the elementary field, fitting them into a larger program of vocational and industrial training

that shall extend into and through the secondary school period. It is all too true, as the present superintendent of schools has pointed out, that the public schools have been blindly absorbed in "turning out boys and girls who are fitted only to make their living in the cities and in the congested districts where the advantages of life are at a minimum," and that Hawaiian pupils should be taught primarily "to fit themselves for the great needs of Hawaii's agriculture and other industries." (See the discussion in Ch. I.)

CONCERNING THE REVISION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The facts set forth in the foregoing discussion of the present curriculum in elementary education abundantly confirm the stand taken by the officials of the department, namely, that a thoroughgoing revision of the course of study must be begun at the earliest possible opportunity. Revision must touch upon practically every subject. There must be very considerable pruning of old requirements. Many details of procedure that are based on theories accepted two decades ago must be cleared from the roadway of present-day progress. Time spent on the memorizing of unwieldy and unusable bodies of facts must be saved for the greater service of teaching children to "do" things, to create, to prove the mastery of an idea by applying it to the completion of something.

In the work of revision officials should be cautioned against that type of curriculum which is promulgated by one person or a small "inner circle" of individuals and which fails to bring widely representative groups of the teaching body into its preparation. This is one very noticeable fault of the present course of study. It suggests too forcibly the one-man idea, and as such it so dominates the classroom, so exaggerates the importance of obsolete details, that it actually sanctions low standards. Equally important with the above is the necessity of making teachers understand that the course of study is not a document to be followed with never a deviation. It is, on the other hand, tentative and suggestive in character. While its materials point certain avenues of procedure, they also challenge the teaching body to apply the results of tested experience in making changes from time to time. In the preface of the Duluth course of study there is an excellent statement of guiding principles employed in the preparation of that curriculum. Its suggestions are very much in point for Hawaii, and we therefore take the liberty of quoting from it, as follows:

SUGGESTIONS FROM THE DULUTH (MINN.) COURSE OF STUDY.

This Course of Study was constructed during the school term of 1918–19 and during the summer of 1919. It was introduced in September, 1919. It is the

product of the combined effort of the teachers, principals, and supervisors in the public schools and the State Normal School of Duluth.

The general supervision of the entire course was under an executive committee consisting of a principal, a supervisor, and a superintendent of the training department of a normal school. Each subject was in charge of a special committee consisting of teachers, principals, and supervisors, with the teachers largely predominating. While the number of teachers on these committees was made as large as possible in order to secure the benefit of classroom experience, not all were able to participate in the work on account of the lack of time and facilities for reaching them. Much credit is due all who have so willingly and efficiently assisted in bringing this course of study to its present standard. The fact that it is an outgrowth of the best classroom practice in the city is due largely, however, to the teachers who helped in its construction.

The general plan for each subject in the course, the principles for the selection of subject matter, and the organization of subject matter were agreed upon by the executive committee and the chairman of each special committee after much study and careful deliberation. Each special committee observed these principles of selection and plan of organization in preparing the subject assigned. Suggestions on the course in English were received from a group of business men, in order to secure the point of view of those outside the schools. Similar help was received from a group of musicians on the course in music.

The general plan adopted for each course is as follows:

I. Table of Contents.

II. Aims and purposes for all grades. A statement of the purposes of the subject as a whole.

III. Outline of subject matter. Brief survey of subject matter throughout the elementary and junior high schools.

IV. General directions.

V. Detailed outline of subject matter.

VI. General bibliography.

As a basis for the selection of subject matter for this Course of Study, the following social values were used:

I. That subject matter was selected which is most frequently used by the greatest number of people in life situations. The term "use" is not restricted to the mere economic sense, but includes all those matters which society has learned to value and desires to pass on to the next generation.

II. That subject matter was selected which is not only most frequently used but is most significant when used, e. g., we teach how to save life from drowning not because of the number of times it would be used but because of its great significance when used. These methods of choosing subject matter, while they have been a guiding principle have been necessarily limited by such considerations as expense of teaching, time of pupils, ability of teachers and pupils, and organization and availability of material.

In the organization of subject matter an attempt has been made to arrange it around projects suited to the abilities and interests of the pupils for whom it is intended and adapted to the successful use of well recognized methods of teaching and to the needs of the State and community. These projects, according to the nature of the subject matter, lend themselves to one of the following types:

Type I. In which the purpose is to embody some idea or plan in external form, as building a boat, writing a letter, presenting a play.

Type II. In which the purpose is to enjoy some æsthetic experience, as listening to a story, hearing a symphony, appreciating a picture.

Type III. In which the purpose is to straighten out some intellectual difficulty, to solve some problem, as to find out whether or not dew falls, to ascertain how New York outgrew Philadelphia.

Type IV. In which the purpose is to obtain some item or degree of skill or knowledge, as learning to write grade 14 on the Thorndike Scale, learning the irregular verbs in French. Some teachers, indeed, may not closely discriminate between drill as a project and drill as a set task, although the results will be markedly different.

"It is at once evident that these groupings more or less overlap and that one type may be used as means to another as end. It may be of interest to note that, with these definitions, the project method logically includes the problem method as a special case. The value of such a classification as that here given seems to me to lie in the light it should throw on the kind of projects teachers may expect and on the procedure that normally prevails in the several types. Kilpatrick." (Teachers College Record, Sept., 1918.)

This Course of Study is in no sense a finished product. It is a record of past achievement and a standard of present attainment. It is intended also to be a guidepost for further progress. As the quality of the classroom instruction improves by means of this course, the course should likewise be improved in the nature of the subject matter and in the effectiveness of the teaching method. For this purpose the suggestions and criticisms of teachers, principals, and supervisors will be requested from time to time.

EXPERT HELP NEEDED IN REVISING COURSE OF STUDY.

For immediate assistance and points of suggestion the elementary staff ought no doubt to have access to some of the recent courses of study prepared by school systems in America. The problem of making such information accessible to the large teaching body may be somewhat perplexing. One fairly practical solution, however, is to put in the hands of each supervising principal a dozen or a score of copies each of two or three of these courses, holding them responsible for their circulation among the schools. This method would not require an excessive number of copies, and no doubt they could be procured in these limited quantities. In this connection, then, the survey commission would recommend a study of some of the following courses of study:

1. The Baltimore County Course of Study—published by Warwick and York, Baltimore, Md.
2. The Duluth (Minn.) Course of Study—secured through the Duluth Board of Education.
3. Minimum Courses of Study—the report of a southern California committee of teachers. (Southern Branch University of California, Los Angeles, Calif.)
4. Courses of Study in the Elementary Schools and the High Schools of Decatur, Ill.—secured through the Decatur Board of Education.

In the actual reorganization of the course of study in Hawaii the commission recommends that a plan similar to that of Duluth be adopted and that an earnest attempt be made to have the revision ready by the end of the 1920–21 school year at the latest, and by the

end of 1920 if possible. The commission further suggests that two experts of national reputation be employed by the department, as follows:

1. An expert in the curricula of the fundamental subjects.
2. An expert in the curricula of vocational and industrial training, with special reference to the work of agriculture.

The idea in mind is to have these experts spend from six months to a year in a thorough study of Hawaii's needs along the two lines and then to bring to bear on the work of organization the applications of their own tested experiences in the wider fields. They should in no wise be employed as substitutes for the staff in making the course of study, and they should be persons of sufficiently balanced judgment to avoid dictating policies. Their chief work should be the development of the necessary cooperation among the teaching body under their expert guidance and leadership. The cost of such an undertaking would be insignificant in comparison with the benefits to be obtained.

TEXTBOOKS.

The commission believes that with the exception of geography all of the textbooks now adopted and in use in the grades should go into the discard. One of the chief drawbacks of the work of teaching is the unsuitability of these texts. Some by reason of being for many years the adopted texts have reached the point where in the natural course of events they should be subjected to revaluation in terms of what the market now offers. Other texts are of more recent adoption, and considering the lists of textbooks then available in each respective line one wonders what the basis of judgment could have been in selecting these particular books. The impression is that they were deemed the proper texts because of the degree to which they paralleled an already outgrown course of study. The geography texts are comparable to other modern publications in this line, but the difficulty here is the fact that all geographies are undergoing revision because of the tremendous recent changes in geography data. But a change in this text should go over until 1921-22 in order to allow for the above changes and for the changes which the United States census will bring into being.

As with the course of study, so in the matter of textbooks the opinions of representative groups of teachers should be sought. The commission therefore offers the following recommendations:

1. A textbook commission should be formed. It should be composed of seven to nine members, representing the following groups: Supervising principals, principals, normal instructors, regular class teachers, special teachers. At least one-third of the committee should be teachers.

2. The commission should appoint a subcommittee for each type of textbook, having a membership of five to seven, a majority of whom should not be members of the commission. Each subcommittee should be composed of persons who have recognized ability in the particular subject.
3. Each subcommittee should report its findings, following the examination of all texts submitted for adoption, in the form of recommendations to the commission.
4. These recommendations should be adopted by the commission unless a majority of the latter body, on good and sufficient grounds, is opposed to them.
5. The ex officio chairman of the commission should be the superintendent of public instruction.
6. The commission and these committees should be continuing for the purpose of making uninterrupted studies of textbooks and methods of teaching the general subjects and keeping the textbook adoptions constantly up to date, avoiding, however, all inconsiderate changes.

The need of better textbooks is so urgent that it is felt the department ought to take immediate steps to set this machinery for adoption into operation. If recommendations can be decided upon before the end of the summer vacation, 1920, it will be advantageous to have the books in the hands of pupils for the school year 1920–21. It is not felt, moreover, that this matter must necessarily wait upon a revised course of study.

METHOD OF DISTRIBUTING TEXTBOOKS.

At present all orders for textbooks needed at the various schools are filled by a commercial house in Honolulu, which acts as the distributing agent (for profit) to the publishers of the texts used. The commission found much dissatisfaction expressed among the schools with this arrangement, because of delays in delivery. The commission did not investigate these criticisms, neither did it examine the merits of the allegation made that an undue profit was collected for handling the books. It suggests, however, that it is desirable that the department consider the plan of handling the textbook and supply business itself, collecting an amount above first cost sufficient only to make this department self-supporting.

Chapter VI.

THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

CONTENTS.—1. General conditions; inadequate accommodations. 2. High-school pupils; racial and sex distribution; problem of Americanization; promotions and failures. 3. The curriculums; McKinley High School; new curriculums recommended; solving the English problem. 4. The teachers; training; distribution by experience; efficiency of classroom work; characterization of methods used; time wasted on penmanship; teachers' salaries; schedule recommended; a teachers' bureau needed. 5. Organization, administration, and supervision; functions of high-school principal; grouping pupils according to ability in English; size of classes; distribution of pupils by curriculums. 6. Library facilities. 7. Buildings and equipment; building standards; inadequacy of equipment.

1. GENERAL CONDITIONS.

The Territory of Hawaii has four public high schools, one on each of the four principal islands of the group. Geographically, with perhaps but one exception, they are placed in good strategic locations, but considering the area and the population which each is intended to serve, there are too few such schools. The table which follows will make this clear.

Hawaiian public high schools as related to area and population.

Island.	Area in square miles.	Estimated population (1919).	Name of high school.	Location.	Year established.	Enrollment, December, 1919.	Total public school enrollment, December, 1919.
Oahu	598.0	121,200	McKinley	Honolulu	1896	771	18,079
Hawaii	4,015.6	71,270	Hilo	Hilo	1905	292	10,277
Maui [1]	1,172.7	39,000	Maui	Hamakuapoko	1911	72	5,690
Kauai [2]	619.7	31,500	Kauai	Lihue	1914	58	5,129
Total	6,406.0	[3] 262,970				1,193	39,125

[1] Including Molokai, Lanai, and Kahoolawe.
[2] Including Niihau.
[3] The 1920 census total is 249,999, exclusive of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps personnel.

HIGH SCHOOL FACILITIES INADEQUATE.

The McKinley High School must serve not only the city of Honolulu, but also the whole island of Oahu. The Hilo High School not only must serve the city of Hilo, but it is also the only high school on Hawaii, the largest island of the group. The Maui High School

serves the village and district of Hamakuapoko on the eastern side of Maui and also the whole inhabited area of Maui and three neighboring smaller islands, Molokai (exclusive of the leper settlement of Kalaupapa, and the county of Kalawao), Lanai, and Kahoolawe. These latter islands lie to the northwest, west, and southwest of Molokai, or on the side opposite to Kahului, the port for Hamakuapoko. The Kauai High School serves the population of Lihue and that of the whole Island of Kauai, and of the smaller neighboring island, Niihau, 50 miles from Lihue by steamer.

The geographical situation is further complicated by the topography of the larger islands, each of which consists of an assemblage of extensive volcanic cones. These are grouped in compact ranges, for the most part; but some are more scattered. The habitable portions of the islands are the narrow valleys formed by erosion on the gentle slopes of the lava cones or near the bases of the steeper tufa cones, the wide valleys and lava plateaus between the different cones, and the narrow coastal and alluvial plains that skirt parts of the islands. Extensive plantations of sugar cane and pineapples stretch far and wide over those uplands where the lava has weathered sufficiently to form a suitable soil. Because of the large areas of desert volcanic lands where there is practically no soil on account of relatively recent lava flows, or where there is insufficient water supply, the habitable area in many large sections is small compared with the whole.

The population is scattered among the more or less isolated interior valleys and plains, or is segregated in the plantation camps or small villages, or is strung along the peripheral plains. These narrow coastal plains are usually fairly extensive on the leeward sides of the islands; but on the windward sides there are long gaps where they are absent, and where the coast is more or less inaccessible from both land and sea because of wave erosion. The waves have carried away the soils of the plains and cut the lava back in lofty cliffs. The valley lands at the mouths of the stream are hard to reach by water on account of the barrier reefs of coral which skirt the islands and which have few fresh-water openings that are navigable by power boats. Access to them is had only at favorable times by the native canoes which at some risk can pass the reefs. Rail and road transportation have made a good beginning, but the possibilities for these types of transportation as yet are far from being adequately developed.

On comparing the high-school enrollments with the population (estimated), we find that in the McKinley High School there is one student for every 157 of the total population; in the Hilo High School one for every 244; in the Maui High School one for every 542; in the

Kauai High School one for every 543; and in the whole Territory one for every 220. Naturally, McKinley and Hilo make the best showing, as they are located in the only two cities of the islands, and draw the bulk of their students from those two cities respectively. Honolulu has an estimated population of about 85,000 and Hilo of about 13,000. The 1,193 public high school students, however, do not by any means represent the total number of children in the islands receiving a secondary education, for there are in the islands 11 private schools with high-school departments or grades above the eighth; and these at present draw largely from the more prosperous elements of the population.

In a census of the public and private high schools made in 1917, the public high-school enrollment was found to be 646, and the private high-school enrollment for the seven recognized schools 601. This is exclusive of the Japanese "language" schools, having high-school departments, but holding their sessions before and after public school hours. For the same lists of schools in 1919 the corresponding figures are 1,193 and 763. This is an increase in enrollment for the public schools from 1917 to 1919 of 547, or 84 per cent, while for the same seven private schools the corresponding increase is 162, or 27 per cent.

To get the present total private high-school enrollment we must add 82 pupils who are distributed in four schools not included in the 1917 survey, making a total in private high-school grades (i. e., 9–12 inclusive) of 845. If these four schools had been included, the enrollment of the private high schools in 1917 would have equaled or exceeded that of the public high schools. The public high-school enrollment now exceeds that of the private high schools by 348.

The fact, however, that the public high schools are still but a slight factor in the educational life of the islands is strikingly shown by the proportion of the total public-school enrollment of each county which is found to be enrolled in the high school of that county. These percentages are (see preceding table): City and county of Honolulu (Island of Oahu), 4.3 per cent; Hawaii, 2.9 per cent; Maui, 1.3 per cent; Kauai, 1.1 per cent; and for the whole Territory, 3 per cent. Three pupils enrolled in the public high schools of the Territory out of every 100 in the system is a forcible reminder that the high schools are not yet functioning, except in relatively slight degree, in the school life of the mass of children.

Nevertheless, from the table which follows it is clear that the tide is beginning to set in strongly toward the public high schools. Conditions warrant the inference that the increase will be much accelerated as more generous facilities for high-school education are provided.

Public high-school enrollment, Territory of Hawaii, 1914 to 1919, distributed by schools and sexes.

Year.	Sexes.	McKinley.	Hilo.	Maui.	Kauai.	Total.
1914	Boys	216	115	6	6	343
	Girls	109	65	19	1	194
	Total	325	180	25	7	537
1915	Boys	268	61	12	14	355
	Girls	108	38	25	4	175
	Total	376	99	37	18	530
1916	Boys	315	87	13	21	436
	Girls	109	43	18	12	182
	Total	424	130	31	33	618
1917	Boys	352	122	20	21	515
	Girls	135	63	26	13	237
	Total	487	185	46	34	752
1918	Boys	373	112	16	24	525
	Girls	151	55	24	13	243
	Total	524	167	40	37	768
1919	Boys	545	187	36	41	809
	Girls	226	106	36	17	385
	Total	771	293	72	58	1,194

It will be seen from the foregoing table that the total enrollment in the public high schools has more than doubled in the five-year period considered, the larger increase having taken place during the last two years.

One immediate result of this increase has been an embarrassing congestion, which, especially in the McKinley High School, has been steadily growing worse, until now this is one of the most serious problems with which the school authorities have to deal.

Besides the difficulties arising from scattered population and from overcrowding, another condition complicating the educational problem is suggested by the relatively rapid increase in the number of children from non-English-speaking oriental families, discussed at length in Chapters I and III. The recent rapid increase in high-school enrollment is due very largely to children from these families, who recently have begun to flock into the high schools in large numbers. The character and effects of this influx will be brought out in the next section of this chapter.

2. THE HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS.

The pupils of the public high schools are drawn from the more ambitious elements of the islands, exclusive of the more prosperous classes of people. A glance at the following table shows that many different races and nationalities are represented in the McKinley High School, but that the children of Japanese and Chinese

descent constitute a large majority. The pupils included under the word "others" are of Korean, Porto Rican, and Filipino descent, together with scattering representatives of several other nationalities not named in the first column. Collectively, they constitute a considerable group, which serves to emphasize these complexities of the school population, but the term includes no single group that is large enough to be significant in itself.

Enrollment of the McKinley High School, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1919, distributed by nationalities, grades, and sexes.

Nationalities.	Twelfth grade.			Eleventh grade.			Tenth grade.			Ninth grade.			Total.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Hawaiian	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	2	4	7	11	7	7	14
Part-Hawaiian	1	4	5	5	9	14	16	15	31	30	36	66	52	64	116
American	1	2	3	8	4	12	8	13	21	14	14	28	31	33	64
British	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	4	2	6
German	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Portuguese	0	0	0	2	3	5	4	6	10	5	5	10	11	14	25
Japanese	17	0	17	47	3	50	44	8	52	118	20	138	226	31	257
Chinese	31	4	35	38	8	46	40	18	58	83	28	111	192	58	250
Spanish	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Others	3	1	4	2	3	5	6	1	7	11	12	23	22	17	39
Total	53	11	64	105	30	135	121	62	183	266	123	389	545	226	771

The following summary of the foregoing table shows how the races rank in numbers among the boys and girls, respectively:

Distribution by sexes and nationalities, arranged in the order of their numbers, McKinley High School, 1919.

Order.	Boys.	Number.	Girls.	Number.	Totals.	Number.	All high schools, 1917-18.[1]	Number.
1	Japanese	226	Part-Hawaiian	64	Japanese	257	Japanese	234
2	Chinese	192	Chinese	58	Chinese	250	Chinese	189
3	Part-Hawaiian	52	American	33	Part-Hawaiian	116	American	99
4	American	31	Japanese	31	American	64	Part-Hawaiian	79
5	Others	22	Others	17	Others	39	Portuguese	40
6	Portuguese	11	Portuguese	14	Portuguese	25	Others	17
7	Hawaiian	7	Hawaiian	7	Hawaiian	14	British	16
8	British	4	British	2	British		Hawaiian	...
Total		545		226		771		688

[1] McKinley High School, 1919.

The outstanding feature is the number of boys of Japanese and Chinese descent, so great in the aggregate that although the Part-Hawaiian girls rank first among the girls in numbers, the order of the girls is overturned in the totals, in which the races rank in numbers exactly as they do in the boys' column. While in the mainland high schools the girls almost invariably exceed the boys in numbers, there are in this school 2.4 times as may boys as there are girls. The comparison plainly shows that this is due to the Japanese and Chinese

who still to a considerable extent preserve their traditional attitude of neglecting or discouraging the education of their women.

This overwhelming preponderance of orientals, coupled with the overcrowding of the high schools due to their rapid influx, accounts partly for the popularity of the private schools with the well-to-do. Many white people, Hawaiians and Part-Hawaiians, who can afford to pay tuition, but who would like perhaps from democratic impulses to send their children to the public high schools, are deterred from doing so. This is mainly because their children would be outnumbered in their classes by the orientals, who have little in common with them and whose language difficulties impede the progress of all.

On summarizing the preceding table by sexes and grades and reckoning the percentage of girls enrolled in each grade, the following is found: In the ninth grade, 32 per cent are girls; in the tenth grade, 24 per cent; in the eleventh grade, 22 per cent; and in the twelfth grade, 17 per cent. That is, the percentage of girls in the two higher grades is much smaller than in the two lower grades. This indicates either that the girls do not stick so well at the top as the boys do, or else that they are coming in faster at the bottom. Very probably both causes are operative.

Again, referring to the same table, it is seen that the Japanese and Chinese freshmen lead in numbers with 138 and 111, respectively, out of 389 freshmen. The Americans and Part-Hawaiians come next with 66 and 28, respectively; while the ratios of seniors to freshmen for the different nationalities are as follows: Japanese, 12.3 per cent; Chinese, 31.5 per cent; Part-Hawaiian, 7.6 per cent; American, 10.7 per cent; Portuguese, Hawaiians, and British, 0 per cent; and all others 17.4 per cent. Evidently the Japanese and Chinese hold their attendance through the four years better than any of the other nationalities, for they are known to be coming in below at a much faster rate than are the others.

Of the total enrollment, the Japanese and Chinese descendants together constitute 65 per cent, while the American, Hawaiian, and Part-Hawaiian descendants constitute 25 per cent, and all the others 10 per cent. American and British descendants together constitute but 9 per cent of the total enrollment.

THE PROBLEM OF AMERICANIZATION.

This condition involves serious difficulties from the standpoint of the influence of the Anglo-Saxon and other thoroughly Americanized elements in imparting to the children of alien and non-English-speaking orientals the ideals, customs, and language of the American Nation. The thoroughly Americanized group makes up only one-fourth of the whole, and those from Anglo-Saxon families, where

presumably good English is habitually spoken, make up only one-eleventh of the whole. These groups, outnumbered as they are from 4 to 1 to 11 to 1, can not have that great influence on their school fellows of foreign parentage that the native American children have in our great cosmopolitan high schools in such mainland cities as New York, Newark, Cleveland, Chicago, and other large cities where the Americanization problem is acute. In these cities, in sharp contrast with the Territorial population, middle-class Americans generally send their children to the public schools, and are able to send them in such numbers that they exert a predominant influence on the contents of the melting pot.

The distribution by races and sexes for the other three high schools (see tables which follow), inserted here for comparison, show characteristics which are very similar to those just set forth, but with variations due to slightly different racial distributions on the different islands.

Enrollment distributed by sexes and national descent, Hilo Public High School, Hawaii.

Nationalities.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Japanese	106	33	139
American	23	18	41
Portuguese	11	26	37
Part-Hawaiian	16	19	35
Chinese	18	6	24
Hawaiian	5	5	10
English	1	1	2
Others	4	0	4
Total	184	108	292

Distribution of pupils by grades and descent, Maui and Kauai Public High Schools, Hawaii.

Nationalities.	Maui High School.					Kauai High School. (total).
	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.	Total.	
American and British	13	9	4	3	29	3
Japanese	12	4	3	0	19	30
Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian	7	1	0	1	9	9
Chinese	4	3	1	0	8	11
Portuguese	3	2	0	0	5	5
Negro	1	0	0	0	1	0
Total	40	19	8	4	71	58

From the personal standpoint of most of the English-speaking families, who naturally wish their children to have such companionships and associations in school as shall tend to develop solidarity and stability with respect to the language, ideals, traditions, and customs of America, this overwhelming preponderance of orientals is

so disturbing that it constrains many who can not afford the expense to send their children to the private schools.

Judged from this immediate and intimate personal standpoint, the great influx of the orientals into the high schools seems very unfortunate, yet we must consider the great and imminent need of Americanizing these children who come from families whose language and ways are so different from ours. The task of converting them into loyal and understanding Americans, which is fundamental to Hawaii's peace and safety, is truly a stupendous one because of their great aggregate numbers; so all forward-looking Americans must rejoice that so many of them are eager to attend the high schools. In these schools they are constantly under the influence which loyal, intelligent, and well-trained American teachers, wide-awake and devoted to the problem, are bringing to bear on them; and this is a great gain. Necessarily the first and absolutely indispensable step in this direction is to increase the high-school accommodations until they are adequate. The next is to broaden and enrich the curriculums and organization until the high schools can offer even more than the private schools now offer of what is best and most valuable in secondary education.

PROMOTIONS AND FAILURES IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

The disparity between the enrollments of the higher and lower classes shown in the total enrollment by grades brings us sharply up against the question as to how many high-school pupils are failing and how many are dropping out of school. The following table, taken from the 1917–18 report of the superintendent of public instruction, gives the facts as to numbers and percentages of failures and eliminations from school at that time.

The average per cent promoted is taken from the total enrollment for each class and the total promotions. The average per cent of eliminations is taken from the total enrollment and the total number leaving school. The table follows:

Pupil promotions and failures in public high schools, Hawaii, 1917–18.

RECORD OF FIRST-YEAR PUPILS.

	September roll.	Left school.	Number promoted.	Number on condition.	Number failed.	Per cent promoted.	Per cent eliminated.
McKinley high	299	73	128	53	45	42.8	24.4
Hilo high	71	6	40	15	12	56.3	8.6
Maui high	19	2	5	4	8	26.3	10.5
Kauai high	10	0	5	2	3	50.0	.0
Totals and averages	399	81	178	72	68	44.6	20.3

Pupil promotions and failures in public high schools, Hawaii, 1917–18—Contd.

RECORD OF SECOND-YEAR PUPILS.

McKinley high	117	17	78	11	11	66.7	14.5
Hilo high	58	14	36	6	2	62.1	24.1
Maui high	8	2	6	0	0	75.0	25.0
Kauai high	12	0	11	0	1	91.7	.0
Totals and averages	195	33	131	17	14	67.1	16.9

RECORD OF THIRD-YEAR PUPILS.

McKinley high	50	3	39	6	2	78.0	6.0
Hilo high	24	4	17	3	0	70.8	16.6
Maui high	7	0	4	3	0	57.1	.0
Kauai high	6	1	5	0	0	83.4	16.6
Totals and averages	87	8	65	12	2	74.7	9.2

RECORD OF FOURTH-YEAR PUPILS.

McKinley high	42	3	37	0	2	88.1	7.0
Hilo high	24	1	18	4	1	75.0	4.2
Maui high	9	0	9	0	0	100.0	.0
Kauai high	2	1	0	0	1	.0	50.0
Totals and averages	77	5	64	4	4	83.1	6.5

The low percentages of promotions and the high percentages of eliminations, especially in the first two years, is noteworthy. There seems in the past to have been a settled policy to eliminate the "unfit" in the ninth and tenth grades. After the initial slaughter, apparently either more mercy has been shown or only the "fit" have survived, for the percentages of promotions steadily increase and the percentages of eliminations steadily decrease as we ascend the grades. The large percentages of failures and eliminations seem not only to have been tolerated but also justified by the department of public instruction in the past. The idea that the school should in any way modify itself to fit the needs and the capacities of the pupils seems not to have taken hold on either the teachers or supervisors to any considerable extent. Happily a change in attitude with reference to failures and eliminations has recently taken place.

Records for 1918–19 show that in the McKinley High School 46 out of 515, or 9 per cent, failed of promotion and dropped out. In the Hilo High School 12 out of 160, or 7½ per cent, failed. Of these, 5, or 3 per cent of the total, dropped out at the end of the year. In the Kauai High School 2 out of 35, or 6 per cent, failed, and 5 of the 35, or 14 per cent, dropped out at the end of the year. Data from the Maui High School were not obtained.

The contrast between these figures and those for 1917 is striking. They indicate a change of policy in the right direction. The result, however, is not due to any radical change in the curriculum. When supervisors call attention to the fact that there are too many failures,

teachers usually respond by marking the pupils higher. Relatively few of them react by suggesting curriculum changes or modifying their methods of teaching. Probably there has been more assiduous drilling and coaching, and a less drastic administration of examinations. Eliminations are caused mostly by failures, and failures may be caused either by lack of native ability or of sufficient maturity, or of adequate and thorough training in the grades below the one in which the failure occurs. More often, however, failure occurs because one or more of the studies makes no vital appeal to the pupil, who, therefore, does not become interested sufficiently to apply himself to the work. Sometimes the failure of the study to make a vital appeal is due to its remoteness from the pupil's interests and needs, and sometimes it is due to the teacher's lack of knowledge, of skill, and of sympathetic insight into his tendencies and points of view.

In the case of the Hawaiian public high schools the language difficulties already mentioned undoubtedly add another potent factor to the school mortality problem. When there are in the class a large number of pupils whose language difficulties cause them to think and speak haltingly, many of these will become discouraged, and will ultimately fail. The damage, however, does not end there, for other children, who have no language difficulties of a serious nature, are held back, neglected, or become insufferably bored. These, therefore, contract habits of idleness because of the slow movement of thought and action during the lessons.

Such being the situation, the correct solution of the failure and elimination problem must be found through several lines of endeavor.

1. In the elementary schools there must be more thorough and more intelligent teaching, a more varied and more vitalized curriculum, more care and discrimination in making promotions, and some systematic provision for educational and vocational guidance, beginning with the sixth or seventh grade and extending through the high school.

2. The high school program of studies must be thoroughly reconstructed to provide curricula of different sorts, adapted to different groups of pupils. The pupils of any large high school fall naturally into several groups. Those of a given group have interests, capacities, and needs that are generally similar within the group but somewhat different from the interests, capacities, and needs of those belonging to other groups. It is not very difficult to segregate pupils into such groups and provide a curriculum for each. Such curricula should have a certain amount of flexibility and should be so organized that a pupil may change from one to the other if, after a trial in one, it becomes evident that he has not chosen wisely. In the next section the curriculum problem will be considered.

3. THE CURRICULUMS.

In modern educational terms the entire list of subjects or studies offered by a school is called the *program of studies*. A single subject to be pursued for a definitely prescribed time and in a definite manner is called a course of study. Two or more courses of study in the same subject or in closely related subjects arranged so as to be pursued in consecutive years constitute *a sequence of courses*. A definite group of sequences and single courses arranged so as to afford a special type of training suited to the needs of a group of pupils who have somewhat similar aims and abilities is called a *curriculum*.

According to the best present opinion a large public high school should offer a comprehensive program of studies grouped in different curriculums, one for each typical group of pupils, so far as such typical groups exist in the community and so far as it is feasible to carry on efficiently the various courses involved. Thus pupils are required to pursue definite courses of training rather than aimlessly or capriciously to choose studies.

In the building of curriculums it is deemed wise to require of all candidates for graduation certain courses that are fundamental to the needs of all. These are placed in all the curriculums and are called *constants*. Also, in order that all pupils may be required to gain a certain minimum of breadth in knowledge and experience, and at the same time be held to continuous and sustained purpose and effort, it is held by the best authorities that each curriculum should require for graduation the completion of at least two major sequences of three or four years each and two minor sequences of two years each. A course requiring five 40-minute recitation periods per week for one school year of not fewer than 36 weeks, or the equivalent of 120 hours (7,200 minutes) is called a *unit course*. This is the minimum value. In the best schools the unit represents more time, as it is considered that a recitation period of 45 minutes and a school year of 38 to 40 weeks is desirable. For shop and laboratory work, double periods are necessary for the best results, and a double period of such work, not requiring preparation by the pupil outside the shop or laboratory is rated as equivalent to a single period of recitation requiring outside preparation.

CURRICULUMS OF THE McKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL.

The table which follows shows the curriculums of the McKinley High School. These are the same as those prescribed by the department of public instruction for all the high schools, except that some studies have been added as electives. These are health and sanitation, economics, and sociology.

Curriculums—McKinley Public High School, Hawaii.

Grade.	College entrance.	General.	Business.
Ninth (4 units).	*English.* *Algebra.* *Foreign language.* History. General science.	*English.* *Algebra.* Foreign language. History. General science.	*English.* *Commercial arithmetic and rapid calculation.* *Spelling and penmanship.* History. General science. Foreign language.
Tenth (4 units).	*English.* *Plane geometry.* *Foreign language.* History. Biology.	*English.* Plane geometry. Foreign language. History. Biology.	*English.* *Bookkeeping.* *Typewriting.* Foreign language. Biology. Algebra.
Eleventh (4 units).	*English.* Advanced algebra. Foreign language. English history. Health and sanitation. Sociology. Chemistry.	*English.* Advanced algebra. Foreign language. English history. Health and sanitation. Sociology. Chemistry.	*English.* *Shorthand.* *Typewriting.* Bookkeeping. Health and sanitation. Sociology. Chemistry. Plane geometry.
Twelfth (4 units).	*English* *United States History and Government.* Foreign language. Physics. Health and sanitation. Economics. Solid geometry and trigonometry.	*English.* *United States History and Government.* Foreign language. Physics. Solid geometry and trigonometry. Economics.	*English.* *United States History and Government.* *Shorthand.* *Typewriting.* Solid geometry and trigonometry. Economics. Sociology. Health and sanitation. Physics.

Two periods per week of athletics or physical training are required of all pupils. Courses printed in italics are required. The others are elective; but a total of four full courses must be taken each year, 16 units being required for graduation.

On inspection of this table it becomes obvious that the first two curriculums are identical excepting for one point—that a student in the first curriculum may elect sociology in the eleventh grade or in the twelfth, while one in the second curriculum may elect it only in the eleventh. The only difference in the requirements is that in the ninth and tenth grades all pupils in the college entrance curriculum must take foreign language, algebra and geometry, and either history or science, while any pupil in the general curriculum may omit either the language or the mathematics if he so desires, in which case he must take both history and science.

It thus becomes clear that in reality there are but two curriculums, the "general" and the "business." Furthermore, the business curriculum is different from the general only in that it requires two units of commercial work each year in addition to English and leaves only one study instead of four to be chosen each year from the same list of electives as that offered in the general curriculum.

Thus it may be seen that if a pupil elects the general course he must take four units of English and one of United States history

and civil government, and from the remainder of the program of studies he may pick and choose according to his whims. If, however, he chooses the college preparatory curriculum he elects to be held, besides the English and senior history, to two years of a foreign language and two years of mathematics, and must exclude either history or science. If he chooses the business course his education is made up of 12 required units, consisting of English, arithmetic, spelling and penmanship, bookkeeping, shorthand and typewriting, and only 4 units of such subjects as science, history, and economics, which tend to develop thinking power, wisdom, and judgment, and also furnish information of general value.

Judged from the standpoint of up-to-date school administration, these curriculums are both narrow and chaotic, and they fail to meet any of the standards enumerated in the opening paragraphs of this section. There are no consistent major sequences excepting that in English, which is prescribed for all, and there are only two minor sequences, namely, ninth and tenth grade foreign language and ninth and tenth grade mathematics. None of the three curriculums requires two major sequences and only one of them requires two minor sequences. The English constant should be two units instead of four (though three and four should be included as two of the major sequences offered), and there should be constants of two units in social studies (history, economics, civics, etc.), and one of mathematics.

Also, in this Territory, where the general need of scientific intelligence and the scientific attitude of mind is so pressing, at least two units of science should be included among the constants. The requirement made at McKinley of two periods per week of physical training each year as a constant is in the right direction, but it would be better to make it five periods. The offerings in foreign language consist of four years of Latin or of French or of Spanish. There is at McKinley no provision for manual arts and there is very inadequate provision for household arts. There are no significant modern sequences of courses in music and art. In the judgment of the members of the survey commission the high-school curriculums are in urgent need of a thoroughgoing overhauling.

NEW CURRICULUMS RECOMMENDED.

The survey commission recommends that five different curriculums be adopted and put into service in each of the high schools. The changes should be made as rapidly as Territorial and local conditions become such that these curriculums may be carried out with reasonable efficiency and economy.

The five curriculums that are recommended are shown in tabular outlines below. Their names and the groups of students for whom they are designed are as follows:

1. *The arts preparatory curriculum.*—For all students who intend entering general college courses leading to a bachelor's degree in arts or philosophy.

2. *The science preparatory curriculum.*—For all students who intend entering scientific courses in colleges or technical schools, or colleges of engineering, agriculture, medicine, veterinary medicine, or dentistry, and whose strongest intellectual interests are in science and mathematics.

3. *The commercial curriculum.*—For those who intend, after leaving high school, to enter immediately into business occupations. The first two years of this curriculum furnish a fair course of training for those who can not continue through four years.

4. *The industrial curriculum.*—For those who do not desire or can not plan to pursue higher technical or engineering courses, but whose tastes and abilities are such as to incline them toward production in mechanical and industrial lines of work. This is not a course for training these to start as skilled mechanics in any particular line. It is not a trade course, but is intended to give a background and intellectual insight into the sciences, materials, tools, and processes which underlie production in all mechanical industries. Boys trained in this course should be able to enter shops as apprentice draftsmen and machinists and work up rapidly to positions as skilled and intelligent workmen, foremen, contractors, or proprietors of small repair shops; or if they have first-rate ability, to attain ultimately to positions of responsibility in the management of larger industrial plants.

5. *The home-economics curriculum.*—For those girls who do not intend to enter college nor to go into business occupations, but whose main interests are in the activities that center in the home and community life. This curriculum will afford a good all-round training for the woman citizen, as well as specific training in the science and art of home making.

The details of these curricula are set forth in the tables which follow:

The arts preparatory curriculum.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Foreign language	I.	II.	III.	IV.
English	I.	II.	III or	IV.
Mathematics	I.	II.	III or	III or
Natural science	Civic biology or	General geography or	Physics.	Chemistry or physics (III).
Social studies	Community civics.	Ancient and medieval history.	Modern history	American history and civics or Problems of democracy.
Physical training	I.	II.	III.	IV.

Music or art or both may be elected for 3 periods per week.

The science preparatory curriculum.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Foreign language	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Mathematics	I.	II.	III.	
English	I.	II.		IV.
Social studies	Community civics or		Modern history	American history and civics or Problems of democracy.
Natural science	Civic biology.	General geography.	Physics	Chemistry.
Physical training	I.	II.	III.	IV.

Music or art or mechanical drawing and shop workma : be elected up to 3 additional periods per week.

The commercial curriculum.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Drawing and shop-work—			I, II, or III, or	II, III, or IV, or
Music or art			I or	II or
Language	English composition, spelling, punctuation, literature I.	English composition, rhetoric, literature.	Foreign language I, or English composition and literature III, or	Foreign language II, or English composition and literature IV, or
Natural science	Civic biology or	General geography.	Physics.	Chemistry, agriculture, or botany and sugar and pineapple technology.
Social studies	Community civics.		Modern history.	American history and civics, or Problems of democracy.
Mathematical studies	Commercial arithmetic and bookkeeping.	Bookkeeping and office practice.	Costs and contracts, salesmanship, and advertising.	Auditing, banking and finance, insurance and investments.
Commercial studies	Stenography and typewriting.	Stenography and typewriting.	Office and factory management, personnel work, elementary business law.	Elements of economics IV.
Physical training	I.	II.	III.	IV.

Penmanship, music or art, or mechanical drawing and shopwork may be elected in the first and second years up to three periods per week; also in the third and fourth years if full courses in either of these subjects are not chosen as indicated above.

The industrial curriculum.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Drawing and art			Freehand drawing, color and design I, or	Freehand drawing, color and design II, or perspective and projection II, or
Language	English composition, spelling, punctuation, literature.	English composition, rhetoric, literature.	Foreign language I, or English composition and literature III, or	Foreign language II, or English composition and literature IV, or
Mathematics	Algebra V or algebra II, geometry II, graphs and geometrical construction I.	Plane and solid geometry V, or algebra II, geometry II, graphs and geometrical construction I.	Advanced algebra, trigonometry, and elementary coordinate geometry or shop mathematics.	Economics IV.
Social studies	Community civics. or		Modern history.	American history and civics IV, or Problems of democracy.
Natural science	Civic biology.	General geography.	Physics.	Chemistry.
Industrial practice	Mechanical drawing and woodwork.	Drawing and cabinet making, wood turning and pattern making or benchmetal work, or sheet metal work.	Forge work, foundry practice, or drawing and machine shop.	Machine drawing and machine shop.
Physical training	I.	II.	III.	IV.

Art or music may be taken each year as an additional part-unit, elective up to 3 periods per week, except art in the third and fourth year, when full art courses are chosen as electives.

The home economics curriculum.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Art	Drawing, color and design I.	Drawing, color and design II.	Drawing, color and costume design III. or	Drawing, color and interior decoration IV, or
English	Composition, spelling, punctuation, literature I.	Composition, rhetoric, literature II.	Composition, literature, history of literature III, or	Composition, literature, history of literature IV, or
Social studies	Community civics or		Sociology III, or modern history.	Economics IV, American history and civics or Problems of democracy.
Natural science	Civic biology.	General geography.	Household physics and chemistry.	Dietetics, care and feeding of children, first aid and nursing.

The home economics curriculum.—Continued.

Courses.	Ninth grade.	Tenth grade.	Eleventh grade.	Twelfth grade.
Home economics	Foods and cooking (3) I, textiles and sewing (2) I.	Foods and cooking (2) II, textiles and sewing (3) II.	Dressmaking and millinery III.	Household management, housewifery, budgets, and accounts, laundry IV.
Physical training	I.	II.	III	IV.

Music may be taken each year as an elective fractional unit up to three periods per week. Two, three, or four units of Latin or a modern language, or one, two, three, or four full units of music, or one, two, or three units of mathematics may be elected instead of art, if with the formal approval of the principal.

CURRICULUM CHARTS EXPLAINED.

These curriculum charts are for the most part self-explanatory to those who are familiar with current curriculum discussions. Readers of this report who desire to inquire in detail into the character and content of the sequences of courses, and the justification for them, will find a rather extended explanation of their nature and educational values in part 2, Chapter II of the report of a survey of *The Public School System of Memphis, Tennessee*, Bulletin, 1919, No. 50, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. The space and time limitations of this report do not admit of extended discussion of them here, but a few explanatory comments are necessary. All five of these curriculums conform to the principles of constants and major and minor sequences that have been mentioned in the earlier parts of this section.

In "foreign language" the school should offer a choice among four-year sequences of Latin, French, or Spanish, and also, if sufficient numbers of pupils wish to take them, of Chinese and Japanese. Knowledge of these latter languages by a considerable number of American citizens in Hawaii seems to the survey commission to be fully as important to the islands and to many individuals as a knowledge of French or Spanish could possibly be, and the colleges should recognize this and accept them for entrance units on equal terms with the classical and romance languages. The educational leaders in the islands should unite in demanding this of the colleges, and they should direct the students away from those colleges that refuse to accredit these languages and toward those that are willing to do so. The University of Hawaii should take the lead in this movement.

Community civics and civic biology are courses which are of quite recent development, but which have come to be recognized as of very great value. Their general content is somewhat similar, but they differ in their attitude and mode of approach. Both treat of per-

sonal, home, and community health and welfare. Both involve first-hand study by observation of community organization and activities and of public projects and cooperative control for the common good; but community civics approaches these problems more from the sociological, political, and historical standpoints, while civic biology approaches them from the standpoints of the biological and physical sciences. Both are intended to train pupils by observation and practice in cooperation for the common good, but the former appeals more to children who are historically and politically minded, while the latter appeals more to those who are scientifically inclined.

General geography is also a recent development. It means mainly politico-economic geography based on a brief preliminary study of physical and regional geography, considered rather more from the social, commercial, and industrial viewpoint than from the geological and physical viewpoint. It is intended to replace the half year of physiography and the half year of commercial geography which have commonly prevailed in high schools and have been so unsuccessful in arousing and holding interest that they have been replaced by "general science." Our recommendation is that "general science" be pushed down to the seventh and eighth grades and that "general geography" be required of all students in the second year excepting those in the arts preparatory, in which this subject is made optional with ancient and medieval history.

SOLVING THE ENGLISH PROBLEM.

The type of English sequence that is generally in vogue in the States is not suited to the needs of large numbers of the pupils in Hawaiian schools, those who come from non-English-speaking families. For these the English work from the bottom to the top should be changed, and they should be taught in different classes. This is the only way that they and the others also can get equality of opportunity. Their English work from the first grade to the twelfth should consist of much intensive drill work in both oral and written English. There should be much repetition and concert drill on pronunciation and word forms, such as plurals, use of prepositions, verb tenses, relative pronouns, participles, conjunctive adverbs, etc. This drill should not be on grammatical definitions, conjugations, parsing, and analysis as such, but on the use of the proper combinations in the sentences which the pupils use in recitation and in oral and written composition. The literature studied should be of a simpler and more modern character, such as is found by trial to present the strongest possible appeal to the interest and understanding of these pupils. The main requirement is that the literature treat of subjects appealing to minds of greater and greater maturity as it goes up through.

the grades, but always in simple and concrete language. The class study of literature should be intensive, and always mainly directed toward a thorough understanding of the meaning. The test of understanding by the pupils should be their ability to tell in their own words the meaning, implications, and applications of the passage; not so much to recite these to the teacher, but to discuss them with one another with spirit and with thought.

In the higher grades of the high school there should be more study and drill on the use of figures of speech, aimed always toward helping to the understanding and use of the more abstract language in which moral, civic, religious, poetical, and political ideas are expressed. It must never be forgotten that to young people who have not learned it in the home, as we ourselves have learned it, English is a foreign language and we can not teach it to them successfully if we teach it only out of readers in the same way that we teach our own children in school. The latter learn to speak it before they learn to read it. That is the "natural method," and English must be taught to non-English-speaking school children by the natural method, as French and Spanish, and even Latin, ought to be taught to high-school children. This discussion should furnish food for thought for those modern-language teachers who are using the grammar and reader method of teaching those languages almost to the exclusion of the "natural" or conversational method.

The desirability of establishing four-year high-school sequences in manual arts and household arts has come to be very generally recognized, even in quarters where such sequences are not now in operation.

On the other hand, the great educational value of the four-year sequences of music, art, and physical training has not yet come to be so widely recognized, and these are found occupying really important places in the curriculums in only a few of the most progressive city and rural districts.

Art and music courses are very important from the standpoint of giving training in appreciation and in developing the æsthetic side of character. They also tend to develop habits, tastes, and abilities of great value to individuals and groups for the profitable and uplifting enjoyment of leisure hours. Now that laborers and others have more leisure, it is very important that the rising generation be trained in the habits of employing this time constructively and not destructively.

The statistical information as to the physical condition of drafted men which was brought to light during the war has awakened the whole country to the need of universal physical training. The facts thus revealed furnish all the argument that is needed to establish the four-year sequence of physical training as a constant in all high-

school curriculums. Authorities on school hygiene maintain that such a requirement does not interfere with carrying a reasonable burden of intellectual work. On the contrary, they adduce much evidence tending to prove that the students can carry a normal amount of intellectual work, and do it better, in connection with a daily period of physical exercise and training than they can without it. Physical training is vital not only for building a good body, the foundation of all personal efficiency, but also for forming habits and abilities for the useful employment of leisure hours. For further discussion and description of such sequences of music, art, and physical training, readers are referred to the special bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education on those subjects, and also to the report of a survey of *The Public School System of Memphis, Tenn.* (Bulletin, 1919, No. 50, pt. 2).

4. THE TEACHERS.

In such qualities as personality and the type of leadership that secures cheerful obedience and good cooperation from pupils, the high-school teachers of the Territory generally rank well. They will average with those in the better high schools on the mainland. The same may be said as to their scholarship and intellectual abilities.

The best means of judging of the latter qualities, other than by classroom visitations and conference, is that of their records of training and teaching experience. A good scholastic record, together with a record of from 5 to 20 years of experience in good schools, especially in connection with a steady rise in rank and salary, raises a very strong presumption that the teacher who has such a record is more than ordinarily successful and able in school work.

TRAINING OF PUBLIC HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The table which follows shows the distribution of the teachers in the four high schools according to the amount of high-school and college training that they have had. The classification had to be forced slightly in some cases in order not to make too many groups; but the table is accurate enough to show the general trend of the individual facts from which it has been compiled. In this table four years of training beyond elementary school usually means graduation from a standard high school or academy; but it may mean an equivalent taken in a three-year high school and a normal school. Six years beyond elementary school usually would mean the equivalent of four years in high school and two in a standard normal school or college.

The percentage of those holding degrees is seen to be larger in McKinley and Hilo than in Maui and Kauai. The poorer showing

for the two latter schools, however, is more apparent than real, for in the small schools the whole number of teachers is small, and the number of vocational teachers necessary to carry on these types of work is larger in proportion to the whole number of teachers. In general it is the vocational teachers who lack college degrees, though in one of the cases in Maui it is a modern language teacher, with much continental training in languages, and in one of the cases in Hilo it is a competent English teacher with much special training in English but without a complete college course.

Advanced training of public high-school teachers, Hawaii, showing years expended and degrees received.

	McKinley.	Hilo.	Maui.[1]	Kauai.[1]	Total
Ten years or more and master's degree	1	3	0	0	4
Nine years up to 10 and master's degree	4	1	1	0	6
Nine years or more and bachelor's degree	10	2	0	1	13
Eight years up to 9 and bachelor's degree	9	5	3	2	19
Six years up to 8	3	1	1	2	7
Four years up to 6	2	1	1	0	4
Less than 4 years	0	0	0	0	0
Total	29	13	6	5	53
Percentage with 8 or more years' past elementary training and holding degrees	83	85	67	60	79

[1] Including principals.

From this table it is seen that, in training, four-fifths of these teachers rank high among American high-school teachers. The proportion of those holding master's degrees is not so high as in California, where a master's degree is generally required; but it is higher than in the South and in most of the States of the East and Middle West. The teachers who hold no degree are almost without exception commercial or manual arts or household arts teachers. For these branches the supply is far below the demand, and it is exceedingly difficult to get teachers properly trained in these special subjects who are also graduates of standard collegiate institutions. The inference is that the island authorities are holding as strictly as is possible to a high standard of training for their high-school teachers. They can probably do no better unless the salary scale can be placed so far above those in the States that they can attract the best-trained and highest-paid teachers away from the mainland.

The table which follows shows the number of teachers in the high schools that have taught for less than two years, for more than five years, or for periods from two to five years, inclusive. It will be seen at a glance that relatively only few of the teachers are inexperienced, and that a large majority have taught for more than five years. The next table shows the facts in slightly greater detail for McKinley High School only. The two tables show that the policy

is to secure and hold teachers who have experience as well as thorough training. This policy is highly to be commended.

Distribution of public high school teachers by years of experience and schools, Hawaii.

Experience of teachers	McKinley High School.	Hilo High School.[1]	Maui High School.[1]	Kauai High School.[1]	Total.
Less than 2 years	1	1	1	0	3
From 2 to 5 years	7	6	3	2	18
More than 5 years	21	7	3	3	34
Per cent more than 5 years	72.4	50.0	43.0	60.0	61.8

[1] Including principal.

Total experience of teachers by years, McKinley High School, Hawaii.

Experience of teachers	Total elementary and high schools.	In high schools.	In McKinley
0 to 5 years or less	11	16	24
6 to 10 years	3	6	4
11 to 15 years	9	5	0
16 to 20 years	4	1	1
21 to 25 years	0	1	0
Over 25 years	2	0	0
Total number of teachers	29	29	29
Median years of experience	11.6	4.7	3.1

The "median teacher" in McKinley High School has had approximately 12 years' total experience, 5 of which has been in high schools and 3 of which has been in McKinley. This does not mean any one particular individual. It means that for each of the three kinds of experience half the teachers have had the median amount or more and half have had the median amount or less.

Eight of the 24 teachers, who have taught fewer than five years in McKinley, are new to that school this year; and 4 of the 16, who have taught fewer than five years in the high schools, are in their first year of high-school experience. Ten of the 13 teachers in Hilo are new to the school this year. The principal attributes the turnover to dissatisfaction with living conditions.

These facts call attention to one of the serious problems in connection with teachers in the islands. Many of them are birds of passage. They come and go, so that the principals have to assimilate a considerable proportion of new teachers each year. This makes it more difficult for them to maintain a steady school policy. They do surprisingly well, under the circumstances, in maintaining a corps of teachers with unified school aims.

EFFICIENCY OF CLASSROOM WORK.

Since teaching is the supreme function of the school, the most important single task of a survey is to find out how well the teachers are doing their work. For this purpose the major part of the time of one member of the commission was given to actual classroom visitation, in the high schools and private schools. Practically all

the teachers in the high schools were visited by one or another of the commission. The observations made serve to confirm the inferences to be drawn from the teachers' records of training and experience which have been briefly summarized above. The teachers are strong, well poised, and, almost without exception, have good control. In classroom technic and in the responses they get from their pupils, most of them would rank with the average of the teaching force in American cities of 50,000 population and over: while a few would rank as superior teachers, or within the best 25 per cent.

All of them are careful and conscientious in their work so far as observation could determine. All seem to have the confidence and good will of their pupils, who respond with reasonable though not remarkable effort in class work, and with excellent deportment.

The members of the commission did not observe a single case of conduct which merited condemnation. No more dignified and well-mannered pupils can be found anywhere than those of the Hawaiian high schools.

The general and professional scholarship of the teachers is distinctly above the average. Many of them have taken much more training than shows on the face of the preceding tables: for, while not a great proportion have master's degrees, the majority have taken graduate work in summer terms amounting to one, two, or three years beyond that required for a bachelor's degree. Nearly all have had the equivalent of 11 semester hours of college work in psychology and education. Nearly all of them use very good English, which is an indispensable qualification anywhere, though it is not by any means always present. It is a quality that counts tremendously here, on account of the language difficulties of the pupils.

IMPORTANT POINTS IN TEACHING METHOD.

Some general comments and criticisms of a very definite character may be made on the methods used.

1. The recitations are generally too formal, consisting for the most part of questions and answers or topical recitations only, and apparently aimed mainly at finding out whether the pupils have committed to memory the substance of what is to be found in the text. Very few real thought questions are asked, and there is very little free discussion such as would result in original thinking, weighing of evidence, and reaching conclusions through informal debate. On the part of the pupils there is too much reciting to the teacher and not enough talking to the class. The teachers do not as a rule make enough use of visual aids, such as maps, pictures, charts, specimens, lantern slides, and the like. There is too little consulting of reference works with well organized reports to the class on the questions submitted for reference.

The socialized recitation, in which the teacher as it were directs the classroom work from the wings and keeps off the center of the stage and out of the spotlight, is very little used. This form of recitation, in which the pupils elect a chairman and a secretary and carry on a formal parliamentary or an informal round table discussion of debatable questions arising out of the lessons, is very successful in arousing interest and getting independent study and thinking. It has to be handled with skill and careful planning beforehand, however; and the teacher must use good judgment as to when to keep out, just how and when to direct the discussion in order to keep it on the track, and just what and how much to say in summing up and clarifying the discussion at the end. Good coaching of the leaders beforehand also is necessary.

2. Most of the teachers do not carefully distinguish between the kind of subject matter, on the one hand, that calls for the fixing of memory connections or the formation of habits and the acquisition of skill, and the kind on the other hand that involves problems and calls for real thinking. The former kinds of subject matter, such as learning quotations, learning definitions, rules, language inflections and phrases, mathematical processes, writing, typing, etc., call for many repetitions with interest and concentrated attention. In these, therefore, pupils should work in concert drills, all doing or saying the same thing simultaneously, and they should be speeded up as fast as they can go without making too many mistakes. When pupils are called on to recite singly and serially on such material, only the one reciting is interested, and the rest are mentally passive. Hence, if there are 20 in the class, each pupil does one-twentieth of the work he would do if all worked in concert. It is easy for a skilled teacher to pick out the laggards in concert work, and make only these recite singly. He can easily encourage and inspire these slow ones to extra effort in keeping with the rest and avoiding mistakes. If there are many slow ones, the speed should be reduced slightly at first and then gradually increased. Teachers who have not been accustomed to use this type of concert work and speeding up in the memory work of foreign languages, of English grammar and literature, and of mathematics, are not aware of the intense interest and rapid progress that result from well organized and skillfully directed drills of this nature.

With material requiring thought, the procedure must be different. Only one pupil must be called on at one time; and that one must be given opportunity for a short period of reflection. The teacher must not allow other pupils to interrupt or interfere or suggest, until the one called on has had this chance for reflection and for framing his reply. After a brief time has been given, however (good judgment being used not to make it too long or too short), if the pupil called on

does not offer something logical leading toward the solution of the problem, others should be called on singly for suggestions. The pupil should then be given another chance. If he then fails, the question should be passed to another. The teacher should search the material of each lesson for problems. He should also incite the pupils to search for such problems, to ask questions, and to propose questions for discussion. He should frame his questions carefully, so as to bring the essential elements of the problem clearly before the pupils. The question, however, should never suggest the answer, for in that case the pupil does not think. He merely guesses at what is in the teacher's mind.

One of the most common and vicious classroom faults is that of permitting "volley answers" to thought questions. That is, the teacher asks the question of nobody in particular, and several pupils answer at the same time, with little or no reflection. This is quite different from a concert response, where the same thing exactly is to be said or done by all. If the question is so framed as to require any thought, each pupil who answers will say something which is more or less different from what any other pupil says. The result is a confused babel of voices, in which nothing is distinctly heard. The time used then is wholly and utterly lost, for no pupil knows to what extent his answer is right or wrong and no one hears what any-one else has said. These "volley answers" were quite commonly permitted by many of the teachers whose work was observed, and very few of them distinguished in their methods between subject matter calling for drill and subject matter calling for thinking.

3. Teachers should plan every lesson beforehand with care. No matter how familiar one is with his subject, he will do better teaching if he prepares for each lesson a written plan, setting down definite aims for the lesson and a *brief*, or skeleton outline, of the subject matter to be taught, together with concise notes as to particular procedure at each point, the time allotment for each portion of the lesson and the visual aids, references, or other illustrative matter to be used. It is well to set down three or four pivotal questions, to be asked in just the form in which they are written. It is far more important to make the plan than to follow it exactly, but usually it should be followed mainly as it is planned. Having made the plan, the teacher should have it well enough in mind so that it need not be referred to so often as to constitute a barrier between him and the class.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A WELL-PLANNED LESSON.

A well-planned lesson should have the following characteristics:

(*a*) It should enforce good bodily attitudes and clear, distinct grammatical speech from the pupils in reciting.

(*b*) It should have unity and logical sequence and should ordinarily establish logical connection between the lessons preceding and to follow.

(*c*) There should be a wealth of illustrative material to furnish a rich background for the theme.

(*d*) It should be planned to take advantage of every opportunity to help the pupils in the formation of useful habits, in the acquisition of ideals and standards, and in the building up of concepts of method; that is, concepts of the ways in which thinking is done and processes are carried out so as to get the best results in the shortest time with the greatest certainty.

4. A good lesson should afford opportunities for practice in one or more of the following kinds of intellectual work:

Organizing subject matter; judging of relative values; using inductive as well as deductive reasoning; interpreting facts, phenomena, or literature; using knowledge to get other knowledge or to accomplish definite purposes.

5. Some lessons should afford opportunities for the exercise of initiative and the development of tastes and appreciations.

6. The class management should be efficient, so that everything is done in order and in the shortest possible time. This means that some things should be reduced to an automatic routine, the best routine that can be devised. The things that are chosen to be automatized, however, should be relatively few in number. The teacher who reduces all his work to a mechanical routine never teaches his pupils to think.

It is only the exceptional teacher who in his or her lessons habitually considers and provides for many of the opportunities just mentioned. Yet these are the things which every teacher ought to plan for. The teacher who merely hears recitations from a textbook has a very inadequate conception of what teaching really means.

FAULTS OF TEACHING TECHNIQUE.

7. Some mechanical faults in the technique of teaching which are very common elsewhere were observed here, though not so frequently, on the whole, as in most schools of this class. Among the most notable of these are the following:

(*a*) The *false-start* question. The teacher begins the question, hesitates, and begins it again, making sometimes from three to five false starts before getting the question out in a form that is clear and satisfactory. The obvious remedy is to think the question through mentally before beginning to utter it. This bad habit, in general, is not common to teachers who give careful preparation to every lesson before beginning to teach it.

(*b*) The *repeated question*. The teacher states the question in one form, then repeats it in another, and perhaps in a third form, often interrupting a pupil who has begun to answer it. This fault is like the preceding one, but not so bad.

(*c*) The *inverted what* question. The teacher gives the substance of what the pupil shall tell, ending with "was what?" "did what?" "is called what?" etc. The pupil answers with a single word, or at most with a short phrase, which is too often a mere guess. Such a question rarely stimulates thinking or performs any effective function in teaching. This fault is very common even with some otherwise superior teachers.

(*d*) The *blank filling* question. Here again the teacher tells nearly all of what the pupil should be telling, but leaves out a word here and there and pauses for some pupil to supply it. The required word usually is suggested by the context of the question, and practically no knowledge or effort is required to fill the blanks, nothing at most but the lowest type of memory.

(*e*) The *leading* question. This is a kind of question similar to the preceding in that the answer is so strongly suggested that a mentally active pupil can give it correctly without knowing anything about the subject under discussion. It is better to tell a fact or make an explanation outright in a clear and terse statement than to put it into the form of such a series of questions and let the pupils deceive themselves with the idea that they are contributing information on a subject of which they are not informed.

(*f*) The question that can be answered by "yes" or "no." This is another type of vicious question. Like the two preceding types, it allows the pupils to deceive themselves as to their accomplishments. Anyone familiar with the most elementary principles of the doctrine of chance or probability knows that of 100 such questions 50 will be correctly answered by any person knowing nothing of the subject, but merely guessing.

(*g*) The teacher repeats the pupil's answer after him. This is not only useless and tiresome, but is wrong, because it relieves the pupil of the responsibility of framing a good answer and giving it loudly and distinctly enough to be heard by all the class. It also causes the class to pay no attention, because they habitually expect the teacher to repeat the answer so loudly that they will hear without paying attention.

(*h*) The teacher interrupts the pupil or allows other pupils to interrupt him while he is working out his answer, possibly rather too slowly, but is really making good progress, perhaps in a bit of difficult thinking. Interruptions are imperative to correct faulty English, or allowable at times in mathematics or science when a statement is

made without giving the reasons for it; but in other circumstances they are both inconsiderate and pedagogically wrong.

(7) Calling on a pupil first and then stating the question. This allows all the other pupils to sink into a delicious revery or a comatose condition until the next question is asked. If the question is asked first and then a short period is given for reflection, all must attend and reflect, for no one knows who will get the question.

COMMENDABLE FEATURES NOTED.

8. Among the specially good things noted was the strong teaching of arithmetic and bookkeeping in the commercial curriculum in McKinley and Hilo High Schools. The practical effectiveness of the commercial curriculum, however, is seriously limited by the narrow range of commercial studies. The range of studies should be widened as indicated in the suggested commercial curriculum in section 3 of this chapter. Especially "penmanship and spelling" should be dropped out as a formal unit. Spelling should be taught as needed in connection with all other courses and not as a formal course. High-school pupils should not study spelling as a subject per se, but should learn to spell the words they have to write. Their time should not be wasted on learning spelling of words that people generally never write. The time taken for spelling would far better be spent in practicing them in the habit of using a dictionary for all words with which they are not familiar, as these words come up in connection with their studies. They should be trained to get not only the spelling of each new or unfamiliar word, but also the different uses and shades of meaning, and the synonyms and antonyms of the word.

Daily formal practice in penmanship is a waste of time when the pupils write as well as most of the pupils in the Hawaiian public schools write. Eighty or ninety per cent of them write as well as anybody needs to write for any purpose, and any further practice with such pupils is liable to make them go stale and lose form rather than approach closer to perfection. Those pupils who are deficient in penmanship should be given special drills until brought up to a passable standard for office work, but those who have reached that standard[1] should have their time occupied with learning things that they need to learn.[2] Such, in the case of the orientals, is English, more English, and still more English. This study would be much facilitated by beginning shorthand and typewriting in the first year, as designated in the suggested curriculum, so as to get to the taking of

[1] That is, say, from Quality 14 to Quality 16 on the Thorndike scale of handwriting, with a speed of 90 letters per minute.

[2] They should, however, be held up to the standard in all the written work that they are required to hand in.

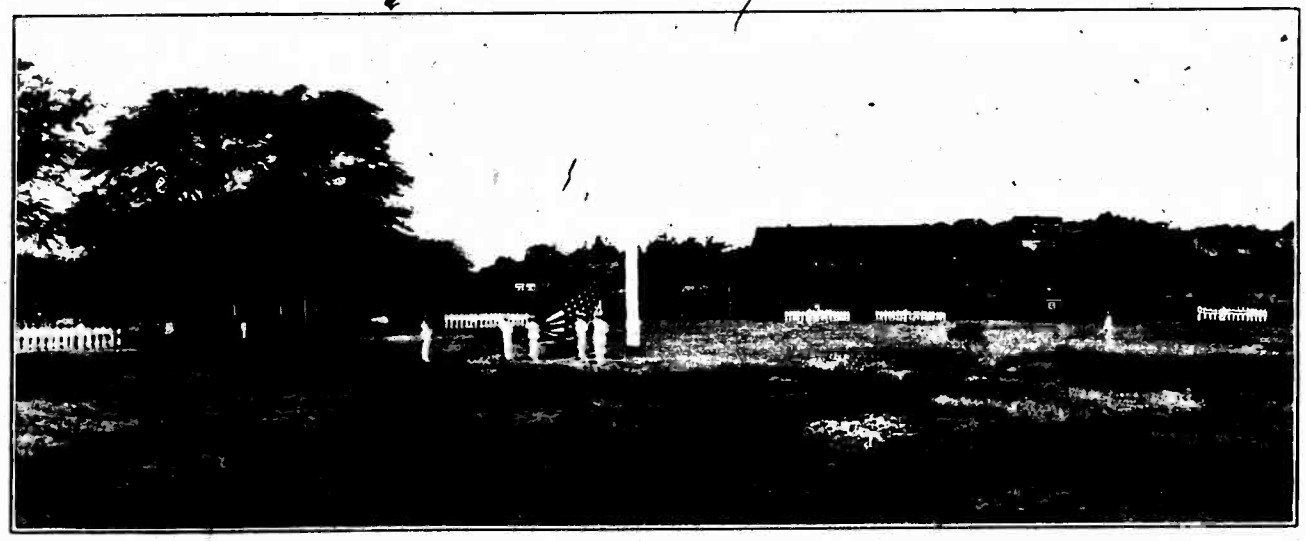
dictation and the typing of letters as soon as possible. Pupils should be encouraged to dictate letters to each other and then subject the letter, when typed, to their joint criticism.

9. Another specially good feature seen in the McKinley High School was the assignment of commercial exhibit projects in the teaching of chemistry. Each pupil in chemistry during the year works up an exhibit card displaying samples and pictures illustrating some commercial raw material and the different stages and processes through which this passes on its way toward becoming finished products. The various uses of the finished product are also illustrated. Each display card is worked up in as artistic a manner as is consistent with clear exposition of consecutive stages and processes, and the individual taste and initiative of the maker determine the exact form that it takes. Accompanying each card is a carefully compiled and usually well-written report or essay, accompanied by a brief bibliography, and describing the source of the raw material, how it is grown or mined or otherwise obtained, the processes it goes through, including especially the chemical technology, and something of the character and extent of its use. These projects showed that much initiative had been called out and much practice given in getting, organizing, and using knowledge, and also that much interest had been aroused. The projects included such subjects as leather, explosives, cotton, sugar, rubber, steel, chocolate, silk, copper, dyes, and so on. The possibilities for work of this valuable sort in subjects other than chemistry have been very little exploited in these schools and might be developed in English, history, biology, geography, and other subjects with very great advantage. In fact, the more the teacher can throw his assignments into the form of a problem or a project the more thinking and first-hand study he will get and the greater and more lasting will be the interest aroused in the subject.

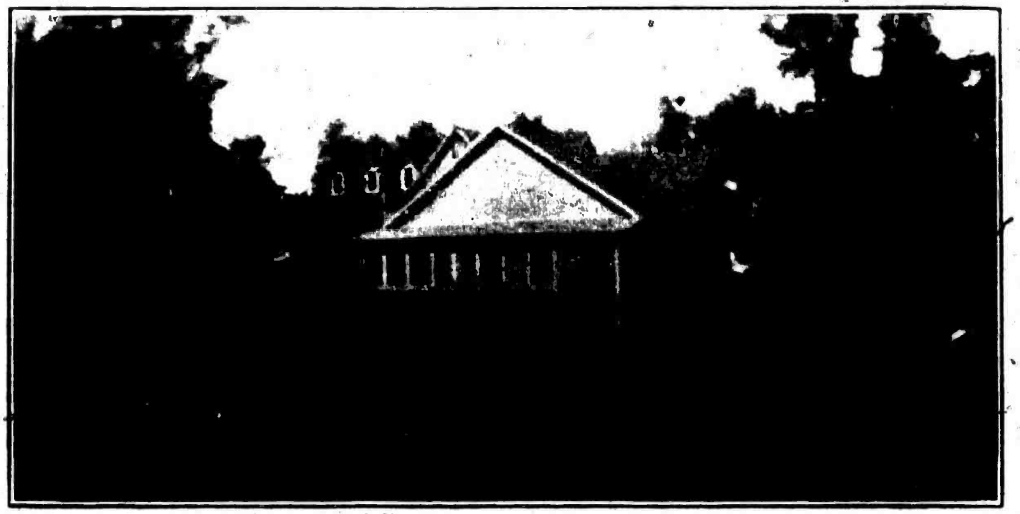
10. The discussion of how such problems and projects may be used in the different subjects, what should be drilled on and how to conduct the drills, and how to eliminate habitual faults of teaching, might well occupy the time of one or two teachers' meetings a month in each high school for a year. Many teachers read pedagogical books but do not apply to their instruction what they find in them. Such meetings and discussions would help the teachers in making the application of the pedagogical principles which they are reading in these books.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

Two principal factors induce good teachers to stay in a community, (1) a salary that will afford a reasonable scale of living, with a margin of savings, and (2) fair and considerate treatment professionally



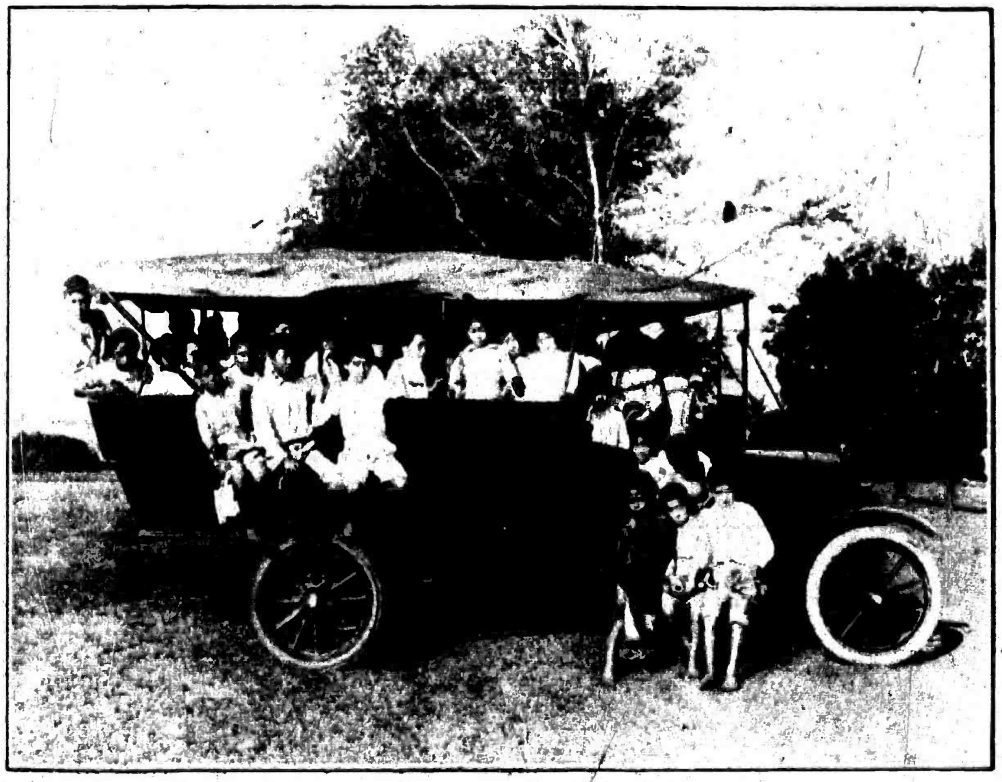
HONOLULU MILITARY ACADEMY.



HAWAIIAN GIRLS' SCHOOL, KOHALA, ISLAND OF HAWAII.

BALDWIN HALL, MAUNAOLU SEMINARY.

WASH DAY AT MILLER STREET KINDERGARTEN.



HONOMAKAU SCHOOL BUS, WEST HAWAII.

GATHERING PAPAYAS AT MAUNAOLU SEMINARY.

A SWIMMING PARTY OF MAUNAOLU GIRLS.

by the school administrators and socially by the community at large. As to salaries paid high-school teachers, the following table gives more information than a statement of average salary per school would give. It shows a good distribution with no extremely low salaries and no great proporttion of the teachers bunched in the highest salaried classes.

Distribution of teachers by salaries.[1]

Salaries	McKinley High School.	Hilo.	Maui.	Kauai.	Total.
Less than $1,200	0	0	0	0	0
$1,200-$1,299	0	1	3	1	5
$1,300-$1,399	3	3	0	0	6
$1,400-$1,499	4	3	2	0	9
$1,500-$1,599	3	1	1	3	8
$1,600-$1,699	5	3	0	2	10
$1,700-$1,799	0	0	0	0	0
$1,800-$1,899	3	0	0	0	3
$1,900-$1,999	2	2	0	0	4
$2,000-$2,099	0	0	1	0	1
$2,100-$2,199	8	1	0	0	9
$2,200-$2,299	1	0	0	0	1
$2,300 and over	0	0	0	0	0
Total number	29	11	7	6	56
Medians	$1,680	$1,500	$1,320	$1,560	$1,600
Principals	$3,600	$3,300	$3,300	$3,300	.....

[1] Salaries paid in 12 installments.

If a dollar would buy as much of the comforts and necessities of life as it did buy six years ago, the pay roll would be a fair one. As compared with those of other cities now, it does not look bad. Yet we must remember that, in all of our cities excepting a very few, teachers have been notoriously underpaid in comparison with people of like attainments in other callings. Under present conditions they are leaving the profession for better paid occupations; and seats in the normal school classes on the mainland are going begging. There is an alarming scarcity of teachers now, and the condition is growing worse all the time. In view of this situation it is probable that unless teachers' salaries are raised everywhere in something approaching to the ratio of the increased cost of living the competition among cities in bidding for the few able teachers who remain in the profession will be very sharp. Hence, those cities which make early and very material advances in their salary scales will be the ones who can get and hold the few well qualified teachers.

The present salary scale for high-school teachers begins at $110 per month for 12 months, or $1,320 per year, and increases $10 per month, or $120 per year for each year of service, until the eighth year, when the salary becomes $180 per month, or $2,160. There are no further increases.

This scale is faulty for the reason that it takes no account of differences in ability, training, and professional growth. It is well known

that mere length of service does not necessarily make a teacher more efficient, although a just and wise educational policy should give substantial recognition for long and conscientious service. While, therefore, there should be steady automatic increases for length of service, the scale should be so constructed that special recognition can be earned by teachers of manifestly superior initiative, industry, teaching power, and skill. Also there should be definite and well-defined opportunities for gaining additional salary through steady and purposeful efforts toward professional growth. On the other hand there should be points where increases are automatically halted unless the individual is actually growing in efficiency, power, and zeal with his years of service. These desirable features can be obtained through a careful scheme of classification of teachers, with formal promotions from one class to the next higher class based on efficiency and professional growth.

SUGGESTED SALARY SCHEDULE.

The following is submitted for consideration as a scale embodying these principles, and adapted to island conditions at the present time. It calls for higher salaries than those now being paid: but even so, in view of the present high costs, it is set too low. However, it is better to recommend something that will have some chance of adoption, with a view to an even percentage advance when this can be carried. It should be remembered that it takes about $2,000 now to buy what $1,000 would buy six years ago.

CLASS I.

Minimum training.—4 years' high school or equivalent; 4 years' standard college or university or 4 years' normal, with degree or diploma; 11 semester hours training in psychology and education, including a course in the teaching of the major subject.

Minimum experience—2 years, at least one of which shall be in a standard high school, with written testimony of success from each of two reliable and competent judges of teaching, based on personal knowledge of the applicant and his or her work.

Salary, first year, $1,440; second year, $1,560; third year, $1,680.

Annual appointments in this class.

CLASS II.

Promotion to class II in recognition of ability, success, and steady professional growth involving special study and credits earned toward a master's degree.

Salary, first year, $1,800; second year, $1,920.

Appointments in this class for an indefinite period, not subject to annual reaffirmation but with the understanding that a return to annual appointments may be made in the case of any individual who is not giving thorough satisfaction or who ceases to grow professionally.

CLASS III.

Promotions to this class in recognition of marked success and the attainment of a master's degree or other substantial evidence of advanced scholarship, together with evidence of special initiative in methods, authorship, or other contributions of a definite nature to the local school or community or to educational theory or practice.

Salary, first year, $2,040; second year, $2,180; third year, $2,300.

Appointments in this class permanent, and removal only for proved cause.

CLASS IV.

Promotions to this class in recognition of conspicuous ability and scholarship and special usefulness to the system, together with long and faithful service. Consideration to be given to productive scholarship and the earning of a doctor's degree.

Salary, first year, $2,400; second year, $2,540.

Appointments permanent in this class, automatic raises in salary cease after second year, but further raises may be made by special decision in case of assumption of extra work or responsibility, or for the purpose of holding in the system an especially valuable person. Vice principals and heads of departments will ordinarily be chosen from this class.

Teachers of experience and recognized success may be placed in advanced classes according to their training and professional records, but the first appointment will be for one year only. After the first appointment in Class II, III, or IV, appointment will be indefinite or permanent, according to the class in which the teacher is placed.

In the case of commercial, manual training, or other special teachers not holding a regular college degree assignments or promotions to advanced classes will be made only when such teachers show marked ability and enterprise in their special lines and also are making progress in college work toward the attainment of a degree.

In case the University of Hawaii establishes a department of education with practice teaching in connection with the McKinley High School, graduates of this department with the qualifications of Class I, excepting that of two years' experience, may be appointed to a probationary class, with a salary for the first year of $1,080 and for the second year $1,200, after which they may be regularly assigned to Class I, beginning at $1,440.

Besides a better salary scale, if the annual turnover of high-school teachers is to be reduced, better living conditions must be provided for them. In Memphis, Tenn., the best homes in the city are opened to receive high-school teachers coming from other cities and in want of homelike places in which to live. Ample opportunities for social contact were afforded them without compelling them to adopt a scale of living beyond their means. A similar attitude on the part of home owners in Honolulu would go far toward the solution of the turnover problem. The Territory could do no single thing that would

contribute more potently toward building up a permanent and happy teaching staff than to establish cottages and apartment houses to be rented to teachers at rates slightly above cost. Until the Territory is in a position to do this there could be no more far-reaching opportunity for private philanthropy than that of undertaking such a project.

A TEACHERS' BUREAU NEEDED.

Another plan, which would help the private schools as well as the public schools, is here suggested. Let a law be passed making provision for the establishment in the department of public instruction of a free teachers' bureau. This should be made a separate division within the department, with a budget provision of its own, subject to the approval of the superintendent, who should have power to appoint and direct the official in charge. This bureau should carry on a publicity program in the States and in the islands, so as to place its service within the knowledge of teachers everywhere. It should publish and send free to teachers, on application, a bulletin describing the kinds of teaching opportunities within the islands and detailing the circumstances and living conditions for teachers in the various types of schools and localities. A nominal registration fee of one or two dollars should be charged, but no commissions or other compensation for the bureau's services should be exacted. Teachers having the required qualifications for positions of the various kinds should be invited to register with this bureau, filling out a blank designed to secure all needed information about them in detail, including cable address and information as to when their services would be available. It might be wise also to provide in the salary offer for the first year for an equalization of the increased traveling expense of reaching the islands from the more distant States, as compared with the States on the coast. Such a bureau intelligently conducted would be worth many times its cost to the school system of the islands.

As a further contribution to the solution of the problem of teacher supply, we recommend the establishment of a completely organized school of education in the University of Hawaii, with courses for the training of teachers for kindergartens, elementary schools, and high schools. Teachers training for high-school work should be given courses in the principles of high-school teaching and administration as well as in psychology, and should also take a course of observation and practice teaching in the McKinley High School or in private schools of Honolulu, under the direction of a supervising professor who is a specialist in secondary education. This department should not only take care of prospective high-school teachers whose homes are in the islands, but should also

offer graduate work for teachers in service, to be taken on Saturdays and after school hours, and leading to the master's or doctor's degrees. Such cooperation between the college and the high schools as is recommended here would redound greatly to the benefit of both parties in increasing their influence and usefulness.

5. ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND SUPERVISION.

A satisfactory organization for a high school of the size of McKinley or of Hilo should include a stenographer, clerk, and a woman assistant principal. In another year or two McKinley will have reached an enrollment necessitating a man assistant also.

The principal should have a great deal of time free for the shaping of school policies, for supervision of classroom work and for educational leadership of the teaching force. The mechanical work of keeping the school records up to date, getting out notices, circulars, and letters, and other work of such character can be done and should be done by a clerk. The principal should be regarded in the same light as the manager of a large business, and it is very poor economy to take the time of an expert for minor clerical work. Neither should such work be exacted of teachers. A woman assistant principal is needed in every high school to deal with girls in matters of discipline and confidence, just as a dean of women is needed in a college. The position should be given to the broadest minded, most sympathetic, and able woman who can be secured for it. The man assistant should be a school man of conspicuous ability, capable of handling the school in the absence of the principal, and of handling cases of adjustment and discipline. The direction of student extra-curricular activities should be delegated largely to the assistant principals; and they should also assist the principal in the leadership of departmental teachers' meetings and professional study as well as in devising and carrying out educational tests and measurements.

A prominent defect in the organization of McKinley High School is the very small proportion of men teachers; only 6 out of a staff of 30 are men. A high-school teaching staff should include about equal numbers of men and women. It is therefore recommended that in filling future vacancies every possible effort be made to secure men for the positions until the numbers of men and of women are approximately equalized.

FUNCTIONS OF A HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL.

Classroom supervision by the principal should be one of the most important functions in the school. The principal should plan out needed improvements in the technique of teaching and should direct, and inspire the teachers individually and collectively in putting

modern educational theories into actual practice. He should get out bulletins from time to time explaining the best practices in other schools and submit these to the teachers for study and discussion. He should organize the teachers into committees for the selection of textbooks and the progressive revision of the content and organization of the different courses of study. He should discuss school policies with the teachers and secure their cooperation through a consensus of their judgment after study and discussion rather than by laying down the policies ready-made for them to carry out. He should visit the classrooms frequently, note points of excellence and success and also such faults in method and technique as have been mentioned in the preceding section of this chapter. These he should discuss with the teachers individually. He should encourage teachers who are doing some kinds of work of particular excellence to explain and demonstrate these to all the teachers at teachers' meetings, and he should also call up for discussion technical faults that are common in the school and encourage teachers in devising plans for eliminating them from their school practice. He should stimulate intervisitation of classes by teachers in the same general lines of work in order that they may learn one from another and gain an insight into one another's work. Finally, he should promote meetings in which the teachers of different subjects are to explain the educational values of their subjects and their functions, relations, and correlations in the curriculum.

In order to do all this he must be a constant student of the problems of secondary education and the psychology of teaching, as well as the organizer and manager of the school. With all this in mind it should be clear to anyone that the principal of a school as large as the McKinley High School should have the help of a full-time clerk in the office and one or two assistant principals. The assistant principals should teach one or two classes a day each, and both should not be engaged in the classroom work at the same time. It would be advisable in order that he keep himself in close sympathy with the teachers and their problems that the principal also teach one class daily. This is another reason why the organization should provide for the clerk and assistants.

PUPILS GROUPED ACCORDING TO ABILITY IN ENGLISH.

Attention has already been drawn to the difficulties growing out of the fact that such a large proportion of the pupils in the high schools come from families in which English is not spoken. It has been recommended by the commission that in the study of English, at least in the two larger high schools, where the large number of pupils makes it easily feasible, that the pupils who speak English

fluently be separated from the others and that the latter be given a different type of English study. It is believed by the members of the commission that this principle ought to be carried out to the full extent that it is feasible without making too many small classes, and we therefore recommend that a similar segregation be made in all subjects excepting American history and civics.

The plan would be to divide the pupils of each grade and subject into three sections—the fast section, the medium section, and the slow section. Pupils should be assigned to the three sections according to their ability to get on in the subject. The fast section should be given more and harder work than the medium section and the slow section less and easier work, involving more drill in the subject and more attention to correct expression in English. In case there are not enough pupils to make three sections, two should be made, one for the most proficient pupils and a second for all the others. Such a plan of segregation would help in all subjects and would go far toward removing the objections of English-speaking families to sending their children to the public schools. If the distribution among groups were made wholly on the basis of ability to get on rapid and successfully with the work, there would be no ground for any feeling of discrimination.

The reason for not making the same divisions in American history and civics should be evident. In these subjects the children of all the other national descents should have the opportunity for contact and discussion on questions of American history and civic ideals with the children of American parents. That they should have this contact in discussion with children who have had the habit of looking at things in general from the American standpoint since their babyhood seems perfectly obvious. It seems plain also that contact on this basis will be equally good for the children of American and Anglo-Saxon parentage in order that they may get the other racial points of view in this field, for all these diverse racial elements must meet outside the school and in the industries and business of life on the common ground of democratic citizenship: and a spirit of tolerance and mutual good will must prevail in the interest of peace and their common safety.

In all the public high schools the length of the school year is 38 weeks. This is above the minimum standard and approximately the best length. The recitation periods in McKinley and Kauai are of the standard length of 45 minutes each. In Hilo they are 43 minutes, conforming to the minimum North Central Association standard of "40 minutes in the clear." In Maui they are reported shorter than this minimum standard, and should be lengthened to 45 or at least 43 minutes.

SIZE OF HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSES.

An important factor in an efficient and economical high-school organization is a fair approximation to a distribution of about 25 pupils per recitation section. The best size for a section in most cases is between 20 and 25 pupils. In subjects that consist largely of drill and practice work, such as music, athletics, penmanship, shorthand, typewriting, mental arithmetic, and the like, sections of from 30 to 40 can be handled by a skillful teacher just as easily and with as good results as small ones. In algebra a section of 28 or 30 is not too large for an exceptionally strong teacher to handle, but in most other subjects from 23 to 27 is the best size for a good compromise between efficiency and economy. Sections with fewer than 15 are very expensive. They make the tuition cost per pupil in them very high as compared with sections of normal size, and they necessitate the loading up of other sections to an abnormal size. This gives an unfair distribution of public funds to the advantage of the pupils in the small classes and to the disadvantage of pupils in the large classes. The following table shows the distribution of sections by sizes in the four public high schools:

Distribution of recitation sections by numbers of pupils enrolled in them, public high schools, Hawaii.

Number of pupils.	Number of sections of each size.			
	McKinley	Hilo	Kauai	Maui
5 or fewer	0	0	12	8
6 to 10	2	5	8	4
11 to 15	0	12	3	11
16 to 20	0	23	3	6
21 to 25	8	15	1	0
26 to 30	85	9	1	1
31 to 35	53	2	0	0
36 to 40	2	1	0	1
41 and over	9	0	0	1
Total classes	159	67	28	32

It will be seen that in Kauai there are no oversized classes, but that 20 out of 28 are abnormally small, producing a high per capita cost for tuition. In Maui, 12 out of 32 are abnormally small, and 2 are over the maximum standard in size.

Hilo has 17 small classes out of a total of 67, and 5 of these are very small. Only 3 out of the 67 are oversized.

In McKinley, however, while there are only 2 undersized classes, about a third of the 159 classes are abnormally large. It is clear that McKinley needs at least one, and probably two additional teachers.

The North Central Association standard for the ratio of pupils to teachers for the whole school is 25 to 1. For efficiency in teaching it can not go much above this, and for economy it should not be much

below this. The status of the schools with reference to this ratio is as follows: McKinley, 26.6; Hilo, 22.5; Maui, 14.5; and Kauai, 17.3.

McKinley ranks first in approximating the standard ratio, and is slightly above it. Hilo is nearly as close, but a little more below than McKinley is above, while Kauai and Maui are considerably below, with the consequent loss of economy that is inevitable in a small school giving a suitable variety of work. The small school can sometimes keep the ratio down by combining classes and alternating subjects where the classes are small. For example, in Latin a four-year sequence of courses can be given in three classes, one in first-year Latin, one in second-year Latin, and a third alternately in third or in fourth year Latin. That is, Cicero would be read by the juniors and seniors together in, say, the odd-numbered years and Virgil by juniors and seniors together in the even-numbered years. Third and fourth year English, or modern foreign language, or physics and chemistry, and some other subjects can be alternated in a similar way in any school where the combination of the two classes will not cause an enrollment of more than 28 or 30 pupils. This plan is recommended for consideration in connection with the two smaller schools. It may be possible through its use to do away with a number of the small recitation sections, and make for greater economy without loss of efficiency.

POPULARITY OF DIFFERENT CURRICULUMS.

The distribution of boys and girls in the different curriculums in the three high schools from which data were obtained, December, 1919, is shown in the table which follows:

Enrollment by sexes, grades, and curriculums.

Grades	College preparatory.			Commercial.			General.			All curriculums.		
	Boys.	Girls	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys	Girls.	Total.
McKinley												
Ninth	90	35	125	100	57	157	64	22	86	254	114	365
Tenth	36	17	53	73	32	105	21	9	30	130	58	188
Eleventh	43	9	52	39	15	54	22	5	[1]27	104	29	133
Twelfth	18	2	20	25	6	31	9	4	13	52	12	64
Total	187	63	250	237	110	347	116	40	156	540	213	753
Hilo												
Ninth	21	7	28	39	13	52	9	39	48	69	59	128
Tenth	18	7	25	25	4	29	.....	10	10	43	21	64
Eleventh	17	8	25	18	3	21	3	4	7	38	15	53
Twelfth	11	1	12	15	5	20	2	6	8	28	12	40
Total	67	23	90	97	25	122	14	59	73	178	107	285
Kauai												
Ninth	9	.....	9	9	.....	9	1	6	7	19	6	25
Tenth	6	2	8	3	1	4	1	2	3	10	5	15
Eleventh	2	.....	2	3	.....	3	.....	1	1	5	1	6
Twelfth	1	1	2	3	.....	3	.....	2	2	4	3	7
Total	18	3	21	18	1	19	2	11	13	38	15	53

[1] Two eleventh-grade girls are taking "special courses."

The noteworthy fact shown by this distribution is the popularity of the commercial work, in spite of the fact that the curriculum is narrow and poorly put together. The commercial pupils not only make up the largest number in the two city schools; but also the numbers of both boys and girls who are in the senior class in this curriculum, with the exception of the boys in Hilo, are higher in proportion to the whole number of seniors in the other curriculums. This indicates a clear need for developing strong and broad commercial and industrial curriculums, as recommended in section 3 of this chapter. Since the boys and girls are both entering the commercial curriculum in large numbers and seem to be sticking to it better, this leads to the inference that there is a strong and increasing demand for good commercial training. Probably if an industrial curriculum had as good an opportunity to demonstrate a demand for this kind of training, it would show results equally interesting. At any rate, we believe that such a curriculum should be offered and the corresponding enrollment and interest should be closely observed.

6. LIBRARY FACILITIES.

The library at McKinley High School contains a very creditable assortment of books, especially in the lines of general reference, history, civics and politics, general literature, and fiction. It is deficient from the standpoint of good balance in modern geology, geography, and travel, in science and elementary works on industrial technology and agriculture, and is especially weak in the line of vocational literature. The library is not catalogued as it should be, and there is no regular librarian. There should be a librarian who is a trained teacher first and a trained librarian second. Both kinds of training are essential. She should be in the library all of every school day and should cooperate with all the teachers in teaching the pupils the intelligent use of the library and instructing them in reference work.

It is a pleasure to testify to the fact that the principal of the high school and the librarians of the library of Hawaii are in complete and harmonious agreement on the proposition of cooperation between the department of public instruction and the Territorial library whereby a trained teacher-librarian may be supported in the school at the joint expense of the commissioners of public instruction and the library board. It is strongly recommended that this plan be put in operation.

In the other public high schools of the Territory creditable beginnings have been made in assembling books and magazines needed in school work, but this equipment needs to be greatly augmented.

Furthermore, in some of the schools the usefulness of the material is impaired because it has been placed in cramped and unsuitable quarters.

Another splendid plan of cooperation that is now maturing by the school commissioners and the library board is to include participation of the librarians in the summer school for teachers. It is proposed by the librarians to give courses to teachers in library science and economy, and in the methods of conducting reference work with pupils, and in story-telling. This plan ought by all means to be carried out, as it will be of great benefit to the schools and afford the library one of the best possible means of spreading its influence and service.

In concluding this part of the report it is a pleasure to testify to the splendid management, high efficiency, and unselfish zeal for service that characterize the administration of the library of Hawaii. It is an institution of which all citizens of the Territory may well be proud.

7. BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The high-school buildings are very unsatisfactory and would be so even were they not overcrowded, as in the cases of both McKinley and Hilo. In both these schools the layout of the rooms is inconvenient and unsuitable almost to the point of absurdity, the lighting conditions are very bad indeed; the stairways are dangerous because of the narrow treads and high risers. The windows are all too short and too scattered. In many rooms they are improperly placed, giving rise to serious cross shadows; in no case is the standard requirement fulfilled that the length of the windows shall equal half the width of the room. Furthermore, most of the rooms are too large, and some are too small. The principal's offices in both McKinley and Hilo are so small, so inconvenient, and so ill supplied with decent office furniture as almost to be an affront to the dignity of the men who are forced to occupy them. Hilo has no library room and the library books are kept in a poorly lighted hall.

The school authorities are not so much to blame for these conditions as they might be, for the school population has grown so fast that building programs have not been able to keep pace with it; and these buildings are heirlooms from a former time when not so much was known about what an adequate high-school plant should be like. The department of public instruction is fully aware of these facts and is planning new buildings for three of the four high schools. All that is necessary is that the public be awakened to the facts, and that adequate measures be taken to provide the funds to carry out the program as it has been planned.

THE LIGHTING OF McKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL.

The lighting situation at McKinley ought to be something of an awakener. Upon request Mr. Greenly, the teacher of biology in the McKinley High School, kindly enlisted his class in making a survey of the lighting conditions of the McKinley Building. The measurements were taken by the class and tabulated for every room according to directions given. The tabulated data furnished and verified by Mr. Greenly were analyzed, and the following arrays of facts were extracted from them:

Lighting conditions, McKinley High School.

Rooms distributed according to ratios of length of window to width of room.

Ratios	Rooms
Less than ⅓	3
⅓ up to ½	[illegible]
½ to ⅔	11
⅔ to ¾	0
¾ or over	3
Total	29

Classrooms distributed according to directions from which pupils receive the light from windows.

Directions.	Rooms.
Left only	10
Left and rear	5
Rear only	1
Right only	1
Right and rear	1
Right and left	2
Right, left, and rear	1
Front only	1
Total	25

Rooms distributed according to ratios of clear glass window area to floor area.

Ratios	Rooms
0.05 up to 0.07	2
0.07 up to 0.09	1
0.09 up to 0.11	1
0.11 up to 0.13	0
0.13 up to 0.15	3
0.15 up to 0.17	0
0.17 up to 0.19	5
0.19 up to 0.21	2
0.21 up to 0.23	3
0.23 up to 0.25	3
0.25 up to 0.27	2
0.27 and over	1
Total	21

BUILDING STANDARDS.

The standard for proper area for the admission of light is that the clear glass window area shall be not less than 25 per cent of the floor area where outside light is not good, as in smoky or cloudy cities; not less than 20 per cent for cities where the light is medium; and not less than 16⅔ per cent under any circumstances, even where the light is always good. The latter might suffice for the Hawaiian Islands where heavy shade trees are not too close to the buildings, as they frequently are, or where no building wall or tree is nearer to the windows than a distance equal to twice the height of the obstruction, but it is better to have more than is needed on bright days in order to have enough on dark, cloudy days. It is seen from the table that 12 of the 29 rooms, or nearly half, are distinctly below

the lowest standard, 6 are slightly above the lowest standard, 5 are near the medium standard, 5 are near the high standard, and 1, the chemical laboratory, is well above it. In none of the rooms do the windows reach to or within 6 inches of the ceiling, as they should.

Another imperative standard of good lighting which is violated here and in most of the school buildings of the islands is that the length of the windows should be at least one-half the width of the room. The table shows that this is true in McKinley for only 3 rooms out of the 29. In all the others the windows are too short or the rooms are too wide or both. The three rooms which have ratios above the standard are not classrooms. They are the office and the boys' and girls' dressing rooms. These and the office are omitted from the next table. When the table giving the direction from which the pupils receive the light is examined the conditions are found likewise to be bad. The light should be received from the left only. This is true of only 10 out of the 29 rooms, and most of these are bungalow rooms, which get enough light from the wide open doors at the right to make bad cross shadows on the papers and the books of the pupils while they are studying, reading, or writing. The lighting conditions in this school are thus seen to be very bad, and they are made still worse in some rooms by the opaque blinds, which cut off from a third to one-half of the light that should come in. The windows in all school buildings should conform to the standards quoted above, and when the light is too strong it should be diffused by means of semitransparent amber-colored adjustable shades of the Draper type.

INADEQUACY OF EQUIPMENT.

The auditorium in McKinley is used for a study room, but it is totally unfit for that purpose. It has the double seats of the New England country school of 50 years ago—long since junked in the rural schools of progressive communities. Eight rows, or 48 of these double seats, are back of the rearmost windows and get no light excepting diagonally from the front, and some scanty light from the hall. Even in the front part of this room the light is from both sides, and the cross shadows are very bad. If this building is ever to be used for a school after McKinley leaves it for its projected new buildings, it should be thoroughly reconstructed and made hygienic before it is occupied.

The equipment of McKinley is very inadequate excepting in chemistry, for which the equipment is nearly sufficient in kind and character for present needs. Many conveniences of a modern school chemical laboratory, however, are lacking.

The physics room is too small and the tables are of poor design, while the apparatus is mostly out of date, and in very bad and neglected condition, and is stored in a room away from where it is to be used, but where it is exposed to the fumes from the chemical laboratory. No system of order is evident in the manner in which the apparatus is stored and kept.

The biology room is too small and the light arrangement is bad. There is a fair equipment of apparatus, including 30 good microscopes.

There is a domestic-science kitchen with spaces for 18 pupils but having few of the modern conveniences.

The business department equipment consists of 35 typewriting machines. There are none other of the modern office conveniences or appliances which now constitute an important part of the equipment of our best commercial high-school courses.

The map equipment is far below par, and more good maps are needed in many departments. There are about 6 good maps in the school and about 17 good charts (Tabulae Cybulski) for use in the first and second years of the Latin course. There should be a full set each of physical maps, political maps, historical maps, and a generous assortment of "blackboard" outline maps. An effort should be made also through the coming years to collect an assortment of pictures of educative and artistic value for the decoration of the walls.

There is no art equipment and no definite courses or sequence of courses are given in free-hand drawing, color, and design. Neither is there any equipment for manual training.

The Hilo High School building is worse than the McKinley building. The equipment for physics is much better than that of McKinley, is better arranged and has received better care. For chemistry there is not enough space or equipment for the number of pupils in the class. The biology equipment is not yet adequate. Orders have been placed for additional biological and physical apparatus, but they have not yet been secured. The laboratories are crowded and ill-arranged. The school has a limited equipment for woodworking.

It is clear from what has been said that there is urgent need for the new buildings and grounds that are being planned for the high schools. In connection with working out the details for the buildings and equipment, it is recommended that those concerned make a careful study of the best references on the subject. Among these the following are likely to be especially useful:

Dresslar, F. B. American Schoolhouses. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1910.

Bliss, D. C. Methods and Standards for a Local School Survey. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Twiss, G. R. The Principles of Science Teaching. Macmillan & Co., New York. 1917.

PLANS FOR NEW HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

The writer has examined the sketches for the McKinley High School layout and conferred with the architect and Principal Givens concerning the plans. The plans provide for a campus of 14 acres and a 10-acre athletic field, with grouped buildings connected by cloistered walks. Fifty thousand dollars have been appropriated for the purchase and preparation of the grounds and $90,000 for the first building. Other buildings will be added later, as appropriations are secured. It is gratifying to be able to say that the proposed plans as described by the architects and principal are both excellent and comprehensive. The writer was told that in the plans, when completed, practically all the points of special importance with reference to school hygiene, educational facilities, and administrative conveniences about which special inquiry was made would be provided for. If the plans are carried out as indicated, the new high school buildings will be a source of pride and satisfaction to the Territory for years to come. It remains for the people and the legislature to put this big project across and make it complete and creditable in all its details.

Chapter VII.

THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII.

CONTENTS.—1. Public high-school system: College entrance subjects; private preparatory schools; colleges attended by secondary school graduates. 2. Higher education in Hawaii: Relation of university to Federal and Territorial Governments; organization and administration; internal administration; internal reorganization needed; equipment; training and experience of faculty; remuneration, relations, and work of faculty; proposed faculty expansion; new departments; student attendance and racial distribution; entrance requirements; special students; students' term load; the graduates; income and costs. 3. Development of a University of Hawaii: Graduate and professional schools; need for training teachers for high schools; research functions; service to the community; reporting to constituency. 4. Summary of recommendations.

1. THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The Territory of Hawaii has four public high schools: McKinley High School, at Honolulu, with 771 students; Hilo High School, at Hilo, on Hawaii, with 292 students; the high school at Hamakuapoko, on Maui, with 73 students; the high school at Lihue, on Kauai, with 58 students. About one-third of all the high-school students in the Territory are registered in the college-entrance curriculum. In all these schools, except the high school on Maui, the great majority of the students come from non-English-speaking families.

The program of studies as prescribed by the department of public instruction, provides for three curriculums in the Territorial high schools: A college-entrance curriculum, a commercial curriculum, and a general curriculum. Each of the four high schools offers the three curriculums except that no commercial work is offered at Hamakuapoko. The college-entrance curriculum, as outlined by the department of public instruction, is ample to secure entrance at the vast majority of colleges accepting students on the certificate plan. In most cases the subjects thus prescribed are actually offered at the various high schools. However, the actual subject requirements made by the high schools for prospective college entrants is in some cases less than the amount required for entrance to certain colleges and less than the amount actually offered in the school. Hence the student enrolled in the college-entrance curriculum is not always required to take the full amount of work in certain subjects necessary for matriculation at the college of his choice, although the work is usually offered and may be, in some cases, elected voluntarily by the student.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE SUBJECTS.

ENGLISH.

The completion of a four-year course in English, covering the standard college-entrance requirements, is a requisite for graduation for students in the college-entrance curriculum at each of the four high schools. In this particular there is no variation from the generally accepted standard.

Especial mention should be made of the plan now in use in the freshman class at McKinley High School in the teaching of English. A separate division has been formed for those students who through unusual ability or home training speak English fluently. Entrance to this division imposes no test of nationality whatsoever, but is conditioned upon ability to pass written and oral examinations in English. It is felt by the authorities that it is as unfair to train in the same class pupils of widely different preparation and ability in English as it would be to train together pupils of similarly diverse preparation in mathematics or any other subject. This course of action brought forth sharp protests of unfair discrimination from the parents of some of the children and was eventually brought before the grand jury for decision. The majority of the jury favored the school authorities by finding in the plan no "unfair" discrimination, but merely an effort to secure proper educational classification. The plan contemplates that any pupil in a "lower" division who shall bring his English work up to the required standard shall be promoted to the "upper" division. Personal inspection of the working of this plan leads the commission to believe that it is a wise one, involving no racial discrimination whatsoever, but merely insisting upon proper classification of students by ability and training. The commission believes that the standard college-entrance requirement program in English is, in the main, unsuited to the needs of the pupils whose home language has not been English. As proof there is quoted herewith the composition of a Chinese boy in the freshman class of one of the high schools of the Territory. This work is possibly somewhat below the average ability of students of this class, but it is at least illuminating:

MY DOG.

Two years ago I went to my friend's home for a visit. My friend has seven little dogs about one month old. He asked me if I want a little dog. I was surprise of little dog, so I took a male one. I thanked him very much and I went with the little dog. I put him in a little box for him to slept in. He cried during the first night because he was lonesome. I named him Jimmy, and I fed him with rice and meat. He grew very large in four months. He has yellow and white shaggy hair.

I taught him how jumped and played in the grasses, and he could jumped about six feet high. He loved to played with cats and chickens. I taught him how to swim; first he was scared of water. I threw him in the river and let him swam ashore. After he was very fond of swimming, and he chased the ducks in the river. He has only one master, and he followed me every time when I go some places. I used to go hunting and tramping with him. He grew as a old dog now, and he is still lived.

To prescribe for the writer of the above a high-school English course abounding in the works of Shakespeare, Milton, and the earlier English writers is manifestly absurd. The schools of Hawaii have the duty and the right to work out a special substitute course in the best modern English to meet the needs of such students. On the other hand, English-speaking children and others of unusual ability have the right to proceed with the customary program unhindered. Colleges should take these facts into consideration in passing upon the entrance requirements in English of high-school graduates from Hawaii.

MATHEMATICS.

Each of the high schools offers from one and a half to two years of algebra, a year of plane geometry, a half year of solid geometry, and, in addition, a half year of trigonometry. There seems to be a tendency not to require enough mathematics in the college-entrance course. Thus, for example, at McKinley High School only two units are required (one year in algebra and one year in plane geometry). College-entrance requirements would be more generally met by offering in all high schools at least one and one-half years of algebra, a year of plane geometry, and a half year of solid geometry (particularly for prospective engineering students), a total of three units. The teaching of trigonometry in the high schools is not generally required from the college-entrance standpoint, except for some engineering colleges. In view of the lack of teaching force often complained of, it might well be made elective and be given only in alternate years.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

Latin and French are the foreign languages generally taught in the high schools of Hawaii, although the entire four years of Latin are being offered only at Honolulu and Hamakuapoko. Spanish is offered at Honolulu and Hilo. The McKinley High School is the only high school having a definite language requirement in the college-entrance course, and here this requirement covers two years. The commission is informed that, as a matter of actual practice, students preparing for college entrance at both Hamakuapoko and Hilo all take some language. The situation in the Lihue High School on Kauai is particularly unfortunate. The commission found

that owing to the lack of a teacher only one class in foreign language of any sort is being carried on—a class in first-year Latin. No modern foreign language whatsoever is being offered.

SCIENCE AND HISTORY.

Three of the four high schools offer four years of science, as follows: First year, general science; second year, biology; third and fourth years, chemistry and physics. The high school at Hamakuapoko was at the time of visitation without the services of a science teacher and no courses in science were being given. This latter school requires chemistry and physics in the college-entrance course; McKinley requires two years of science; while at Hilo there is no definitely stated requirement.

The equipment in chemistry is fairly adequate, except at Hamakuapoko, where the few desks are poorly arranged and sufficient for but four students. Hamakuapoko is also sadly deficient in even the most elementary equipment for the teaching of physics. In fact, Hilo is the only one of the four high schools with even a fair equipment in this branch. In biology McKinley High School is amply prepared for work with an equipment of 30 microscopes. The other schools are undersupplied in this respect.

All high schools require one year of American history and offer a three or four year course covering ancient, medieval, and modern history.

THE TEACHING FORCE.

The Territory is fortunate in having in its service a corps of well-equipped high-school teachers and principals. The teachers, with few exceptions, hold degrees from standard colleges of the mainland and have had sufficient experience and professional training in the work to fit them for efficient classroom activity. A number hold the master's degree or have done equivalent graduate work. Close personal inspection by members of the commission leads to the belief that in this respect the high schools of Hawaii are on an equality with the standard secondary schools of the mainland. Even better results could doubtless be obtained by a closer interrelation of interests through departmental supervision covering all four schools and closer agreement in the outline of subjects taught, as well as by occasional departmental meetings.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES.

The program of studies issued by the department of public instruction prescribes a standard college-entrance curriculum. No student in the regular college-entrance curriculum should be allowed to carry

more than four subjects, except in cases of especial and well-demonstrated ability. A total of 16 units of well-performed work in the four-year course will satisfy the entrance requirements of most colleges if the subject requirements are carefully defined. Although periods of 45 minutes in length are definitely prescribed and are generally required in estimating college-entrance work, the Territorial high schools are disregarding this point and cutting the normal period short by from 5 to 7 minutes.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Regarding the college-entrance curriculum in the public high schools of Hawaii, the commission makes the following recommendations:

1. That the soundness of the principle of the division of students in English as now used in the first-year work at McKinley High School be recognized and extended to all high-school classes in English where numbers warrant such procedure.

2. That a specially adapted curriculum in English be planned for the children of non-English-speaking families and for others of poor preparation and less ability, and that more time be devoted to this work with such students, even though such action result in the necessity of a longer period than four years for preparation for college.

3. That the college-entrance curriculum as prescribed by the department contain 16 units, 8 of which shall be made in the last two years.

4. That the class period in all high schools be extended to cover 45 minutes.

THE PRIVATE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.[1]

By reason of the peculiar racial situation in Hawaii, a majority of the Caucasian students of high-school age attend private preparatory schools. These private institutions, all located in or near Honolulu, prepare students for college entrance and have sent graduates to various colleges.[2] These schools are Punahou Academy, Mills High School of Mid-Pacific Institute, and Honolulu Military Academy. The great majority of white students have been prepared for college at Punahou Academy, which has been practically alone in its field of effort since its foundation in 1841. In fact, Punahou Academy has served in all but name as the high school for

[1] The survey does not include preparatory schools conducted under the auspices of the Catholic Church.

[2] The Iolani School, under denominational supervision, also maintains a college preparatory course from which a limited number of students have entered college. The commission regrets its inability to secure accurate figures regarding this institution.

the majority of white inhabitants of the islands, who have paid the tuition fee charged rather than attend the free public high schools. It is coeducational and has in the four upper classes an attendance of 228.[a] In 1911 the Honolulu Military Academy was founded as a boys' boarding school with military discipline and training. It has at present an attendance of approximately 100 boys, about one-third of whom are in the academic or high-school department. Mills Institute furnishes a boarding school for oriental students, with an attendance of 125 in the high-school course.

All of these schools have been successful in preparing students for college entrance. The large faculty and excellent equipment of Punahou place it in equal rank with the leading private preparatory schools of the mainland. While the other schools mentioned are not so adequately equipped for science teaching, the members of the teaching staffs are carefully chosen and good scholastic standards are maintained.

SOURCES OF SUPPLY FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII.

The following tables have been compiled to give data regarding students prepared for college entrance at the various public and private schools in the islands.

Secondary school graduates with 16 units or more of credit, distributed by races, Hawaii, 1910–1920.

Schools.	American.	Portuguese.	Other whites.	Hawaiian.	Part Hawaiian.	Japanese.	Chinese.	Other races.	Total.
McKinley High School, Honolulu:									
Boys	35	8	4	2	27	58	81	3	
Girls	42	13	1	3	38	6	29		345
Hilo High School, Hawaii:									
Boys	4	1			7	21	41		
Girls	14	3		1	2	5	36	1	77
Hamakuapoko High School, Maui (8 classes):									
Boys	6			1		1			21
Girls	13								
Hilo High School, Kauai (4 classes):									
Boys						1	1		
Girls							2		7
Punahou Academy:									
Boys	127				12	5	36		
Girls	164				24		9		377
Mills High School (7 classes):									
Boys				2	2	13	29	[c] 14	81
Honolulu Military Academy (4 classes):									
Boys	2						1		3
Total boys	174	9	4	5	46	127	150	17	
Total girls	233	16	1	7	64	11	46	1	
Grand total	407	25	5	12	110	138	196	18	911

[a] Catalogue for 1918–19.

[c] Korean.

An examination of the figures here tabulated shows some interesting facts. While the white American population of the islands constitutes but a very small percentage (about 14 per cent) of the total population, yet this numerically insignificant class has furnished 407 out of a total of 911 secondary-school graduates during the last decade, or about 45½ per cent. The second place is held by the Chinese with 196 graduates, representing 21½ per cent of the total. The Japanese with their great numerical superiority on the other hand have contributed only 138 graduates, about 15 per cent. These figures would seem to refute the charge, so often heard, that secondary and collegiate education are responsible for drawing large numbers of the oriental population away from laboring groups.

The above figures are particularly important since they define with considerable accuracy the maximum limits from which the Territorial university may recruit its students. It should, of course, be borne in mind that the number would be actually somewhat greater if the graduates of Catholic secondary schools were included. There is also to be considered the factor represented by students entering the University of Hawaii from the mainland. Neither of these elements, however, would make any considerable difference, and it is safe to assume that the yearly average number of secondary-school graduates from which the University of Hawaii might hope to secure regularly matriculated candidates for its freshman class has not during the past decade exceeded 100. At least three additional facts must be taken into consideration in determining the probable field at the present time. The first is the strong tradition which exists in the islands in favor of sending students to mainland colleges. The contemplated establishment of a college of arts and sciences at the Territorial institution will doubtless have its effect in influencing a constantly increasing number of students to secure their college course at home. The second point of importance lies in the fact that a large percentage of each year's secondary-school graduates have not prepared themselves with college in view, but have graduated from the so-called business or general courses.

The third factor lies in the fact that the number of secondary-school graduates will doubtless each year show a certain increase. Of the seven schools considered only three have graduated students (prepared to enter college) during the entire 10-year period. Of the remaining four schools, two have graduated such a class only during the past year, another has graduated four classes, and another seven. It will be enlightening to examine into the actual number of graduates of secondary schools who have attended college and also into the matter of their choice of college. The figures given are compiled on the same basis as those of the preceding table—that is, they

are based upon the records of the 911 graduates of the past decade, as shown by reports from the principals of the schools in question:

Secondary-school graduates, Hawaii (1910–1920), attending college.[1]

	Total graduates	Number attending college.	Per cent attending college.
McKinley High School, Honolulu	345	76	+22
Hilo High School, Hawaii	77	18	+23
Hamakuapoko High School, Maui	21	15	+71
Lihue High School, Kauai	7	4	+57
Punahou Academy	377	236	−63
Mills High School	81	41	−51
Honolulu Military Academy	3	3	100
Total	911	393	+43

[1] "College" is here used in its broadest sense, to include institutions of all types receiving secondary school graduates.

From the figures just given it is evident that the four public high schools have during the last decade sent only 113 students to college, while the private schools have sent 280. The following table shows where these 393 students attended college. In the case of students attending two or more institutions, the college of their first choice is given:

Higher institutions attended by secondary school graduates of Hawaii, 1910–1920.

Higher institution attended.	McKinley High School	Hilo High School	Hamakuapoko High School	Lihue High School	Punahou Academy.	Mills High School	Honolulu Military Academy.	Total.
Ames	1							1
Annapolis					1			1
Art school	1				1			2
Boston University	1							1
Bryn Mawr					2			2
University of California	10	4	4		31	6	1	56
Case					1			1
University of Cincinnati					1			1
Colorado School of Mines				1	1			2
Columbia					4			4
Cornell	6				16			22
Dalhousie					1			1
Dartmouth					2	1		3
Dental colleges	5							5
Denver University						1		1
Dickinson						2		2
Goucher					1			1
Harvard			1		16			17
University of Hawaii	29	3	4	1	57	18	1	113
University of Illinois		1			1	1		3
University of Iowa	1							1
Lehigh					1			1
Louisiana State					1			1
Massachusetts Institute of Technology					2			2
University of Michigan	3	2			6			11
Mills					10			10
University of Missouri	1				2	2		5
University of Montana					1			1
College of Music	1			1	1			3
University of North Dakota					1			1
North Pacific College						1		1
Northwestern	1	2			15	3	1	8
Oberlin	1				2			3

Higher institutions attended by secondary school graduates of Hawaii, 1910–1920—Continued.

Higher institution attended.	McKinley High School.	Hilo High School.	Hamakua-poko High School.	Lihue High School.	Punahou Academy.	Mills High School.	Honolulu Military Academy.	Total.
Oregon						1		1
College of Pharmacy					1			1
Pomona			2					2
Purdue	1							1
Simmons					1			1
Smith					10			10
Stanford	3	6	2		13	1		25
St. Lawrence					1			1
Swarthmore					1	1		2
Syracuse					1	1		2
Teachers' colleges					11			11
Tri-state					1			1
Unknown	9	1		1				11
Valparaiso					1	1		2
Vassar	1							1
Washington					1	1		2
Wellesley			2		7			9
Wentworth Institute					1			1
Wesleyan					2			2
Western Reserve					1			1
West Point					2			2
William Jewell					1			1
Williams					1			1
Wisconsin					2			2
Yale	1				14	1		16
Total	76	18	15	1	36	14	1	161

The University of Hawaii has attracted only 113 students out of a total of 393 who have gone to college, i. e., nearly 29 per cent. This figure is doubtless low, as compared with the local drawing power of most of the mainland colleges. It must be remembered, however, that the 10-year period in question includes the whole life of the Territorial college, from the time of its foundation as a new institution, and that until 1919 no academic course was offered. It is particularly interesting to note that of the class of 1919 of Punahou 17 out of a total of 30 who continued their education entered the local college. This is significant in view of the fact that the class entering in the fall of 1919 was the first class to whom the opportunity of registration in the course in liberal arts was offered.

2. HIGHER EDUCATION IN HAWAII.

OUTLINE OF THE SITUATION.

Most of the States of the Union have adopted systems of State-supported higher education. In most cases these systems represent the result of natural development rather than of any prearranged plan. Only the newer States have been fortunate enough to profit by the study of undesirable conditions in other communities, and some of these have wisely avoided duplication of work and

lack of centralization of effort and supervision. Twenty States (Arizona, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, Tennessee, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming) have used the plan of combining the university and the agricultural college in the same place and under the direction of one president and one board.[4]

The Territory of Hawaii, through its legislature of 1919, adopted the same wise policy when it enacted a bill which will create in 1920 the University of Hawaii on the foundation of the present College of Hawaii, originally organized by the legislature of 1907, as a college of agriculture and mechanic arts, and enjoying the benefits of the Morrill Act of 1890 and of the Nelson amendment to the Morrill Act, passed in 1907.

There are no private institutions of higher education in Hawaii. Thus the Territory presents the unique spectacle of a political subdivision of considerable size and population isolated geographically from the rest of the world and possessing only one higher educational institution. All these facts render the problem presented in the Territory a peculiarly simple one, in so far as duplication of effort and overlapping of field is concerned. There is no duplication, and the University of Hawaii is alone in its field.

Briefly stated, the history of higher education in Hawaii is as follows: Stimulated by the congressional grant known as the second Morrill Act, the Territorial legislature in 1907 established the College of Hawaii, providing for a college of agriculture and mechanic arts, offering courses in agriculture, engineering (mechanical, electrical, and civil), household economics, and general science. During the first year the college gave instruction to 6 regular students, 5 preparatory students, 22 special students, and to 64 students taking lectures and practice work in subjects especially provided for them. During the biennium of 1907–1909 the college enjoyed an income of $65,000 from Federal sources and $25,000 from the Territorial legislature, and was housed in two temporary buildings in the residential section of Honolulu. In 1911 the legislature appropriated $75,000 for the construction and furnishing of a college building on a tract of 90 acres previously acquired in the Manoa Valley on the outskirts of the city, and in the fall of 1912 the college moved to this, its present location.

From the first the conception of the usefulness of a public institution of higher education to the Territorial community seems to have been a broad one. The report of the board of regents for the first biennium (1907–1909) suggests, for the future development of the

[4] For a fuller description of varying systems, see State Higher Educational Institutions of North Dakota, Bulletin, 1916, No. 27, of the Bureau of Education.

college, study and research in such matters as agricultural conditions peculiar to Hawaii, as in the raising of sugar cane, pineapples, coffee, rubber, etc.; forest, mineral, and water conservation; animal husbandry; engineering (municipal, commercial, and manufacturing); economics; government; etc. From the time of the removal of the plant to the Manoa Valley a definite building plan was adopted. In such broad matters of policy it may be truly said that the people of Hawaii have been farsighted in planning for the development of their Territorial college.

Manifestly the most pressing problems of the islands have to do with agriculture. Hence it is only fair to conclude that the operation and support of the college of agriculture and mechanic arts are, and must remain, the chief concerns of the Territory, although the development of a University of Hawaii with a college of arts and sciences has already been determined upon as a logical forward step. The activity of such a college of agriculture and mechanic arts needs be by no means limited to agriculture alone. Engineering plays an important part in the development of the Territory. Problems of road and bridge building are ever present; irrigation is the very life of agriculture; the extension of telegraphs and railways will undoubtedly continue, and problems of harbor facilities and of interisland navigation and commerce are still far from ultimate solution. In a semitropical climate like that of Hawaii the services of the chemist, the entomologist, the biologist, and the bacteriologist are always in demand. Such local needs as these will continue to direct the activities of the University of Hawaii along the channels of practical usefulness and to justify the original establishment of the college of agriculture and mechanic arts.

RELATION OF THE UNIVERSITY TO FEDERAL AND TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS.

The relation of the college to the Federal Government calls for no especial elaboration here. It was, and still is, the arrangement provided for in the so-called second Morrill Act and the Nelson amendment. In accordance with these the college now receives $50,000 annually from the Treasury of the United States. The purposes for which this money may be expended are, however, definitely limited. It may be expended for "instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and the various branches of mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science," but it may not be used to pay for such necessary things as land, buildings, salaries of administrative officers or teachers in subjects not specifically named, furniture, etc. Hence every State or Territory has had to add considerable sums to supplement the Morrill grants, even though no

development beyond the college of agriculture and mechanic arts was attempted. For some 10 years a college of this type was deemed sufficient to meet the needs of the people of the Territory of Hawaii, and appropriations were made by the Territorial legislature to supplement the Federal funds. The work carried on was almost entirely of a scientific nature, and no attempt was made to approximate the common curriculum of the liberal-arts type. As a result the opportunities for Territorial students were naturally somewhat limited, and this doubtless accounts, in part at least, for the small attendance of regular students during the early years of the institution.

In April, 1919, an act was adopted by the legislature of the Territory "to establish a University of Hawaii." Its first section combines the present College of Hawaii with the newly created University of Hawaii in the function of a college of applied science, creates "a college of arts and sciences," and provides for the incorporation into the university of "such other departments as may from time to time be established." Additional sections provide for the delegation of management to a board of regents, define the purposes of the university, outline its plan of administration, and define its financial relation to the Territory. In general, the act is an admirable document, based on the best practice of the mainland States, and defining broad general powers rather than details of control and administration. As a result of its passage the Territory finds itself in the enviable position of being able to concentrate its resources upon the development of a single public institution of higher education.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

The board of regents under the new law will consist of—

> seven members, of which the president of the university, who shall act as secretary to the board, and the president of the board of agriculture and forestry shall be members ex officio, and the other five members shall be appointed by the governor of the Territory of Hawaii as by law provided.

The experience of many States has shown that seven is an admirable number for a board of this sort. The inclusion of the president of the university as a member ex officio while it is a not uncommon practice, may at times subject that officer to a certain embarrassment in voting upon his own recommendations and upon questions which affect his own relations to the university. The best educational practice assures the president the right of attendance at all meetings of the board, but relieves him from the responsibility of voting on policies which must of necessity largely originate with himself.

The combination of the offices of president of the university and secretary of the board as a part of the organic charter of the university is, the commission feels, most unfortunate. While present con-

ditions may make such an arrangement desirable, it is by no means certain that future presidents will possess those peculiar characteristics necessary in the secretary of the board of a growing university. The office of secretary of the board in as great an institution as the University of Hawaii may some day become is one of extreme importance and requires the undivided attention of an individual whose training and abilities will probably be far different from those required for the presidency of the university. Should the board of regents now, or at any future time, desire to combine the two offices temporarily, it should undoubtedly have the right to do so, but the mandatory character of this provision in the Territorial laws may prove contrary to the best interests of the university, and the commission recommends that it be stricken from the act by legislative amendment.

The inclusion of the president of the board of agriculture and forestry as an ex officio member of the board is, in view of the prevailing activity of the Territory, unquestionably wise. The commission believes that the same principle should be carried a step further and that provision should be made in the personnel of the board of regents of the university for some representation of the public-school interests of the Territory. The common method of procedure seems to be the inclusion of the State superintendent of public instruction as a member ex officio of the university board. In case this plan does not commend itself to the people of Hawaii, numerous other methods are available. An instructive description of some of these may be found in "State Higher Educational Institutions of Iowa," Bulletin of the Bureau of Education for 1916, No. 19, pages 125–128. Conversely the interests of the university should unquestionably be represented in the administration of the public schools. The commission recommends the appointment of a joint committee from the board of regents of the university and the board of commissioners of the public schools (including the president of the university and the superintendent of schools) to formulate a plan of mutual representation best suited to the local situation and to recommend its enactment by the legislature.

The Territory is to be congratulated upon its success in securing as members of the board of regents during the short period of the existence of the institution citizens of a higher type who have, in most cases, been willing to devote themselves whole-heartedly to the duties of their office. The records of the board of regents have been in general well kept. It is a matter of surprise that the board has never adopted a formal code of by-laws or rules for its government. This omission is at the present time being rectified by the compilation of a code of rules based upon the practices of the board during the past few years.

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION.

As is natural in the case of new institutions, particularly of those with a small and but slowly increasing enrollment, the problem of internal administration has not yet reached such proportions at the College of Hawaii as to make it particularly difficult of solution. The simplest possible form, that of general personal supervision by the president, has so far sufficed to meet the problems which have presented themselves. Inevitably, with the development of the new University of Hawaii, it will become increasingly more difficult for this system to meet the demands of the situation. At present practically all details of college administration are referred directly to the president for solution. He is provided with one stenographer, who, however, must also be responsible for the general stenographic work of the entire institution. In addition, there has been provided recently a woman graduate of the college whose duties include the keeping of student and office records. There is no special provision for the financial administration of the institution, with its necessary details of bookkeeping, purchasing, receiving of fees, etc., and all these detailed activities devolve directly upon the president and his insufficient office force. In view of these handicaps the system of student records is reasonably adequate, a result which could hardly have been attained without the cooperation and help of faculty members.

The organization of the faculty provides for a governing board, composed of all faculty members of full professional rank with a minimum of one year's service. To this board general matters of college administration are referred for discussion and decision. The entire faculty is divided into various committees, to which are intrusted the different college interests.

Without reference to the coming reorganization of the institution, the commission feels that the system just described already puts upon the president so many responsibilities that his important function of representing the college before its constituency in the Territory and before the world of education in general must of necessity be seriously hampered by the detailed routine of his office work. Particularly serious is the lack of a competent financial officer who, under the direction of the president and the board, can give his entire time to the proper administration of the business interests of the institution. In the expenditure of the quite considerable sum annually necessary for the conduct of the college the undivided attention of a competent man to the details of contract letting, purchasing, budget making, and of accounting would, in the opinion of the commission, more than pay for the extra salary expense involved. The commission therefore recommends as the most immediate need in the internal

administration of the college the establishment of a financial office in charge of a competent and well-trained accountant and business man, who shall, under the direction of the president and the board, assume charge of the activities above mentioned and of such similar interests as may conveniently be assigned to him.

INTERNAL REORGANIZATION NEEDED.

The imminent organization of the University of Hawaii must inevitably bring with it a reorganization of the present plan of internal educational administration. The establishment of a new college of arts and sciences and the highly desirable increase in extension work and cooperative activities which may reasonably be expected will, within a short time, probably make it physically impossible for the president to attend personally to all the details involved, particularly in the matter of the routine contacts with the student body. These should be delegated to a regularly appointed dean in each college or division, the president devoting a limited amount of time daily to such interests as particularly demand his personal attention. The duty of keeping student records should eventually center in the office of a registrar who might, for a time at least, be chosen from the faculty with a proportionate lightening of the teaching load, or a competent registrar might possibly be found in a member of the office staff. In view of the fact that the University of Hawaii is not yet an accomplished fact, the commission feels that it can make no definite recommendations for its administration beyond the general suggestions just given. Probably one of the most important activities of the future will prove to be the development of extension work. The proper centralization of this interest under the direction of a competent administrator will be only one of the many now scarcely to be foreseen questions which the board and the president will have to solve in the development of the institution.

The administration of an educational institution is dependent upon a number of intangible factors, as well as upon mere formal organization. The war-taught expression "morale" is especially applicable in times of peace to that spirit in which a college or university organization performs its educational and administrative duties. The geographical situation of the College of Hawaii is so unique in its remoteness from other centers of education that the commission feels justified in suggesting methods of maintaining necessary educational contacts which might be quite superfluous in the case of a mainland institution. Without the inspiration of such contacts the educational morale of the College of Hawaii must inevitably fall below the standards of the mainland colleges where constant interchange of ideas and personal associations vitalize the college life of faculty members and administrative officers.

The commission learns with surprise that the president of the College of Hawaii during his five years of service has visited the mainland only twice, once at his own expense and once with a partial payment of expenses by the college. This condition has rendered it impossible for him to meet with any of the various college associations of the United States and to receive at first hand the inspiration and information regarding modern educational conditions which can come only from personal intercourse with others of the same profession. It has also meant that even heads of departments employed by the college have been engaged without a personal interview with any college official, a policy entirely contrary to the best practice of the day. Identical conditions have existed, and still exist, in the case of faculty members, whose only opportunity to attend scientific and professional meetings is limited to occasional trips during sabbatical leaves at the individual's own expense. These conditions, due to the peculiar situation of the College of Hawaii, are extraordinary and basically unsound. They threaten seriously the quality of the teaching and administration of the college, and they demand extraordinary measures for their solution.

The commission recommends to the board of regents of the college the establishment of a personal expense fund for the president of the university, to be used by him in visiting the mainland at least once annually, and also in visiting the various islands of the Territory for the purpose of establishing contacts with the entire constituency of the college and extending the knowledge of its work. It also recommends that the board confer with a committee of the faculty regarding the establishment of a fair rotating system by which the expenses of certain faculty members, particularly of department heads, may be paid annually by the college for the purpose of attending scientific and professional meetings on the mainland. The commission realizes that such expenditure represents a distinct innovation in the procedure hitherto customary at the College of Hawaii. It believes, however, that expense thus incurred should by no means be considered in the light of reward or compensation for the individual, but rather as an investment in the educational efficiency of the institution.

EQUIPMENT.

The tract of land in the Manoa Valley occupied by the College of Hawaii covers 90 acres. This land is at present carried on the institution's inventory at a value of $1,000 an acre, but its situation in a somewhat recently developed section of excellent residence character doubtless makes it worth at least three times this amount per acre. The entire tract has not yet been cleared, but considerable progress has recently been made in this respect. The college pos-

sesses a building equipment which is still inadequate in some respects. The main building is of reinforced concrete, three stories in height and contains about 60 rooms used for classroom, office, and laboratory purposes; here are located the administrative offices and the library; the building is modern in equipment and well adapted for classroom use, although the provision for laboratory space is scarcely sufficient for all necessary purposes. Most of the scientific departments of the college are housed in this building. Chemistry is represented by a building of its own, unfortunately of wooden construction and of temporary character only. The provision for this department is quite inadequate, and the laboratories are overcrowded, as is also the case in some of the laboratories in the main building. Experimental laboratory work for engineers is provided for in a modern reinforced concrete building of good design and construction. The need in this department for the immediate present seems to be for additional equipment rather than for laboratory space. In addition to the buildings mentioned there are several small structures, an insectary, a slat house, and a building for experimental plant purposes. On the farm 15 acres are devoted to crops, three buildings are used for dairy purposes and there are in addition a piggery, tool shed, horse stable, and several laborers' cottages. Aside from the buildings on the campus the college possesses an astronomical observatory at Kaimuki and has recently acquired the famous aquarium at Kapiolani Park.

Except as noted above there are no bad conditions of student overcrowding at the college, but the situation in the college library is such as to merit especial attention. It is needless to state that the intellectual life of every college or university must necessarily center in its library. The library of an institution of higher learning should be adequate in books, equipment and administrative force to give mental inspiration and furnish proper working conditions to students, faculty and interested public. At the College of Hawaii this is far from being the case. Considering the short period of the institution's existence, its collection of 25,000 volumes and 30,000 pamphlets represents a most creditable beginning, but the limited space which can be spared in the main building to house this collection is entirely insufficient for proper shelving and for reference and reading-room facilities. Even more serious is the numerical insufficiency of the staff which consists of a single librarian, assisted by an untrained girl helper and, temporarily, by a voluntary citizen assistant. The duties of the librarian include the not simple task of managing the college book store, a task which occupies much of her time. As a result it is difficult to meet even the most immediate needs of buying, cataloging, reference, and circulation activities, while no time nor force is available to undertake the active campaign of making the library useful to the people of Oahu and the other islands.

By personal examination and in conference with college officials, members of the board of regents, and citizens in general the commission has tried to gain an insight into the needs of the new university to be, in order to recommend a construction plan for reasonable increase in material equipment for the next few years to come. A group plan of buildings has already been adopted by the college authorities.

The president's report to the board of regents for the biennial period 1917–18 contains a valuable summary of the work of the institution, with comprehensive suggestions for its development. The commission has studied these suggestions carefully in the process of arriving at its conclusions, which are as follows:

It is recommended that sufficient funds be raised by the next legislature, either from the current sources of income or through the issue of bonds, to provide for the immediate erection of a suitable library building (if possible, to contain an auditorium), and of a science building to house the departments of chemistry, physics, and biology. For this purpose a building of at least three stories and a basement will be required, which should be planned on generous enough lines to meet the needs of the next 10 years. Any considerable increase in the population of the Territory and corresponding increase in the attendance at the university will doubtless mean an eventual separation of the three scientific departments into individual buildings. Meanwhile, with the present attendance and prospects of increase, an inclusive science building will probably suffice for the next few years to come, and there will be no eventual loss of investment, since any one department—for example, chemistry—can take over rooms later vacated by other scientific departments, if such a purpose is held in view when the building is planned. It is especially desirable to free the present main building of the laboratories of physics and biology, in order to give more classroom space for the development of the new college of arts and sciences.

The situation in the present agricultural department will be discussed at greater length a little later. Generally speaking, the equipment is not of such adequacy as should be expected in a Territory whose interests are largely agricultural. The problem of its increase involves certain questions which belong to another part of this discussion.

The commission does not at the present time feel itself able to indicate other lines of material expansion than those just mentioned. So much depends upon the attitude of the people of the Territory toward the new University of Hawaii, that it seems safer not to attempt to anticipate future needs too far ahead. Generally speaking, the university needs, and needs badly as soon as possible, considerable additions to its scientific equipment and, perhaps first of

all, a suitable building for its library and an increase in the library staff. The commission recommends that the college book store be placed under the supervision of the new financial officer, if one be appointed, but at any rate that its management be divorced from that of the library. It recommends also the employment of at least one trained, full-time assistant librarian and of one or two part-time student assistants.

TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF THE FACULTY.

No attempt has been made by the commission to appraise the work of individual faculty members by personal classroom visits. The fitness of college instructors for intellectual leadership may be tested in a general way by three factors: (1) Academic training, (2) college teaching experience, (3) research and publication. The tables which follow are based upon the returns made by individual faculty members upon specially prepared blanks. The extent of the academic training is to be inferred, at least approximately, from the degrees held by various individuals.

Training, experience, and publications of faculty members, University of Hawaii.

Title.	Department.	Academic training.		College teaching.			Publications in past two years.	
		Highest degree.	Institution.	Years at College of Hawaii.	Years elsewhere.	Total years in college teaching.	Research publications.	Other publications.
President	Executive (and chemistry).	Ph. D.	Yale	5	11	16	1	1
Professor	Engineering	M. S.	Massachusetts Institute of Technology.	10	0	10	0	0
Assistant professor	do	B. S.	do	2	0	2	0	0
Professor	Botany	Ph. D.	University of Minnesota	0	10	10	1	0
Do	Systematic botany	None	2 years' study at Vienna	8	0	8	6	0
Do	Entomology	M. A.	Leland Stanford	3	4	7	3	1
Do	Physics	Ph. D.	Harvard	4	0	4	2	0
Do	English	do	Cornell	9	12	21	1	0
Do	Chemistry	M. A.	Yale	9	7	16	0	2
Do	do	Ph. D.	do	0	3	3	2	0
Do	Agriculture	B. S.	University of Wisconsin	3	0	3	1	0
Assistant professor	do	do	University of Illinois	0	0	0	0	1
Professor	Mathematics and astronomy.	M. A.	Marietta	11	0	11	0	0
Do	Ceramics and design	Honor	Woman's Art School, New York.	11	9	20	0	1
Assistant professor	Domestic art	None	Studied under private instructor.	2	23	25	0	0
Do	Household science	M. A.	Columbia	1	4	5	0	0
Assistant	Drawing and ceramics.	None	Studied at Park College and College of Hawaii.	4	0	4	0	0
Professor	Romance languages	B. A.	Boston University	0	6	6	0	0
Instructor	History	Ph. B.	Oberlin	10	0	10	0	0

Summary: Number of names, 19; number of doctor of philosophy degrees, 5; number of master degrees, 5; number of bachelor degrees, 5; number without degrees, 4.

The figures just given show the following facts: Of a faculty of 18 persons (excluding the president), 12 hold full professorial rank.

Of these 12, 4 hold the doctor's degree and 7 have had collegiate teaching experience, other than that gained in their present positions. Four hold master's degrees, 2 hold bachelor's degrees, and 2 hold no degrees, although in both of the latter cases study of an academic grade is indicated. While the doctor's degree is by no means to be considered as an unfailing and a unique criterion of professorial fitness, yet it does serve as the indication of a definite course of sustained graduate study successfully completed, and it is being more and more generally required for elevation to the full professorial rank in the standard American college.

The commonly accepted minimum-requirement for the training of the college faculty member of any grade is the possession of the master's degree or of equivalent graduate preparation. Nine of the 18 faculty members have only the bachelor's degree or else are without degrees. In a few of these cases, however, a fair equivalent of the master's degree in graduate work is indicated. From what has just been said it is evident that the past policy of the College of Hawaii has been somewhat lax in the filling of full professorships and also in the appointment to faculty positions and the advancement of persons without previous college teaching experience. Thorough training and broad experience are particularly necessary in a faculty so isolated from professional contacts as is the faculty of the College of Hawaii. The commission recommends that in making future additions to the teaching staff the college demand at least the possession of the master's degree from all prospective appointees, and, if possible, some experience in college teaching. It recommends also that appointments to full professorships be reserved for those who have attained the advanced graduate degree, or who have earned such appointment by unusual work in research or by exceptional teaching ability.

In order that the purpose of these recommendations regarding a permanent policy of faculty appointments may not be misconstrued, the commission desires to affirm its belief in the devotion and high scholastic ideals of the present faculty of the College of Hawaii. The limited number of the present teaching body has allowed careful selection in individual cases, so that the standard of academic efficiency has been on the whole well maintained. This condition, however, does not obviate the necessity of adopting a definite policy based on the maintenance of high collegiate standards in the making of future appointments.

Research is generally regarded as one of the most important functions of a State university. The fact that the Territorial institution has until the present time borne the name of college does not affect this essential obligation to its constituency. The research work of President Dean, assisted by members of the department of chemistry,

on the subject of a cure for leprosy, is a striking example of the benefit which may come to a community and to the whole world from a State educational institution through the researches of its faculty. If a cure for leprosy has actually been discovered, as now seems to be reasonably certain, the College of Hawaii has by this activity alone justified its support by the Territory and has made a distinguished contribution to science and to the welfare of mankind. Of the 18 other faculty members 11 report no research contributions during the past two years. The remaining 7 have submitted 16 titles. It is scarcely necessary to say that the leadership of the new University of Hawaii, in both the academic and practical fields, will depend greatly upon the productive activity of the faculty. For this reason it is all the more necessary that care be used in selecting for future appointments men whose scientific and professional training is thorough and who have shown particular promise of creative ability and productive scholarship. The continual addition of persons of this type will do much to make up for the distinct disadvantage under which the faculty of the institution labors in being entirely withdrawn from opportunity for professional association with the great body of its colleagues on the mainland.

REMUNERATION, RELATIONS, AND WORK OF FACULTY.

The salaries of college faculty members should unquestionably be large enough to attract to the profession persons of studious habit and thorough preparation with the basic impulse to teach. They should be large enough to insure for this type of individual a life reasonably free from financial worry. The profession of teaching never has been and doubtless never will be an avenue to wealth. This condition is commonly known and generally accepted by all those who enter it. Before the outbreak of the Great War college professors were generally looked upon as underpaid. Within the last four or five years conditions have become acute and colleges in numbers have responded to the absolute necessity for increasing salaries. The following table shows average salary conditions four years ago:

Average maximum and minimum salaries in 90 State colleges and universities in 1915–16.[1]

Positions.	Number of members in faculty.				
	Under 26.	26 to 50.	51 to 100.	101 to 200.	Over 200.
President[2]	$3,828	$4,578	$5,023	$5,933	$8,139
Deans, maximum	2,050	2,969	3,054	3,100	5,428
Deans, minimum	2,050	2,238	2,409	2,418	3,147
Professors, maximum	2,423	2,300	2,645	2,770	4,189
Professors, minimum	1,742	1,776	1,878	1,883	2,256
Associate professors, maximum	1,780	1,825	1,922	2,043	2,530
Associate professors, minimum	1,347	1,550	1,691	1,700	1,750
Assistant professors, maximum	1,314	1,658	1,638	1,750	2,302
Assistant professors, minimum	1,330	1,383	1,314	1,305	1,400

[1] From "The Educational System of South Dakota," Bull., 1918, No. 31, U. S. Bureau of Education.
[2] In the majority of cases the president's house is also provided.

Authorities agree in stating that the cost of living has risen from 80 to 100 per cent during the past four or five years. Unfortunately the increase in professorial salaries has been by no means so great. A few instances of 50 per cent salary increases are recorded within this period and numerous others are planned. In general, however, it is probable that a revision to date of the table just given would show an average increase of less than 50 per cent.

In obedience to the necessities of the situation the board of regents of the College of Hawaii in the fall of 1918 established the following salary schedule:[5] Full professor, maximum $3,600, minimum $2,500; assistant professor, maximum $2,400, minimum $2,100; instructor, maximum $1,800.

Judged from the standpoint of average salaries in similar institutions on the mainland as determined from 50 State colleges and universities as just given, these salaries are, roughly speaking, about 50 per cent higher than the mainland average of 1915–16. This increase is fully justified by the increased cost of living. The College of Hawaii is, then, paying salaries approximately comparable and equal to those paid by similar institutions on the mainland. While they are doubtless inadequate when compared with the incomes enjoyed by men in other professions, they are fairly in accord with the present college practice. It must be remembered, however, that unusual inducements may often be necessary to bring the highest type of scholar to the islands and to keep him in a position so remote from the broader professional field.

The cost of travel to Hawaii, with the transportation of family and household effects, is a considerable item, and the cost of living shows as yet no signs of decreasing. It would not be surprising if the next two or three years prove the necessity for an additional increase in salaries at the new University of Hawaii.

The power of appointment and dismissal of faculty members rests legally with the board of regents. The board has by resolution delegated to the president the power of employing all instructors below the grade of assistant professor. A governing board consisting of faculty members has recently been organized and appointments to the higher faculty positions are recommended by this board through the president to the board of regents. Dismissals, which have been but few in number during recent years, have been handled by the board of regents and the president. There seems to be a desire on the part of the administration to share with the faculty responsibility for the determination of faculty relations to the institution. The feel-

[5] The commission understands that these limits are rather a matter of agreement and practice than of ironclad legislation, and that the right to make occasional exceptions for cause is, as usual, reserved.

ing in the institution is apparently harmonious, and no grave cases of dissatisfaction were brought to the attention of the commission.

The estimation of the teaching load is always a very difficult problem. So many imponderable factors enter into the situation that any purely mechanical method of measurement will give only approximately correct results. Nevertheless it is often necessary in the administration of every educational institution to adopt some method of comparison of the teaching load borne by various faculty members, both in order that injustice may be avoided and that funds may be efficiently apportioned. In estimating the teaching loads of faculty members the Bureau of Education has adopted a unit called the "student clock hour." It may be defined thus: One student under instruction in lecture, quiz, or laboratory for at least 50 minutes net represents one student clock hour; for example, therefore, 20 students meeting four hours a week in recitation represent 80 student clock hours. The student clock hour reckons laboratory, lecture, and quiz exercises equally hour for hour. For instance, a student spending one hour in lecture, one hour in quiz, and four hours in laboratory in a week can be counted as receiving six student clock hours of instruction. The following table illustrates conditions at the College of Hawaii:

Teaching load of faculty during first semester of 1919-20, University of Hawaii.

Title.	Department.	Annual salary.	Recitation or lecture hours per week.	Laboratory or conference hours per week.	Number of students in all courses	Student clock hours per week.
Professor	Engineering	$3,600	0	10	12	175
Assistant professor	do	3,000	5	23	80	409
Professor	Botany	3,000	4	12½	50	282
Do	Systematic botany	2,400	1	8	1	9
Do	Entomology	3,600	5	25	35	152½
Do	Physics	3,600	4	10	25	132
Do	English	3,600	11	0	113	465
Do	Chemistry	3,600	4	20	38	203½
Do	do	2,700	6	12½	103	434
Do	Agriculture	3,600	5	12½	16	112
Assistant professor	do	2,400	9	12½	12	78½
Professor	Mathematics and astronomy	3,600	14	2	67	214
Do	Ceramics and design	3,600	2	10	42	182
Assistant professor	Domestic art	2,400	1	12½	25	130½
Do	Household science	2,100	6	15	18	99
Assistant	Drawing and ceramics	1,200	0	11	42	161
Professor	Romance language	2,500	15	0	91	273
Instructor	History	1,800	9	0	33	99
Total		52,000			814	3,641
Average		2,888.88			40	202

Total collegiate enrollment, 166 (107 regular, 59 special); average student clock hours per student, 21.9.

The figures just given are valuable as an index of the distribution of the teaching load. As is usual in every institution those departments where work is required of freshmen or largely elected by them bear the heaviest loads, as for example the departments of English

and chemistry. The professor of systematic botany at the College of Hawaii is retained especially for the purposes of research and his teaching activity is merely incidental, hence the unusually low teaching load. Under the elective system it is a matter of considerable difficulty to gain any great degree of uniformity in the teaching load as indicated by the student clock hour. It is, however, possible to establish for purposes of comparison a theoretically proper average term load. The investigation which the Bureau of Education has made of various institutions throughout the country has led it to suggest—

> that in an institution where research work is encouraged and expected it is reasonable to expect also a departmental average of 250 student clock hours per instructor per week. This, it is believed, might be a fair working average for the larger modern State universities. In a distinctively undergraduate college, on the other hand, where research is limited and where little or no graduate work is conducted, a departmental average of 300 student clock hours per instructor is regarded as a reasonable norm. In this connection it is worth while to note that usually an institution whose program is made up largely of laboratory work will generally record a larger number of student clock hours per instructor than an institution most of whose program consists of non-laboratory courses.*

At the University of Nevada (the survey of which has just been quoted) the average number of student clock hours per instructor for the whole institution was during the first semester of the year for which the survey was made, 221.6; and in the second semester, 218. The range of departmental averages was from 27 to 451. At the State University of Iowa the average number of student clock hours per instructor for the year 1914–15 was 252; at the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, 312; at the University of Washington, 333⅓; at the Washington State College, 214.4. The range of departmental averages was at the State University of Iowa from 71 in Greek to 501 in geology; at the University of Washington from 94 in mining engineering to 648.4 in zoology.

No such extreme conditions of overloading are to be found at the College of Hawaii, and the general average per instructor of 202+ is distinctly lower than that found at any other institution surveyed by the bureau. This is quite evidently explainable by the fact that the College of Hawaii enrolls at present fewer students than any of the other institutions surveyed. There must necessarily be a definite minimum of overhead in the matter of departments and instructors in order to establish a collegiate course at all. Were only 50 students to attend, this minimum could nevertheless hardly be reduced, although the machinery set up could well take care of 200 students without exceeding the allowable term load per instructor as ex-

* Survey of the University of Nevada. Bureau of Education. Bull., 1917, No. 19.

pressed in student clock hours. The commission believes that the present faculty of the college of Hawaii does not exceed in number the minimum absolutely necessary for the conduct of courses of the type given. The present average of 202+ student clock hours per instructor indicates, however, that the maximum limit of students for the present faculty has not been entirely reached, i. e., from 25 per cent to 50 per cent more students could be efficiently instructed by the faculty as at present constituted.

THE PROPOSED FACULTY EXPANSION.

In view of what has just been said the proposed addition to the faculty of a number of new departments and new instructors for the purpose of establishing a course in liberal arts may at first glance seem unwarranted. This, however, is not believed to be the case. A glance at the list of existing departments, as indicated in the last table, shows that the prospective student at the College of Hawaii is limited almost exclusively to scientific and technical subjects in his choice of courses. For the student of nonscientific inclinations the present organization as a school of "agriculture and mechanic arts" offers possibilities for study so limited that this factor must be recognized as one of the real reasons why the attendance at the College of Hawaii has not, until the present year [7] shown the hoped-for increase. The establishment of a college of liberal arts will give to the institution that foundation of basically important courses upon which all specialized study of a technical or professional nature depends, and on which various types of extension work can be built up. It will give to the boys and particularly to the girls of the islands the opportunity to secure at home the same type of general college training which can now be found only on the mainland, and it should unquestionably serve as the means for increasing the attendance of the institution and its usefulness to the community.

There is appended herewith a tentative outline of the new departments contemplated, as they are now being considered by the faculty of the college. For this purpose a fund of $35,000 appropriated by the Territorial legislature is available.

NEW DEPARTMENTS PROPOSED.

Proposed additions to present courses offered:

Economics.—Accounting; money, banking and exchange; advanced economics.

History.—History of Japan; history of China; history of Hawaii; American constitutional history.

Government.—General freshman course on American institutions; municipal government; modern European governments; Asiatic governments.

[7] Students entering in the fall of 1919 were declared eligible for the new course in arts and sciences to be established in 1920.

Geology.—Advanced courses; water resource studies.

Languages.—Hawaiian; Chinese; Japanese; Latin.

English.—Argumentation.

Social science.—Anthropology; ethnology; sociology; social work; Chinese social systems; and Japanese social systems.

Philosophy, psychology, and education.—History of philosophy; educational psychology; history of education.

Several of the proposals made above are unique in American higher education and deserve closer attention. It is, for instance, especially fitting that the University of Hawaii should preserve and teach the native Hawaiian language, as well as Chinese and Japanese, both of high commercial value. The histories also of Hawaii, China, and Japan are of immediate practical usefulness. The department of government may well acquaint the people of the islands with Asiatic systems of government, and the department of social science is dealing with an important local question when it teaches something of the oriental social systems. Such recognition of local needs and conditions as is indicated by these proposed adaptations of traditional college education to the life of the institution's constituency, is wholly commendable. It is unnecessary to point out the opportunity thus afforded by contrast for an unusually intensive presentation of those principles upon which the American State is founded. A public institution of higher education, teaching sympathetically the languages and customs of closely associated alien peoples, but emphasizing Americanism in these very teachings, may soon establish in Hawaii a patriotic intellectual leadership which will help materially in producing good American citizens.

STUDENT ATTENDANCE.

The enrollment of students at the College of Hawaii has never been large. The reasons for this may be summarized under five heads:

1. The comparatively limited field. The population of the Territory, as shown by the census of 1920, is 249,999, exclusive of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. The geographical location makes attendance from outside the Territory practically negligible.

2. The difficulty experienced by a large part of the population in securing high-school training, owing to distance of residence from existing high schools.

3. The lack, up to the present time, of courses at the college for nonscientific students, i. e., of a college of liberal arts.

4. The comparative newness of the institution and lack of knowledge of its activities.

5. The strong local tradition of sending island students to college on the mainland.

In spite of these things, the attendance at the College of Hawaii has shown a steady increase, as witnessed by the following figures for the five-year period just past:

Enrollment at College of Hawaii.

Year.	Students.		
	Regular.	Special.	Total.
1915-16	39	66	105
1916-17	44	66	110
1917-18	61	59	120
1918-19	81	43	124
1919-20	107	59	166

It will be of interest to consider in a little more detail the causes which operate to limit the attendance of the college. Comparison with conditions on the mainland shows at once that the limited population of the Territory is not in itself the only reason for small attendance. The State of Nevada, with a population not half so large as that of the Hawaiian Islands, sent 264 students to the University of Nevada in 1916. South Dakota, with a population only a little more than twice as large as Hawaii, enrolled about 800 regular students, residents of the State, in her three State institutions. North Dakota, with a little less than three times the population of Hawaii, registered 1,445 native students in her university and agricultural college. Evidently, then, the Territory with its present population offers a field numerically sufficient for the support of a public institution of higher education comparable to those of a number of the smaller States on the mainland.

The high-school situation presents a more serious condition. While Nevada had 19 four-year public high schools at the time of the bureau's survey, Hawaii has but 4. On each of the islands a considerable part of the population is so remote from high-school facilities as to render it impossible for children, particularly of the poorer classes, to attend. An extension of the present high-school system is one of the first prerequisites for increasing the attendance at the College of Hawaii. (See discussion, Chap. II.)

The probable effect of the establishment of the liberal arts course upon the attendance has already been discussed. This will doubtless also have a marked effect upon the conditions indicated above in the last two reasons for limited attendance. The situation may be summed up briefly as follows: Hawaii has a sufficient population to warrant the support of a higher educational institution. Such an institution, however, must furnish opportunity for all types of stu-

dents. If this be done, it is only reasonable to believe that the university will gradually attract more and more students of the type who now attend college on the mainland, although the attraction of the mainland will always be an important factor in limiting the attendence at the local institution. Most important of all, however, is the strengthening and popularizing of secondary education by giving better and more accessible opportunities for high-school work.

SOURCES AND COMPOSITION OF THE STUDENT BODY.

The entering class at the College of Hawaii, in the fall of 1919, numbered 47 men and 7 women, made up racially as follows:

Caucasian, 26; Chinese, 20; Japanese, 6; Hawaiian, 1; Korean, 1; total, 54.

Of these 54 students 31 came from local private schools and 19 from the Territorial public high schools. The analysis of sources of attendance follows:

From local private schools: Punahou, 13; Mills, 5; St. Louis, 10; Honolulu Military Academy, 1; tutors, 2; total, 31.

From Territorial high schools: McKinley, 13; Maui, 2; Kauai, 1; Hilo, 1; normal school, 2; total, 19.

From the mainland, 4; grand total, 54.

In judging these figures there must be borne in mind the extremely important part which the private schools of the Territory play in secondary education. Nevertheless the student contribution of the public high schools, normally the main feeders of a State college or university, remains unusually small, particularly in view of the fact that the high schools enroll a considerably larger total number of students than the private schools. The small number of students from the islands other than Oahu seems to indicate that the Territorial college is insufficiently known and its advantages little appreciated outside of Honolulu itself. That these conditions are not limited to the freshman class alone is shown by the figures for the entire body of regular students, consisting of 91 men and 16 women:

By races.—Caucasian, 53; Chinese, 36; Japanese, 13; Hawaiian and part Hawaiian, 2; Korean, 3; total, 107.

By secondary schools.—From local private schools: Punahou, 24; Mills, 11; St. Louis, 15; Honolulu Military Academy, 1; Iolani, 3; Priory, 1; tutors, 4; total, 59. From Territorial high schools: McKinley, 30; Maui, 4; Kauai, 1; Hilo, 1; normal school, 3; total, 39. From the mainland, 9. Grand total, 107.

Of the total number of 107 regular students, a glance will show that 92 come from schools in the city of Honolulu, 9 from the mainland, and only 6 from the other islands. This condition is unnatural and difficult of explanation. It is perhaps partly due to the fact

that the college has no dormitory facilities. The commission, moreover, is unable to learn that any organized or consistent effort has ever been made by the college authorities to present the advantages of the Territorial institution to the students of the high schools on the outlying islands, and it feels that this is perhaps in part responsible for the small attendance from these sources. The commission recommends that a definite and continuous program of publicity be maintained by the colleges in order that secondary school students, both in Honolulu and particularly on the other islands, may be informed of the advantages to be gained from attending college and of the courses offered at the local institution. Such efforts might take the form of talks by the president and by faculty members, the circulation of descriptive literature, and the enlistment of the interest of high-school teachers and principals by personal contact and by acquaintance with the personnel and the activities of the college.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

The current catalogue (1919–20) of the college recognizes three classes of students: (1) Regular students; (2) special students; and (3) graduate students.

Candidates for admission as regular students may secure entrance in any one of three ways:

1. By presenting a certificate of graduation from a standard accredited high school or other institution of standard secondary school grade.
2. By transfer from another college or university.
3. By presenting 15 approved entrance credits or their equivalent.

The commission has gone over in detail the entrance credits of all the regular students admitted in September, 1919, and finds that the requirements of one of the three entrance methods as stated above have been satisfied in all cases. It is necessary, however, to call attention to the fact that the statement of the first method by which entrance may be secured leaves room for considerable divergence of practice, due to the fact that there is no evident basis for accrediting high schools or other secondary schools in the Territory. As a result, the graduates of all schools giving four-year secondary courses have been received upon certificate, regardless of the fact that some at least could scarcely be reckoned as ready for college entrance in accordance with common practice in mainland colleges. It is only fair to say, however, that these cases are exceptional and that most of the certificates examined would doubtless have been accepted by the majority of colleges admitting on the certificate plan. Those of which criticism may be legitimately made fall naturally into two classes:

1. Certificates of secondary-school graduates from highly specialized professional courses. A few cases are on file where from 5 to 6½ units of credit for purely commercial courses had to be allowed to make up the customary 15 units. Naturally the amount of English, mathematics, and foreign language commonly deemed advisable had to be correspondingly cut down. Two students were admitted from the Territorial normal school with no attempt to evaluate their records of highly specialized normal work according to college-entrance standards.

2. Certificates totaling less than 15 units of secondary-school credit. A few such were found, three coming from Punahou, one from McKinley High School, and one from Mills High School.

The commission realizes fully the difficulty under which the College of Hawaii has labored in the matter of the strict enforcement of standard entrance requirements. Its field for recruiting students has been so limited that a certain leniency in interpretation was perhaps not unnatural. It has conceived its duty to be the education of the secondary-school graduates of the Territory, and the lack in the preparation of some of these can not justly be laid at the door of the college. The commission believes, however, that the present situation warrants the new University of Hawaii in assuming the duty of careful selection of college material and of more rigid rejection of persons inadequately prepared. Such action can not fail to have a good effect upon secondary education in the Territory. Specifically the commission recommends that no one be admitted as a secondary-school credit for unconditional entrance or 14 units for conditional entrance, and that the practice of accepting as regular students those who have prepared themselves in highly specialized business or normal courses be abandoned.[3]

SPECIAL STUDENTS.

The problem of the admission of special students has always been a difficult one in higher education. The College of Hawaii has made an earnest effort to decrease its number of special students who during the earlier years of the institution's history were considerably in the majority. A glance at the table showing the enrollment in this college (1915–1920) shows that while the actual number has not decreased greatly during the past five years the ratio of specials to regulars has been very much diminished by the increase in the latter class. The current catalogue of the college states that "Persons not less than 18 years of age will be admitted to the college as special students—no student, however, who has been in attendance at any

[3] The commission is informed that a new entrance plan, substantially in accord with these recommendations, has just been adopted by the College of Hawaii.

preparatory school shall be admitted as a special student before his class has graduated, except by special permission of the faculty of the College of Hawaii." A statement furnished by college authorities divides the special students into three groups:* (*a*) Former students with good records, 20; (*b*) new students, high-school graduates, 18; (*c*) maturity and obvious fitness, 27.

It is evident that a considerable portion of the 59 specials could qualify for entrance as regular students if they chose to do so, hence the number of "specials" in the sense of those without college-entrance preparation is relatively not large. Most colleges refuse to admit students of this type under 21 years of age.

SCHOLASTIC STANDARDS AND REQUIREMENTS.

Inquiry shows a remarkably small number of students excluded from class work for failure, and but few cases of persons dropped from college for the same reason. It is difficult for those not in close daily contact with the work of the institution to judge this condition adequately. Undoubtedly the presence of numerous students of alien (particularly of oriental) races tends to increase the earnestness of student effort. Most colleges, however, find it of advantage to have some definite minimum limit of scholastic accomplishment, in order that those not qualifying to this degree may be separated from the institution. The adoption of some such plan is suggested as a topic for faculty discussion.

The regulation of the student's term load is also a matter worthy of careful consideration. A feeling was expressed by some faculty members that too much freedom is allowed in this respect and that a definite maximum limit should be put upon the amount of work which students be allowed to carry. Investigation of the schedules of the student body gave the following results: Five students are carrying 21 hours; one student is carrying 23 hours; one student is carrying 26 hours; four students are carrying 28 hours.

All others carry 20 hours or less, the majority of schedules calling for 17, 18, or 19 hours. While these figures seem high, as compared to the standard schedule of 15 or 16 hours common to the liberal arts course of the mainland college, they are not in excess of the requirements in many engineering schools. Again, the purely local elements of racial ability and application, outside work, etc., make it difficult for any but those in close daily contact with these problems to solve them wisely. That they should be solved by faculty study of the whole situation goes without saying.

* These classes are not altogether mutually exclusive—some in the last group are college graduates.

It is a tribute to the quality of the work done at the College of Hawaii that transfers have been readily made to many good mainland colleges and that the students thus transferred have maintained good records there. The record of such transfers during the years 1917–1919 (three years) include: West Point, 2; Boston University, 2; University of California, 3; Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1; University of Utah, 1; Cornell, 2; University of Iowa, 2; University of Illinois, 1; University of Louisiana, 1; Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1; Leland Stanford, 1; Dartmouth, 1; Harvard, 1; Columbia, 1; University of Michigan, 1.

THE GRADUATES.

Striking testimony to the struggle for existence which the college has had during its first decade is borne by the fact that in this period only 33 bachelor degrees have been given, 6 to women and 27 to men (also 2 master degrees).

Racially the graduates are divided as follows: Caucasian, 17; Chinese, 8; Chinese-Hawaiian, 1; Hawaiian, 1; Korean, 2; Japanese, 4.

By occupations the division is: Engineering practice, 9; sugar chemists, 5; chemists not on plantations, 3; high-school teachers, 2; grade-school teachers, 1; H. S. P. A. Experiment Station staff, 2; research agriculturist (Olaa Plantation), 1; assistant secretary Hawaiian Board of Fire Insurance Underwriters, 1; registrar College of Hawaii, 1; entomologist, 1; clerk, United States Navy, 1; agricultural work in California, 1; women, married, 2; unknown, 3.

While the quantity of the college's product has been very small, it is evident that those graduated have been largely absorbed into positions of usefulness in the Territory. This is after all the best test of the institution's efficiency. The problem for solution during the next decade is to increase the student body and broaden the field of activity of the new University of Hawaii, so that it may repay the expenditures of its constituency by an ever-increasing number of trained graduates.

INCOME FROM FEDERAL AND TERRITORIAL SOURCES.

The college derives the bulk of its income from two sources, the Federal and Territorial Governments. The income from Federal sources is given in a lump sum, with certain definite restrictions upon the purposes for which it may be used. The sum is now fixed, and invariably from year to year the income from the Territory varies by biennial periods. It is separated into funds by the process of

appropriation for various purposes. The sum is variable and furnishes the element of flexibility so necessary to meet increased needs. An analysis of income from these two main sources follows:

Total Federal and Territorial appropriations for the College and University of Hawaii.

Biennial period.	Federal appropriations.	Territorial appropriation: Purpose.	Territorial appropriation: Net amounts.	Total Territorial.	Total both appropriations.
1907–1909	$55,000	Buildings and fixtures	$9,285.89	$19,292.01	$84,292.01
		Salaries and pay roll	6,287.66		
		Incidentals	3,717.46		
1909–1911	85,000	Salaries and expenses	15,000.00	19,000.00	104,000.00
		Dairy, poultry, swine	4,000.00		
1911–1913	100,000	Salaries and expenses	20,000.00	65,000.00	165,000.00
		Main Building	75,000.00		
1913–1915	100,000	Salaries and expenses	20,000.00	38,931.36	138,931.36
		Buildings and improvements	18,931.36		
1915–1917	100,000	Salaries and expenses	28,000.00	46,000.00	146,000.00
		Buildings and improvements	18,000.00		
1917–1919	100,000	Salaries and expenses	42,000.00	54,000.00	154,000.00
		Buildings and improvements	12,000.00		
1919–1921	[1] 100,000	Salaries and expenses	104,500.00	281,500.00	381,000.00
		Buildings and improvements	142,000.00		
		University of Hawaii	35,000.00		
Total	650,000			555,723.37	1,205,723.37

[1] Based on the established rate of $50,000 annually.
[2] In addition the Territory has allotted 91.15 acres of land carrie[illegible] the [illegible] entry at $140,055. [illegible] present value is said to be from $3,000 to $5,000 per acre.

It is evident that until the beginning of the biennium 1919–1921 the College of Hawaii lived upon a very moderate income indeed, particularly in view of the fact that the total biennial appropriations given above include not only current expenses, but also expenditures for buildings and other permanent improvements as well. Just how small this income was may be seen from a study of the funds furnished by Territorial appropriations as compared with similar appropriations for higher education in the States:

Amount expended for State-supported higher education for each $1,000 of wealth, by States, 1918, excluding normal schools.

1. Wyoming	$0.82	14. Nevada	$0.43
2. Arizona	.78	15. Colorado	.39
3. Idaho	.74	16. Minnesota	.38
4. New Mexico	.69	17. Mississippi	.37
5. Utah	.69	18. Oregon	.37
6. South Dakota	.56	19. South Carolina	.37
7. Michigan	.53	20. Massachusetts	.34
8. Montana	.53	21. Florida	.33
9. Tennessee	.53	22. Kansas	.33
10. Delaware	.51	23. Nebraska	.33
11. Vermont	.50	24. Washington	.33
12. Wisconsin	.48	25. California	.32
13. New Hampshire	.46	26. Indiana	.32

Amount expended for State-supported higher education for each $1,000 of wealth, by States, 1918, excluding normal schools—Continued.

27. Texas	$0.32	40. Illinois	$0.15
28. Virginia	.31	41. Maryland	.15
29. Maine	.29	42. Missouri	.15
30. Iowa	.28	43. Arkansas	.14
31. North Carolina	.28	44. Rhode Island	.14
32. Ohio	.25	45. Hawaii	.11
33. Georgia	.22	46. New York	.10
34. Kentucky	.22	47. New Jersey	.06
35. North Dakota	.22	48. Pennsylvania	.06
36. Oklahoma	.21	49. Louisiana	.05
37. West Virginia	.20		
38. Alabama	.17	Average for United States (excluding Hawaii)	.36
39. Connecticut	.15		

Evidently during the first decade of its existence the College of Hawaii was not only lacking in students but in the proper funds as well to offer educational inducements equal in scope to those of the mainland colleges. With the year 1919 a new policy seems to have been adopted by the Territory. It was evidently realized that no real expansion could be hoped for until an adequate investment was made. The biennial budget for 1919–1921 contemplates $142,000 for buildings, an increase from $42,000 to $104,500 for salaries and expenses, and a special sum of $35,000 for new professorships and for other expenses incidental to the establishment of the college of liberal arts. The new tax income for 1919–1921 is $381,000 as compared with $154,000 for 1917–1919. It is interesting to note that the new rate of Territorial expenditures raises the Territory of Hawaii in the table just given from 11 cents per $1,000 of wealth to 60 cents per $1,000 and from forty-fifth place to sixth among the States of the Union.

Another excellent standard of comparison is by per capita receipts.

Rank of States as to per capita receipts of higher educational institutions supported by the State, normal schools not included.

1. Nevada	$2.43	13. Minnesota	$1.20
2. Arizona	1.90	14. Oregon	1.19
3. Wyoming	1.62	15. Kansas	1.14
4. Montana	1.60	16. Wisconsin	1.08
5. Utah	1.55	17. New Mexico	1.04
6. South Dakota	1.52	18. Washington	.99
7. Iowa	1.38	19. North Dakota	.92
8. Idaho	1.33	20. Vermont	.89
9. Nebraska	1.33	21. Delaware	.87
10. Colorado	1.26	22. New Hampshire	.77
11. California	1.21	23. Texas	.70
12. Michigan	1.20	24. Indiana	.68

Rank of States as to per capita receipts of higher educational institutions supported by the State, normal schools not included—Continued.

25.	Oklahoma	$0.66
26.	Massachusetts	.65
27.	Tennessee	.58
28.	Florida	.55
	Hawaii (1919-1921)	.55
29.	Ohio	.53
30.	Illinois	.48
31.	Maine	.48
32.	West Virginia	.48
33.	South Carolina	.43
34.	Virginia	.43
35.	Connecticut	.35
36.	Mississippi	.34
37.	Missouri	.33
38.	Maryland	.30
39.	New York	$0.29
40.	North Carolina	.29
41.	Kentucky	.26
42.	Rhode Island	.25
43.	Georgia	.24
44.	Alabama	.21
45.	Arkansas	.20
46.	New Jersey	.15
47.	Pennsylvania	.12
	Hawaii (1917-1919)	.10
48.	Louisiana	.09
	Average for United States (excluding Hawaii)	.80

In view of the comparisons just given, the situation may be summarized in a few words: The Territory has, during the first decade of the college's existence, not given it adequate financial support. The upbuilding of a State institution of higher education means more than the mere supplementing of Federal appropriations by sums barely sufficient to fill the most pressing needs. It means more than the maintenance of purely technical schools alone. If the attempt is worth making at all it is worth making thoroughly. The constituency from which the Territorial college or university may legitimately hope to draw its students is not to be satisfied with an institution struggling for a bare existence. If Hawaii is to build up in its own field the kind of university to which all types of citizenship will be glad to contribute students, it must be prepared to pay the price, i. e., it must expect to contribute as much proportionately as do the States of the mainland to their institutions. Not until the more generous policy of the present biennium is definitely recognized as permanent can Hawaii hope to offer higher educational advantages comparable in scope and excellence with those to be had on the mainland, and not until this result has been reached will the majority of her sons and daughters turn to the local institution for college training. The Territory has already committed itself to the support of higher education. The field is uniquely remote from all competition, and the wealth and population of the islands seem to warrant the support of a Territorial university. The commission therefore recommends that the people of Hawaii continue in the future the policy of support inaugurated during the present biennium by taxing the wealth of the Territory for the support of the university in a degree reasonably comparable to the practice of the more liberal States of the mainland.

COSTS.

The income of the college by biennial periods has been given above. An attempt will be made here to analyze the expenditures of these appropriations and to secure from several angles statements of the cost of education in the Territorial institution. The actual total annual cost of maintaining the college for the past five years may be used as a starting point, further subdivided by general purposes of expenditure:

Summary of annual expenditures at the College of Hawaii, 1914-1919.

Year.	Total.	Permanent improvements and construction.	Special.	Equipment and supplies.	Instruction.	General operating.
1914-15	$84,824.60	$16,490.30	$4,250.48	$12,077.43	$46,308.27	$5,698.12
1915-16	88,554.50	17,127.63	4,799.10	10,001.82	46,672.67	9,953.28
1916-17	70,431.41	872.37	5,697.06	7,597.54	47,833.35	8,431.09
1917-18	89,114.71	11,363.39	5,130.89	9,776.25	46,734.99	16,109.19
1918-19	79,642.60	636.61	13,139.99	8,368.17	43,001.67	14,496.16

In making surveys of educational institutions the Bureau of Education has adopted the following plan of subdivision of the total expenditures:

- Total expenditures
  - Educational
    - Construction and lands.
    - Special funds.
    - Operating expenditures
      - Instruction.
      - Educational equipment and supplies.
      - General operating expenses.
  - Extension and service.

For the purpose of the present survey the second general title, *Extension and service*, may be disregarded, since expenditures under this head have been practically nothing. The title *Construction and land* includes expenditures for permanent improvements, for direct additions to the plant, and for furniture for new buildings. *Special funds* include prize funds and funds available only for indicated purposes apart from instruction. *Operating expenditures* are subdivided into *instruction* (teaching salaries), *educational equipment and supplies* (departmental expenditures, library, etc.), and *general operating expenses* (overhead administrative salary expense, etc.). It is this item of *operating expenditures* with its three subdivisions which furnishes the best index as to the cost of college maintenance.

In determining the annual average cost per student, the total annual operating expenditures are divided by the average number of students in attendance during the college year September to June. This latter figure is determined by taking an average of the

maximum attendances during each of the terms or semesters of the year.

In determining attendance at the College of Hawaii the special student is reckoned as taking one-third the work of the regular student, i. e., three special students are counted as equaling one regular student. That this figure is approximately accurate is shown by the fact that the average number of clock hours for the regular student is 26.7 and for the special student 8.86.

Student per capita costs at the College of Hawaii, 1914–1919.

Year	Instruction	Per capita.	Equipment.	Per capita.	General operating.	Per capita.	Total	Per capita
1914-15	$46,308.27	$1,218.61	$12,077.43	$317.82	$5,698.12	$149.95	$64,083.82	$1,686.11
1915-16	46,672.67	765.11	10,001.82	163.9[illegible]	9,953.28	163.17	66,627.77	1,092.22
1916-17	47,833.37	721.75	7,597.54	115.1[illegible]	8,531.09	127.71	63,961.98	965.60
1917-18	46,731.99	576.97	9,776.25	120.69	16,100.19	198.88	72,610.43	896.54
1918-19	43,001.67	452.65	8,36[illegible]	88.09	14,196.16	149.50	65,896.00	693.23

It can not be denied that the student per capita cost at the College of Hawaii is very high, higher in fact than at any other institution surveyed by the Bureau of Education. Even the figure of $693.33 for the year 1918–19, though it represents a decrease of nearly $1,000 per student when compared to the cost in 1914–15, is still considerably higher than should be the case in an institution where normal conditions prevail. Before discussing the reasons for this it will be illuminating to compare this figure with similarly gained results from other institutions.

Per capita costs of instruction in the institutions surveyed by the Bureau of Education, in minimum-maximum order.

1. Alabama Girls' Technical Institute, 1916–17	$103.54
2. Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1916–17	140.19
3. Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1917–18	153.86
4. University of Alabama, 1916–17	155.69
5. Alabama Girls' Technical Institute, 1917–18	164.74
6. Iowa State Teachers' College, 1913–14	168.00
7. Iowa State Teachers' College, 1914–15	170.00
8. University of Alabama, 1917–18	180.30
9. Washington State University, 1914–15	192.77
10. Washington State University, 1913–14	223.49
11. South Dakota State University, 1916–17	241.29
12. Iowa State College, 1913–14	270.00
13. Iowa State College, 1914–15	271.00
14. South Dakota State University, 1915–16	27[illegible].30
15. Iowa State University, 1914–15	274.50
16. Iowa State University, 1913–14	275.00
17. Washington State College, 1914–15	289.79
18. South Dakota State School of Mines, 1916–17	350.12

19. Washington State College, 1913-14	$358.37
20. Arizona State University, 1915-16	400.73
21. South Dakota State College, 1915-16	411.27
22. Nevada State University, 1914-15	443.18
23. South Dakota State College, 1916-17	468.35
24. Nevada State University, 1915-16	522.77
25. South Dakota State School of Mines, 1915-16	564.32
26. College of Hawaii, 1918-19	693.33

When considering the whole question of student per capita costs it must be borne in mind that a great many elements may come into play to reduce or increase the figures. Thus a comparison of different institutions, working under different conditions, is scarcely productive of absolute results. Nor should it be taken for granted that the lower the cost the more efficient the management. Nor is it always true that the student receives the best training in the schools whose costs are highest. In the light of previous surveys a figure of $275 has been suggested by the bureau as an average per capita cost for a State institution of reasonable size and of recognized standards. Generally speaking, this figure must be increased for institutions of smaller enrollment and it may, perhaps, be somewhat reduced for larger universities. However, it should be the purpose of the best educational policy to provide a better, not necessarily a cheaper, institution.

The relatively large per capita cost at the College of Hawaii is obviously due, in the first place, to small attendance. As has already been pointed out, a certain initial overhead expense is necessary to establish even the most modest college. Most of this investment would doubtless be as necessary for 50 students as for 150 or more. It has already been shown on the basis of faculty load, reckoned in student clock hours, that a considerable increase in the student body might well be allowed without greatly increasing the teaching force. The same fact is emphasized by a study of the size of the classes.

SIZE OF CLASS SECTIONS AT THE COLLEGE OF HAWAII.

Twenty-three sections have 1 to 5 students.
Thirteen sections have 6 to 10 students.
Sixteen sections have 11 to 20 students.
Seven sections have 21 to 30 students.
Four sections have 31 to 40 students.
One section has 61 to 70 students.

Obviously there are entirely too many small sections, particularly sections with five students or less, to allow the most economical use of faculty time. This fact should lead to an examination by the faculty of the variety of courses offered with the question in mind as to whether a reduction in the number of courses or adoption of the plan of repeating work only in alternate years might not perhaps be

desirable. However, the commission by no means desires to give the impression that it considers the administration of the college to be an extravagant one. In fact, it believes that more money rather than less should be expended. The present high per capita cost should be relieved by increasing the student body rather than by economizing in salaries or teaching force. Only by broadening the field of the college can its appeal become a popular one. This will add to the total expenditure, but it should also considerably decrease the per capita cost by attracting a much larger student body than the present limited curriculum can ever hope to do.

3. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII—GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

The College of Hawaii at present offers professional courses in agriculture, engineering, sugar technology, and home economics. Under the new organization of the University of Hawaii these courses will be grouped under the college of applied science, and a fifth course in business and commerce will be added in that college.

The work now being offered deserves examination as to its relation to island needs and the possibilities of extension and closer correlation. The department of agriculture is hampered by a comparatively small equipment and by lack of cooperation with other public agencies of a similar nature in the islands. The commission believes that the primary object of the department, as stated in the catalogue, namely, "to teach the general laws governing the relationship of growing crops and living animals to soil, climate, and surroundings," is attained in so far as the limitations of equipment allow. During the past two years the department has issued annual reports which show an extremely creditable effort to deal with the problem of diversified agriculture and to undertake agricultural research. However, with a very limited income and equipment and with no funds for research, it is quite impossible for the department of agriculture to extend its activities far beyond the limits of the university campus and to become a real influence throughout the islands. Detailed consideration will be given in succeeding pages to the general agricultural situation in the Territory.

In the course in sugar technology the departments of agriculture and engineering have combined with the scientific departments of the college to train men for the agricultural and the engineering phases of the sugar industry. This course is probably unique of its kind and undoubtedly meets the chief local demand, that for men trained in sugar production. Its practical usefulness is attested by the hearty cooperation of the sugar plantations in offering their

resources for a cooperative arrangement for part-time work by students under actual conditions of production as a part of the course. A short course for men already employed on the plantations has been very successful and largely attended.

The proposed departments which are to constitute the new college of arts and sciences have already been discussed. A limited amount of graduate work is planned. The administration of the college has undoubtedly chosen wisely in adopting this moderate plan of future development. The greatest need of the Territory in the field of higher education will be met by the establishment of a college of arts and sciences, and conversely this step is the wisest possible constructive move in building up the new university itself. The call for graduate work or for professional schools of law, medicine, etc., is still so faint as to preclude the addition of these for many years to come. Certain other professional problems are however more pressing, since they are the result of insistent local demand. The two most important, in the opinion of the commission, have to do with training and research in agriculture, and with the demand for more thoroughly trained teachers in the public-school system of the islands. They will be discussed in order.

AGENCIES IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH.

The field of effort in agricultural training and research in the Territory is shared by four agencies: The Federal agricultural experiment station, under the States Relations Service of the U. S. Department of Agriculture: the Territorial Bureau of Agriculture and Forestry, under the Territorial government; the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts (College of Hawaii), under combined Federal and Territorial auspices; and the research laboratory of the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association, under private control. The latter organization has had the advantage of unified and intelligent private control and initiative, and of ample resources. It has devoted itself largely to the problems of sugar production, the Territory's main industry, and has achieved an enviable record for thoroughness and efficiency. Being under private control and devoted to a single industry, it may be for the present eliminated from further consideration in this discussion. The field of effort as regards the publicly supported agencies seems to be roughly divided as follows: The College of Hawaii assumes the duty of instruction, but has little money for experimentation; the Federal agricultural experiment station devotes its resources to research, but assumes few duties of instruction; the Territorial bureau of agriculture and forestry is devoted to experimentation and research (said to be in fields other than those occupied by the Federal station), and in addi-

tion assumes necessary police duties in the enforcement of laws within its jurisdiction.

The College of Hawaii has long recognized the value of proper coordination between research and instruction, but has been unable to secure any of the Federal funds commonly available for research in agriculture. The Federal Government in its turn has not failed to appreciate the unique value of agricultural experimentation in Hawaii but has intrusted this function to the States Relations Service rather than to the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. It is unfortunate, but true, that these two agencies, both supported by Federal appropriations, have never been able to work out any satisfactory plan of cooperation by which students of the college might enjoy the facilities offered by the Federal experiment station or by which they might become of service to the experiment station and the Territory by being trained as workers at the station.

It is not the function of this investigation to place the blame for this unfortunate condition of affairs. That an entire lack of understanding and of cooperation does, however, exist between the two Federal agencies for the promotion of agriculture is a matter of common knowledge and must be openly recognized. The commission can not attempt to weigh the value of the legal and personal arguments both for and against the consolidation of these two Federal interests. It can only point to the fact that from an educational standpoint there is no question of the value which might be gained by the students of the College of Hawaii were the resources of the course in agriculture amplified by the free use of the facilities of the experiment station. Whether it would be necessary to unite both agencies under the control of the university in order to accomplish this end depends entirely upon the willingness manifested by both to enter into a close working agreement without such union.

The mainland shows numerous examples of independent Federal experiment stations and also of Federal experiment stations under the control of land-grant colleges. The whole question is one which affects not Hawaii alone but many mainland States as well. The commission can only call attention to the very wasteful and unsatisfactory conditions now existing in Honolulu and recommend that Congress through a proper committee consider plans by which these two functions of instruction and research, both supported by Federal funds, may be brought into closer relation and their work coordinated.

The relation between the college and the Territorial bureau of agriculture and forestry is of a somewhat different nature. In this case both the Federal and the Territorial Governments are represented. Also, the Territorial bureau exercises numerous functions which do not fall within the province of an educational institution.

as, for example, police power. There is no doubt, however, that many of the activities of the bureau would furnish excellent training for college students with eventual benefit to the Territory. It is food for serious thought that the College of Hawaii has been able to establish closer cooperative relations with the only private organization in the field, the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Experiment Station, than with either of the two organizations supported by the people at large. As examples may be mentioned the cooperative arrangement by which college students in the course in sugar technology work during part of their training on the plantations or in the experiment station of the Sugar Planters' Association; also, the short course recently given at the college for plantation men under the joint auspices of the college and the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Experiment Station.

NEED FOR TRAINING TEACHERS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

The proper training of an adequate teaching force within the Territory is one of the most serious problems which confronts the public educational system of the islands. It is discussed at length elsewhere in the survey report. It falls within the province of the study of higher education only in so far as it may be feasible to use the resources of the College of Hawaii in bringing about its solution. At present no secondary-school teachers are trained in Hawaii. That is, all teachers in private and public secondary schools must be imported from the mainland. Such a condition is basically wrong, particularly in view of the fact that sources of supply on the mainland are for the most part inadequate to satisfy the demands of their own constituencies. The commission believes that this duty of training secondary teachers is one of the most important demands now facing the University of Hawaii. The addition of a strong department of education to the new college of arts and sciences would enable the university to accomplish the task satisfactorily, at least until such time as the members in training warrant the establishment of a college of education as a separate unit of the university. For the success of such a plan the cooperation of the public school system is indispensable. The commission recommends that the board of regents of the university take the initiative in the formation of a training course for secondary-school teachers by inviting the cooperation of the public-school authorities in the consideration of a cooperative plan similar to that in use at the Teachers' College of the University of Cincinnati.

RESEARCH.

The resources of the College of Hawaii have not in the past given opportunity for the larger development of the research function. Nevertheless this function is justly recognized as part of the debt

which a State institution of higher education must repay to its constituency. The practical trend of research work in an institution of this type is a not unnatural result of the attendant circumstances. The great debt which Hawaii and the entire oriental world owe to the College of Hawaii for its researches in leprosy and its cure, has already been mentioned. Numerous other fields of local importance are open, and it is here particularly that the first developments in research must be made. The administration has not been blind to these opportunities as is evident in the acquirement of the aquarium in Kapiolani Park for research in marine biology, and in the arrangement recently completed with the Bishop Museum for securing a high-grade man to function as professor of biology and director of the marine laboratory recently provided for by a gift from the C. M. Cooke estate, the museum to act as a depository for his systematic collections. Other obvious fields for research, such as tropical agriculture, Polynesian languages, history, etc., have already been mentioned. The board of regents should undoubtedly continue to recognize such functions as part of the legitimate duties of the university.

SERVICE TO THE COMMUNITY.

The most serious problem confronting the University of Hawaii is that of extending its sphere of usefulness until it touches the daily lives of the greatest possible number of the Territory's inhabitants. With such functional extension should go, hand in hand, an adequate service of information in order that the university's supporting constituency may become aware of the services which they have the right to ask and which the institution is ready to furnish. The gravest and most frequently repeated criticism of the college which the commission heard during its stay in the islands was the charge that people in general knew very little about it and its activities and consider it in the light of a function of government conducted for a select few alone. No one except those in charge of the institution's administration can correct this condition. It is a well-proved fact in educational experience that the tax-supported institution owes to itself and to its constituency the duty of building up in its community a desire for the educational facilities which it has to offer. It has not the right to assume a "take-it-or-leave-it" attitude, as the private institution sometimes does. It must be an active force for education, not merely a passive source of supply, and above all it must assume the burden of informing its supporters as to what they may expect to receive from its resources in men and materials.

Analysis shows two reasons for the not-unfounded criticism which has been directed against the college in this regard. The first lies in the lack of funds in the past for carrying on extension activities of any

kind. The Territory of Hawaii was eliminated from the provisions of the Smith-Lever Act, and it will doubtless require an amendment to this act of Congress before the Territory is legally entitled to share in its benefits. As regards Territorial funds, the college has never had any appropriation for extension work, though from time to time small amounts taken from the office maintenance fund have been used for such purposes. The second reason is probably to be found in the mass of detailed work which has centered in the president's office, leaving that executive but little time for any constructive planning of extension activities. Whether vigorous effort a number of years ago might not have corrected both of these conditions is a question which has been several times asked of the commission. The answer is of little importance at the present time. Of utmost importance, however, is the necessity of adopting a definite policy for the future of extension work in its broadest interpretation. In this particular phase of the situation the commission is vitally interested and desires to offer a few suggestions.

The main industry of Hawaii is agriculture. The sugar industry (and to some extent the pineapple industry) has already provided amply for its own scientific needs through private funds. While this largely preempts the research field, yet it need not be a bar to work of a similar nature at the university nor to extension courses like that just given to sugar planters. However, it is neither the sugar nor the pineapple industries which particularly require the help of the best facilities of public higher education. Rather it is the small homesteader, constantly increasing in numbers, who needs scientific guidance in his attempts at diversified agriculture. When the United States entered the World War there was established a Territorial Food Commission, of which President Dean, of the College of Hawaii, acted as executive officer for a few months. At that time a system of county agents was organized throughout the islands. Although the governor continued this county-agent system under the auspices of the college for a time, the legislature declined to make it a permanent institution. At the same time the Federal experiment station has a Federal appropriation for agricultural extension work and maintains two substations, while the last legislature provided funds for the erection of an agricultural experiment station on Hawaii with the understanding that this is to be under the direction of the college.[10]

Until the division of Federal authority can be adjusted by legislation or by a mutual understanding, the whole problem of extension work in agriculture is a difficult one to solve. The situation in many of the mainland States, however, seems to justify the recognition of

[10] Report of President Dean to the Federal Survey Commission.

the combined college of agriculture and mechanic arts and the Territorial university as the proper agency to take the lead in this work. The commission therefore recommends that the Territory encourage the establishment of agricultural extension work in its various recognized forms in connection with the University of Hawaii, and that the university authorities use every means in their power to extend the benefits of this activity to the agricultural interests of the Territory.

The duty of the university to its extra-mural constituency does not cease here. Every problem which has to do with the welfare of the Territory and its inhabitants is a legitimate subject of university interest and a possible field for university activity. The racial situation and the labor conditions arising therefrom bring opportunity for social service of an unusual type. Hawaii realizes that her labor, once ignorant and submissive, is demanding more and more, not only in wages, but also in recreation, education, and environment. As a result the plantations on the various islands are becoming interested in matters pertaining to the welfare of their laborers and their laborers' families. Hence demand is arising for people who have been trained in welfare work of all kinds. Here is patently an opportunity for the university to render a broad service by training persons for such work with the population of the islands as a working laboratory.

The task of adult education is now generally recognized as a proper part of the work of the college or university. Such education is usually given by the evening-class method in the larger centers of population, and is pursued by those who, occupied during the day, are willing to use leisure hours to gain or supplement a college education. Maturity and the study of necessary prerequisite subjects (if any) form the only entrance requirements. While such classes often tend to become somewhat "popular" in nature, intelligent elimination of the unfit allows the possibility of doing work deserving of college credit. There is undoubtedly room in Honolulu for classes of this kind under university direction. Probably also each of the other larger islands could support classes in carefully chosen subjects of general interest in its largest center of population. In such work the university is freed from the competition of the mainland colleges. The remoteness of the island necessarily diminishes the oportunities for mental and intellectual improvement which the inhabitants of the mainland enjoy. It also diminishes the number of distracting elements in the form of popular amusements. The University of Hawaii should find an unusually fertile ground in which to sow the seeds of such extension work. The people of Hawaii, old as well as young, have, in their turn, the right to look to their university for intellectual stimulation and leadership.

Comparable to the scientific service proposed for the inhabitants of rural districts through extension work in agriculture is the benefit which might come to the people of the entire Territory and of Honolulu in particular, by the establishment of a Territorial bureau of tests at the university. The equipment now at hand in chemistry, engineering, and other technical laboratories already provides the necessary apparatus for testing both physically and chemically the various materials and supplies purchased by the Territory or by any of its subdivisions. The commission is not informed as to what facilities are at present available in other agencies for bacteriological testing, food examination, etc. Any such functions, not already provided for, might well be assumed by the university. The employment of a single competent man to give his entire time to public testing work would, without question, represent a good investment in the saving to the Territory made by the rejection of unworthy materials.

Under the heading of "Service to the Community" the commission has made no effort to list exhaustively all the lines of possible endeavor. Rather it has tried to indicate a few directions in which constructive activity might well be begun with a reasonable chance of success. These are, to recapitulate, as follows: 1, agricultural extension work; 2, training social workers for local needs; 3, extension classes for adult education; and 4, establishment of a bureau of tests (chemical, physical, etc.).

The commission recommends that the university begin to solve its problem of making its campus "Territory-wide" by the adoption of the suggestions just made. It is realized, however, that no advice from outside sources can equal the wisdom gained by long-continued study of the local situation by the university authorities themselves. Hence it would ultimately serve best to meet the needs of the Territory were the administrative officers and faculty to devote themselves from year to year to careful consideration and analysis of Hawaii's conditions, with the one end of service in view. The commission feels that it is not putting the case too strongly to say that the very life and success of the university depend upon its broad conception of this duty.

SERVICE TO THE PAN-PACIFIC STATES.

Not alone should the University of Hawaii seek to make its campus "Territory wide," but the commission believes that with vision and energy the University of Hawaii can become the university of the Pan-Pacific. Already a commendable movement is well under way, initiated, and fostered by farseeing citizens of Hawaii, looking toward the winning for Hawaii the honor of being designated as the

natural meeting place for sessions of joint commissions and of scientific, social, and educational groups made up of leaders in their respective lines of the several countries bordering on the Pacific. There is every reason for believing that the University of Hawaii, if it were to set about it, could draw on these countries heavily for its student body, and in turn could come to wield a powerful influence in the development of the races and peoples of such countries. Such a high purpose could well challenge the ambition of any university.

REPORTING TO CONSTITUENCY.

Legitimate college publicity may be generally summarized under the headings of (a) information for prospective students, (b) reports of conditions and activities, and (c) research publications. Under the first title is included the college catalogue, special bulletins regarding courses, and the like. The second series comprises regular annual reports, special reports, and general publicity matter. The third includes scientific contributions by members of the faculty. The College of Hawaii has made regular efforts to perform its duty in the first and last respects and has regularly published a set of annual reports. It is in the matter of so-called general "publicity" in which less has been accomplished. Many of the problems and achievements briefly summed up in the president's reports are undoubtedly worthy of elaboration and of wide circulation throughout the islands. It is doubtful whether a general comprehensive report, appearing annually and perhaps distributed in limited numbers, can really be said to serve the purpose of publicity or satisfy the perfectly legitimate desire of the public at large to have information at reasonably frequent intervals about the institution which they are supporting. The need for frequent contacts with the general public has been met in many institutions by the circulation in numbers of a university bulletin, published monthly or even more frequently. Such a publication contains the most important student and alumni news in brief form, plans and problems of the college administration, faculty achievements and changes, and academic news of general interest. It does not take the place of the carefully prepared annual report, but supplements it and interprets the university to the general public for whom a formal report would have little interest.

No catalogues or announcements can entirely take the place of personal contact between the high-school student and the college representative. Most high schools on the mainland are visited annually by numerous college presidents or faculty members. Boys and girls in the secondary schools of Hawaii are practically without guidance in that most important question of deciding the life course after graduation from high school—at least without guidance by

men and women actually engaged in higher educational work. It should be a primary duty of a representative of the University of Hawaii to visit once or twice in each year each secondary school in the Territory in order to give prospective graduates personal stimulation to attend college and in order to discuss with them impartially the advantages to be gained at various institutions. Such visits would stimulate attendance at the local institution as well by influencing a greater number than formerly to attend some college, and would give to those interested the opportunity to learn at first hand something about the Territory's own university.

The commission recommends that the new University of Hawaii take steps to supplement its annual report by the publication at shorter intervals of a circular or bulletin of information on university affairs to be distributed broadly throughout the islands. It recommends also that opportunity be given annually to the students of all secondary schools in the Territory to confer personally with a representative of the university regarding college education in general and the advantages of the University of Hawaii in particular, and that this opportunity be supplemented by talks to secondary school students by faculty members, by the circulation of descriptive literature, and by the enlistment of the interest of high-school teachers and principals by personal contact and by acquaintance with the personnel and the activities of the university.

4. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

A. CONCERNING PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE AT PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.

1. That special effort be made at each high school to adapt the curriculum of each prospective college entrant to the requirements of the college of his choice.

2. That the soundness of the principle of the division of students in English as now used in the first-year work at the McKinley High School be recognized and extended to all high-school classes in English where numbers warrant such procedure.

3. That a specially adapted course in English be planned for the children of non-English-speaking families, and for others of poor preparation and less ability, and that more time be devoted to this work with such students, even though such action result in the necessity of a longer period than four years for preparation for college.

4. That the college-entrance curriculum as prescribed contain 16 units.

5. That the class period in all high schools be extended to cover 45 minutes.

B. CONCERNING HIGHER EDUCATION.

6. That the provision of the "Act to establish a University of Hawaii," combining the offices of president of the university and secretary of the board of regents, be annulled by legislative amendment.

7. That a joint committee be appointed from the board of regents of the university and the board of supervisors of the public schools (including the president of the university and the superintendent of schools) to formulate a plan of mutual representation best suited to the local situation and to recommend its enactment by the legislature.

8. That a financial office be established at the College of Hawaii in charge of a competent and well-trained accountant under the direction of the president and the board.

9. That a personal expense fund be established for the president of the university, to be used by him in visiting the mainland at least once annually, and in visiting the various islands of the Territory for the purpose of establishing contacts with the entire constituency of the college and extending the knowledge of its work.

10. That the board of regents confer with the faculty regarding the establishment of a fair rotating system by which the expenses of certain faculty members may be paid annually by the college for the purpose of attending scientific and professional meetings on the mainland.

11. That the next legislature provide funds sufficient to erect a suitable library building and a science building.

12. That the management of the college book store be divorced from that of the library.

13. That at least one trained, full-time assistant librarian and one or two part-time student library assistants be employed.

14. That in making future additions to the teaching staff the college demand at least the possession of the master's degree from all prospective appointees and, if possible, some experience in college teaching.

15. That appointments to full professorships be reserved for those who have attained the advanced graduate degree, or who have earned such appointment by unusual work in research or by exceptional teaching ability.

16. That no one be admitted as a regular student who can not offer 15 units of commonly accepted secondary school credit for unconditional entrance or 14 units for conditional entrance, and that the practice of accepting as regular students those who have prepared themselves in highly specialized business or normal courses be abandoned.

17. That the newly inaugurated policy be continued of taxing the wealth of the Territory for the support of the university in a de-

gree reasonably comparable to the practice of the more liberal States of the mainland.

C. CONCERNING THE DEVELOPMENT OF A UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII.

18. That Congress, through a proper committee, consider plans by which the functions of instruction and research in agriculture, both supported by Federal funds, may be brought into closer relation and their work coordinated.

19. That the board of regents take the initiative in the formation of a training course for secondary school teachers by inviting the cooperation of the public-school authorities in the consideration of a cooperative plan similar to that in use at the Teachers' College of the University of Cincinnati.

20. That the Territory encourage the establishment of agricultural extension work in its various recognized forms in connection with the University of Hawaii, and that the university authorities use every means in their power to extend the benefits of this activity to the agricultural interests of the Territory.

21. That the university begin to solve its problem of making its campus "Territory-wide" by the adoption of the following activities: 1, Agricultural extension work; 2, training social workers for local needs; 3, extension classes for adult education; 4, establishment of a bureau of tests.

22. That the new University of Hawaii take steps to supplement its annual report by the publication at shorter intervals of a circular or bulletin of information on university affairs, to be distributed broadly throughout the islands.

23. That opportunity be given annually to the students of all secondary schools in the Territory to confer personally with a representative of the university regarding college education in general and the advantages of the University of Hawaii in particular, and that this opportunity be supplemented by talks to secondary-school students by faculty members, by the circulation of descriptive literature, and by the enlistment of the interest of high-school teachers and principals by personal contact and by acquaintance with the personnel and the activities of the university.

24. That the University of Hawaii set for its ultimate goal the high purpose of becoming the recognized university of the Pan-Pacific States.

Chapter VIII.

THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF HAWAII.

CONTENTS.—1. General conditions: Private schools grouped; statistical information regarding; pupils per teacher; relatively few in high schools; high school curriculums chosen; pupil failures; training and experience of teachers. 2. Punahou School: Work and spirit; curriculum offered; coaching for college examinations; curricula in junior academy and elementary school; organization and administration; buildings and equipment. 3. Honolulu Military Academy: Curricula offered; organization and administration; buildings and equipment. 4. Mid-Pacific Institute: Establishment; curricula; teaching efficiency; administrative features; buildings and equipment; needs of the school. 5. The Episcopal schools: Iolani School; St. Andrew's Priory; recommendations. 6. Hilo Boarding School: Establishment; work; buildings and equipment; recommendations. 7. Kamehameha Schools: Founding; work offered; vocational and classroom work unrelated; organization, administration, and cost; possibilities for greater efficiency; an analysis of the schools' problems; three plans discussed. 8. Kohala Girls' School and Maunaolu Seminary: Last of boarding schools for Hawaiian girls; organization and work; dormitory plan desirable for the public schools to adopt. 9. Conclusions and recommendations.

1. GENERAL CONDITIONS.

The private schools of the Territory of Hawaii occupy a unique and unusually important position in the educational system of these island communities. This position has been gained, in the first place, because of the zeal for education of the early missionaries and of the organizations behind them. Most of these schools were originally founded by missionary or philanthropic effort for Christian education, and have been supported largely by gifts and endowments. Many of them still continue as mission schools, while others though now independent or undenominational are strongly imbued with the missionary spirit. Several of them are among the oldest schools in the islands. In the second place, the public school system is not yet fully developed and can not at present satisfy the needs of all the children. Because of the prestige maintained by the earlier and stronger private schools through the prominence which their graduates have gained, and because of the many superior advantages which they have been able to offer, and also because the public schools have not been able as yet to keep pace with the growth of child population, not only have the older private schools flourished, but also many others, for the most part small neighborhood schools, have sprung up in all parts of the islands. Some of these are missionary in motive, but many are purely proprietary. All these schools fall approximately into five classes:

1. Boarding schools industrial in trend or original purpose and not giving complete high-school courses. Examples: Kamehameha schools (boys and girls); Hilo Boarding School (boys only); Kohala Girls' School; Maunaolu Seminary.

2. Boarding schools giving college preparatory and finishing courses, as well as elementary school work. Examples: Mid-Pacific Institute, including Mills School (for boys), and Kawaiahao Seminary (for girls); Honolulu Military Academy (boys only).

3. Day schools with boarding departments giving college preparatory and finishing courses. Examples: Punahou School (coeducational), including elementary school, junior academy, academy, girls' boarding department, and music school; Iolani School (boys only); St. Andrew's Priory (girls only); St. Louis College (boys only).

4. Small mission schools. Examples: Korean Mission, Chinese Mission, etc.

5. Small proprietary or "select" schools, supported usually by tuition fees only.

RACIAL DESCENT OF PRIVATE-SCHOOL POPULATION.

In two of the larger schools, Punahou and the Honolulu Military Academy, the pupils in attendance are mostly Caucasian. The same is true of most of the small proprietary or "select" schools.

Punahou limits its pupils of other than Caucasian descent to 10 per cent. Honolulu Military Academy has no such rule excluding or limiting any race or class, but its relatively high tuition and boarding rate operate automatically to exclude all but a small proportion of the descendants of other than Caucasians. It is mostly families of this race who are able and willing to pay these rates.

In the Kamehameha schools the population is almost exclusively Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian, while in Mid-Pacific it is mainly Japanese and Chinese, with a liberal sprinkling of other oriental races and Hawaiians. The Catholic schools enroll about equal numbers of Anglo-Saxons and Portuguese on the one hand, and of orientals, Hawaiians, and Part-Hawaiians on the other. The racial compositions of the Episcopal schools, Iolani and St. Andrew's Priory, are about the same as those of Mid-Pacific, while in some of the mission schools, such as the Korean or the Chinese Mission, the enrollment consists mainly of children of one particular racial descent, as indicated by the name.

WIDE VARIATIONS AMONG SCHOOLS.

The purpose of the following table is to show the very interesting and very wide variations among the private schools with reference to the several items included under the different headings.

TABLE 1.—*Private schools of the Territory of Hawaii, 1919–20.*

[Key to abbreviations: Adv., Adventist; Cath., Catholic; Cong., Congregational; Ind., Independent; Meth., Methodist; Am., American; Br., British; Ch., Chinese; Fi., Filipino; Ge., German; Ha., Hawaiian; Ja., Japanese; P-Ha., Part-Hawaiian; Po., Portuguese.]

Name of school.	Location.	Denominational control.	Prevailing national descent.	Number of pupils: Elementary schools: Grades 1-8.	High schools: Grades 9-12.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Teachers.	Pupils per teacher.
Island of Hawaii:										
1. Hilo Boarding	Hilo	Ind	Ja., P-Ha., Ha., Fi.	76		76		76	13	5.8
2. St. Joseph's	do	Cath	Po.	262			262	262	5	52.4
3. Kohala Girls'	Kohala	Ind	Ha., P-Ha	62			62	62	7	8.9
4. St. Mary's	Hilo	Cath	Po., Ha., P-Ha	310		310		310	5	62.0
5. Hilo Free Kindergarten	do					26	39	65	2	32.5
6. Waiakea Select School	do					24	38	62	1	62.0
7. Sacred Heart	Kau	Cath	Fi., Ha., Po.	46		26	20	46	1	46.0
8. Chinese Mission	Hilo	Episc		29		17	12	29	1	29.0
Total				785		479	433	912	35	
Island of Maui:										
1. Maunaolu Seminary	Nakawao	Ind	Ha., Ch., P-Ha	85			85	85	8	10.6
2. St. Anthony Boys'	Wailuku	Cath	Ja., Ch., Po., P-Ha	107	22	129		129	5	65.8
3. Baldwin House Kindergarten.	Lahaina					41	42	83	5	16.6
4. Alexander House Kindergarten.	Wailuku					30	53	83	4	20.7
5. St. Anthony Girls'	do	Cath	Po., Ha	247			247	247	4	61.7
6. The Sacred Heart	Lahaina	do	Ha., P-Ha., Po.	98		50	48	98	3	32.7
7. Kula Sanitarium	Makawao			8		4	4	8	2	4.0
8. William and Mary Alexander Parsonage.	Wailuku		Am., P-Ha., Ha., Po	9		6	3	9	1	9.0
9. Paia Kindergarten	Paia					60	56	116	1	116.0
10. Hamakuapoko Kindergarten.	Hamakuapoko					45	40	85	1	85.0
Total				754	22	965	578	1,143	34	
Island of Oahu:										
1. Punahou Elementary	Honolulu	Ind	Am., P-Ha., Br.	401		216	185	401	23	17.4
2. St. Louis College	do	Cath	Ch., P-Ha., Po., Am.	739	217	956		956	18	53.1
3. Mills School	do	Cong	Ja., Ch., P-Ha	85	126	211		211	18	11.7

4. Kamehameha School for Boys.	do	Ind	P-Ha., Ho	127	24	151		151	17	8.9
5. Punahou Academy	do	do	Am., P-Ha		181	81	100	181	17	10.6
6. Kamehameha School for Girls.	do	do	P-Ha., Ha	92	17		109	109	15	7.3
7. Iolani School	do	Episc	Ja., Ch., P-Ha., Ko	165	60	225		225	15	16.0
8. Punahou Junior Academy.	do	Ind	Am., P-Ha., Br	159	76	99	136	235	15	15.7
9. Honolulu Military Academy.	do	Ind	Am., P-Ha., Br	61	30	101		101	10	10.1
10. Kawaiahao Seminary	do	Cong	Ch., P-Ha., Ja	84	19		103	103	9	11.4
11. Castle Kindergarten	do					55	48	103	9	11.5
12. Muriel Kindergarten	do					56	66	122	9	13.5
13. St. Andrew's Priory	do	Episc	P-Ha., Am., Ch., Po	152	33		165	165	9	18.3
14. Castle Home	do					14	12	26	8	3.2
15. Hanahauoli School	do	Ind	Am	11		21	20	41	8	5.1
16. Academy of Sacred Heart	do	Cath	Am., P-Ha., Po., Ha	132	30		162	162	7	23.1
17. Liliha Kindergarten	do					111	98	209	7	29.9
18. Kamehameha Preparatory.	do	Ind	P., Pa-Ha	75		75		75	6	12.5
19. Kalihi Kindergarten	do					37	49	86	6	14.3
20. Fort Street Kindergarten	do					57	46	103	6	17.1
21. Miller Street Kindergarten.	do					40	46	86	5	17.2
22. Sacred Heart Convent (free).	do	Cath	Po., Ha., P-Ha., Ch	259			259	259	6	43.8
23. Sacred Heart Convent (select).	do	Cath	P-Ha., Po., Ch., Am	220			220	220	5	44.0
24. Korean Christian Institute.	do	Meth	Ko	109		49	60	109	5	21.8
25. Palama Kindergarten	do					56	33	89	5	17.8
26. Honolulu Free Kindergarten.	do						12	12	4	3.0
27. Valley School	do	Ind	Am., P-Ha., Br., Ge	71		40	31	71	4	18.0
28. St. Mary's Mission	do	Episc	Ja., Ch., P-Ha., Po	116		51	65	116	3	38.7
29. Chinese Mission	do	Cong	Ch	61			61	61	3	30.5
30. St. Elizabeth's Mission	do	Episc	Ch	25		3	22	25	2	12.5
31. Mrs. Leila Wilder's Private.	do	Ind	Am	14		4	10	14	2	7.0
32. Kaimuki Private	do	Ind	Am., P-Ha., Br	18		8	10	18	2	9.0
33. Mother Rice School	do					28	32	60	2	30.0
34. St. Mark's	Kapahulu	Episc	Po., P-Ha., Ha., Ja	62		19	43	62	2	31.0
35. Bethel Street Grammar	Honolulu	Advent	P-Ha., Po., Ch., Am	26		10	16	26	2	13.0
36. Kapiolani Girls'	Kalihi			36			36	36	2	18.0
37. Ewa Private	Ewa	Ind	Ge., Po., Am., P-Ha., Br	13		7	6	13	1	13.0
38. Mrs. Wood's Private	Honolulu	Ind	Am., P., Ha	12		6	6	12	1	12.0
39. St. Ann's	Heeia	Cath	P-Ha., Ha., Ch	30		15	15	30	1	30.0
Total				3,365	823	2,802	2,282	5,084	287	
Grand total				4,004	815	3,846	3,253	7,139	356	20.0

This table shows the names, locations, and denominational control, if any, of all the private schools of the Territory that reported to the department of public instruction for the year ending December 31, 1919. It also shows, in order of their numbers, the prevailing national descents of the pupils in each school, the enrollment in the elementary (first to eighth) and high-school (ninth to twelfth) grades, the enrollment by sexes, the total enrollment, the number of teachers, and the number of pupils to a teacher. The schools are arranged by islands and in the order of the number of teachers.

This table gives as strong an impression as anything could give of the numbers and variety of these schools and the complexity of their problems. The most significant facts to be gathered are:

1. The great variety of conditions, constituencies, and types of school life which are found in these schools.

2. The important extent to which these schools are assisting in the problem of educating all the children, especially in the kindergarten and high-school grades.

3. Contrary to the usual condition in the States, the number of boys enrolled exceeds the number of girls.

PUPILS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Thus, excluding the kindergartens, which are nearly all maintained and directed by private effort, the private schools are affording elementary education to 4,904 pupils out of a total of 42,296 and high-school education to 845 pupils out of a total of 2,038.

That is, 11.6 per cent of all the elementary pupils of the Territory and 41.5 per cent of all the high-school pupils of the Territory are getting their education in these private schools.

These schools, including the kindergartens, have 356 out of 1,011, or 35.2 percent of all the teachers in the Territory.

Relatively, therefore, the private schools constitute a far greater factor in the educational situation in Hawaii than they do in the States, especially in the high-school department, where the enrollment is two-fifths of the whole, and in the kindergarten department, where it is very nearly the whole.

NUMBER OF PUPILS PER TEACHER.

The average number of pupils per teacher for all private schools is 20. This is somewhat less than the standard, 25 pupils per teacher, established by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. From the standpoint of the general educational situation, it would be better if all were nearer this norm.

Private schools distributed according to number of pupils per teacher.

Pupils per teacher.	Names of schools.	Pupils.	Number of schools.
1-4.9	Castle Home	3.2	2
	Honolulu Free Kindergarten	3.0	
	Hanahauoli	5.1	
	Kaimuki Private	9.0	
	Kula Sanitarium, Maui	4.0	
	Hilo Boarding	5.8	
5-9.9	Kamehameha School for Girls	7.3	9
	Kamehameha School for Boys	8.9	
	Kohala Girls', Hawaii	8.9	
	Mrs. Wilder's Private	7.0	
	William and Mary Alexander Parsonage, Maui	9.0	
	Bethel Street Grammar	13.0	
	Mrs. Wood's Private	12.0	
	Mills, Oahu	11.7	
	Ewa Private	13.0	
	Kalihi Kindergarten	14.3	
	St. Elizabeth's Mission	12.5	
10-14.9	Kawaiahao	11.4	
	Honolulu Military Academy	10.1	
	Kamehameha Preparatory	12.5	
	Castle Kindergarten	11.5	
	Muriel Kindergarten	13.5	
	Maunaolu Seminary, Maui	10.6	
	Punahou Academy	10.6	
15-19.9	Valley School	18.0	10
	Kapiolani Girls'	18.0	
	Iolani School	15.0	
	St. Andrew's Priory	18.3	
	Fort Street Kindergarten	17.1	
	Punahou Junior Academy	15.7	
	Miller Street Kindergarten	17.2	
	Palama Kindergarten	17.8	
	Punahou Elementary	17.4	
	Baldwin House Kindergarten, Maui	16.6	
	Academy of Sacred Heart, Honolulu	23.1	
20-24.9	Alex. House Kindergarten, Maui	20.7	3
	Korean Christian Institute	21.8	
25-29.9	Liliha Kindergarten	29.9	2
	Chinese Mission, Hawaii	29.0	
30-34.9	Chinese Mission, Honolulu	30.5	5
	Mother Rice School	30.0	
	St. Mark's	31.0	
	Hilo Free Kindergarten	32.5	
	The Sacred Heart, Maui	32.7	
35-39.9	St. Mary's Mission	38.7	1
40-44.9	Sacred Heart Convent (select), Honolulu	44.0	1
45-49.9	Sacred Heart, Hawaii	46.0	1
50-54.9	St. Joseph's, Hilo	52.4	2
	St. Louis	53.1	
	Sacred Heart Convent (free)	54.8	
55-59.9			
60-64.9	St. Mary's, Hilo	62.0	3
	Waiakea Select School, Hawaii	62.0	
	St. Anthony Girls', Maui	61.7	
65 and over	St. Anthony Boys', Maui	65.8	2
	Paia Kindergarten, Maui	110.0	
	Hamakuapoko Kindergarten, Maui	85.0	
Total number of schools.			56

Schools having only a few pupils per teacher have a high cost per pupil-year for instruction and overhead charges unless the overhead is abnormally reduced and the teachers poorly paid. Poor pay for the teaching staff almost always means poor instruction and a narrow outlook. So also a small pupil-teacher ratio is disadvantageous for pupils of normal intellect by reason of their losing the inspiration that comes from working together in reasonably large groups. Such very small ratios are necessary in the case of defective or subnormal children, who in most things must have individual instruction.

On the other hand, a very large number of pupils per teacher reduces the cost per pupil-year but necessitates either oversized classes or too many classes per day, or both, which overworks the teachers and prevents the pupils from getting a sufficient individual attention. The recognized standard is 22 to 25 pupils per teacher for high-school work and 32 to 36 for elementary work, which makes a good compromise between the demands for individual attention to pupils by teachers on the one hand and the conflicting demand for economy on the other hand.

On examining the preceding table with these principles in mind, it will be seen that those 12 schools which have fewer than 10 pupils per teacher are uneconomical if not extravagant, with no special compensating advantage excepting in such possible cases as when subnormal or defective or erratic children may be under special instruction. Looking farther down the table we find 12 other schools with 35 up to 85 pupils per teacher. These schools can not give efficient instruction unless their teachers have great skill and endurance and unless their instruction is prevailingly of the memory and drill types.

The only way to prevent these extremes without sacrificing other requirements of good school administration is to get more teachers where the ratio is too large and to get more pupils or consolidate schools where it is too small. These conditions should be given consideration by those who are primarily interested in these schools, namely, the managers of the schools and the parents of their pupils.

One further point should receive attention before leaving this subject. Statistical norms are sometimes very misleading in special cases wherein conditions differ essentially from those of the cases with which they are classed: and it is therefore necessary to know these conditions in order to avoid erroneous interpretations with respect to the norm. For example, one elementary school has 60 pupils and 2 teachers and another has 30 pupils and only 1 teacher. The number of pupils to a teacher is the same in both. Are they therefore equally efficient? By no means. Assuming that both undertake to give the same number of subjects in the same number of grades, the one having two teachers should be just twice as efficient as the other, because two classes can be going simultaneously in the former of every one in the latter throughout the school day. If there were no necessity for differentiating classes with reference to grades and subjects, the one-room one-teacher school might conceivably be as efficient as an eight-room eight-teacher school. Yet all persons familiar with rural schools, for example, know that in the one-room rural school in which eight grades are taught the teacher can give to each grade only one-eighth of her school day for all the subjects in which she gives

instruction in that grade, whereas in an eight-room eight-grade eight-teacher school each teacher can give all her school day to one grade. Each school might have the optimum number for elementary grades of 30 pupils per teacher and yet, all other things being equal, the latter is eight times as good as the former and costs no more per pupil. Such facts as these must always be borne in mind when interpreting statistical analyses.

RELATIVELY SMALL NUMBERS ENROLLED IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

The summary below shows another very significant fact. Only 3 per cent of the public-school pupils and only 14.9 per cent of the private-school pupils are high-school pupils, and only 4.5 per cent of all pupils, public or private, are enrolled in the public and private high schools. The corresponding ratios for the public schools of seven American cities are as follows:[1] Newton, Mass., 25.1 per cent; Brookline, Mass., 23.5 per cent; La Crosse, Wis., 22.9 per cent; Montclair, N. J., 18.4 per cent; Solway, N. J., 12 per cent; Springfield, Ill., 11.7 per cent; Cleveland, Ohio, 9.7 per cent; average, 17.6 per cent; median, 18.4 per cent. Newton and Brookline are wealthy, high-class residence cities, while Cleveland is a large manufacturing city with a big proportion of recently arrived foreigners. The average or median of these cities may be taken as fairly typical of city conditions over the mainland and gives us a rough norm for comparison. Taking 18 per cent as the norm, we find that for the public high schools and for all high schools combined, both public and private, the Territory of Hawaii is far behind, while for the private high schools alone, which draw the bulk of their students, both elementary and high, from the city of Honolulu, the ratio approaches creditably near to the norm.

For a fair general comparison of this sort we should have the figures for entire States in the West and South, where, as in the Territory of Hawaii, population is scattered or where unskilled laborers make up a large proportion of the population.

Summary of pupil enrollments exclusive of kindergartens.

	Elementary.	High schools.	Total.
Private schools exclusive of kindergartens	4,904	845	5,749
Public schools	37,392	1,193	38,125
Public and private exclusive of kindergartens	42,296	2,038	44,874

Per cent of all private school pupils enrolled in private high schools	14.7
Per cent of all public school pupils enrolled in public high schools	3.0
Per cent of all school pupils enrolled in all high schools	4.5

[1] Calculated from table on p. 41 of Methods and Standards for Social School Surveys, by Don C. Bliss. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1918.

The following are some of the ratios for single States and groups of States in the year 1916, taken from the 1917 report of the United States Commissioner of Education, page 23. In California, 14.55 per cent of the school population is in the high-school division; in Massachusetts, 12.89 per cent; in Utah, 10.39 per cent; in Nevada, 7.38 per cent; in Arizona, 6.40 per cent. For the whole Western Division it is 11.43 per cent; for the North Atlantic, 9.23 per cent; for the North Central, 8.93 per cent; for the South Atlantic, 4.13 per cent; and for the South Central, 4 per cent.

In reference to this ratio of high-scool enrollment, both public and private, to total school enrollment in all schools, Hawaii, with 4.5 per cent, is behind all the North Atlantic and North Central States; behind all the Western States excepting New Mexico, with 3.77 per cent; behind four of the South Atlantic States—Delaware, with 5.7[illegible] per cent; Maryland, with 5.57 per cent; Virginia, with 5.53 per cent; and West Virginia, with 4.82 per cent—and behind one of the South Central States, Texas, with 5.06 per cent. She exceeds all the remaining Southern States, whose ratios range from Oklahoma with 4.44 per cent to South Carolina with 2.55 per cent.

HIGH-SCHOOL ENROLLMENT COMPARED WITH TOTAL POPULATION.

Another comparison may be made on the basis of the ratio existing between the enrollment in public and private high schools and the total population.

In the Territory of Hawaii for every 10,000 persons in the population 77 pupils are enrolled in the high schools. On the basis of this ratio Hawaii ranks with Georgia, New Mexico, Arkansas, and Louisiana, whose ratios are, respectively, 77, 77, 79, and 80.

Only two States rank below her—Mississippi, with a ratio of 71, and South Carolina, with 68. The highest ratios are California, 294; Utah, 280; Iowa, 273; and Massachusetts, 262. The ratio for Nevada is 98; for Arizona, 139; and for Wyoming, 145. These ratios also are taken from the table of the Commissioner of Education's report, 1917, page 23.

HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUMS CHOSEN BY PUPILS.

Three curriculums are authorized in the public high schools by the Territorial department of public instruction: The college preparatory, the commercial, and the general. These same curriculums prevail in the private schools with very few and inconsequential modifications, excepting in the case of the Kamehameha schools, which are primarily vocational and have work which corresponds to high-school work only in the ninth grade.

The purpose of the following table is to show for the larger and more typical private high schools the relative popularity of the three curriculums as revealed by the choice of the students. Some of the schools were unwilling to furnish data, so they could not be included in this table. It is believed, however, that the general attitude toward these curricula in the four schools whose enrollments are tabulated is fairly typical of that to be found in the others.

Distribution of pupils by curriculums and sexes in four private high schools.

Name of school.	College preparatory.	Commercial.	General.	Grade IX undistributed.	Total.
Punahou:					
Boys	94	10	9	0	113
Girls	98	11	34	0	143
Total	192	21	43	0	256
Honolulu Military Academy:					
Boys only	39	0	0	0	39
Mid-Pacific:					
Mills (boys)[1]	37	23	7	37	104
Kawaiahao (girls)[1]	5	3	2	10	20
Total	42	26	9	47	124
Episcopal schools:					
Iolani (boys)[1]	10	9	0	24	43
St. Andrew's Priory (girls)[1]	0	0	33	0	33
Total	10	9	33	24	76
Grand total 5 schools	283	56	85	71	495

[1] In these schools there is no differentiation of curriculums in Grade IX.

This table shows the distribution of pupils by curriculum and sexes in the four largest private high schools under Protestant or undenominational control. It indicates a very decided preference for the college preparatory curriculum. The tendency is especially strong in the first three schools, whose influence toward higher education is very pronounced and active. It is highly desirable, of course, that this should be so; but it might be well for all these schools to consider whether the college preparatory course is the best for pupils who do not intend to go to college, but who choose it for other reasons. Perhaps strengthening and vitalizing the other curriculums so as to make them more valuable for general education would draw into them, both from within and without the schools, more pupils who are headed directly toward commercial and industrial life, and would give these better training for their life work than they would get in the preparatory curriculum or by going into business or industry directly from the elementary schools. In this connection the discussions regarding the curriculums in this chapter and the chapter on the public high schools should be given careful consideration and study.

SIZES OF CLASSES IN THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

A very important item affecting both economy and efficiency in the administration of a school consists in the sizes of the sections in which the pupils are grouped for classroom and laboratory work. The following table shows for each of nine private schools that were studied somewhat intensively by the survey commission how many classes there were enrolling each of the numbers of pupils that are indicated in the first or left-hand columns. Other things being equal, that school is both most economical and most efficient which holds the greatest proportion of its sections to enrollments between 22 and 28 pupils. Very small sections make the cost of instruction high if teachers are adequately paid and they do not afford so good opportunities as medium-sized sections for group cooperation and collective enthusiasm. Very large sections, on the other hand, though they reduce the cost of instruction, do so at the expense of overloading the teachers and depriving pupils of a fair share of individual attention. The purpose of the table is to show how these schools stand with reference to this feature of administration.

Recitation sections or classes for nine private schools, distributed according to numbers of sections of each size.

	Punahou Academy.	Punahou Junior Academy.	Punahou Elementary.	Honolulu Military Academy.	Mills School.	Kawaiahao Seminary.	Iolani School.	St. Andrew's Priory.	Kamehameha School for Boys.	Kamehameha School for Girls.	Kamehameha Boys' Preparatory.	Hilo Boarding School.	Maunaolu Seminary.	Honahauoli School.
0–5	14			7	3	1	19	8	4		1		1	5
6–10	13	1		22	11	3	9	6	5	1		5		20
11–15	15	5		11	10	3	7	1	5	2	5	1	4	8
16–20	13	18	1	13	10	1	12	7	2	1		1	2	
21–25	10	42	6		10		9	2	2	1				
26–30	4		4		2		2			1				
31–35			4		1		2		1					
36–40							1		2					
Total	69	66	15	53	47	8	61	24	21	6	6	7	7	33

A glance at this table shows that none of these schools have classes that are too large. Those enrolling from 26 to 40 are all elementary classes, which, if too large, can be divided by the teacher into two sections, to be handled separately, one section studying while the other recites.

The great majority of the sections in nearly all of these schools are seen to include from 15 to 25 pupils each, which is near the optimum range for high-school work, but less than the optimum range for elementary work (i. e., 32–36) when economy as well as efficiency is considered.

The percentages of very small classes in each case are evidently much higher than is usual in the public schools. This condition is the controlling factor in the high cost of instruction per pupil when adequate salaries are paid, and is a large factor in the total cost per

pupil when based on all educational expenses. In most cases these classes are in elective subjects or subjects in the upper years of the high school. In small high schools some of them can not be avoided. In other cases it is advisable to combine juniors and seniors and give them each a pair of courses in alternate years. In still other cases, such as very small foreign-language classes, it may be best to reduce the number of languages offered. In vocational classes, where upper-class pupils are working on the project-problem plan, it is possible for a single teacher to handle two or more small sections in the same time period, since the instruction is individual, and in much of their work the pupils are able to go ahead independently of one another, and with only a little attention from the teacher now and then.

PUPILS WHO FAIL OR DROP OUT.

The table which follows is to show for the schools investigated what their practices are with reference to promotions and to holding pupils in school. In general a very large percentage of failures and eliminations indicates something radically wrong somewhere in the school where it occurs; and, on the other hand, a school which records no failures or eliminations, looks, on the face of things, too good to be true. It may be 100 per cent excellent, yet, again, it may be passing its pupils along without requiring of them any real effort. To know exactly what is happening, then, one must go behind the returns and investigate. A percentage of failures and eliminations ranging between 10 and 20 is common to good schools and may be considered normal. Percentages above 20 indicate pathological conditions and call for diagnosis and treatment. Percentages below 10 may indicate exceptionally good and wholesome conditions, or may indicate that the school is not exacting good honest work from the pupils. There is in almost every school, as there is almost everywhere else, a small percentage of individuals who can not or will not do the work and who must, therefore, fail or be eliminated even after all possible skill and effort have been used in order to induce them to apply themselves to their studies.

Failures and eliminations in 11 private schools and departments, 1918–19.

Name of school.	Enrolled.	Promoted.	Failed.	Dropped during year.	Per cent dropped plus failed.
Punahou Elementary	420	359	17	44	14.6
Punahou Academy	163	132	16	15	19.0
Honolulu Military Academy	128	117	3	8	8.6
Mills School	199	140	14	45	29.6
Kawaiahao Seminary	85	65	12	8	23.3
Hilo Boarding School	91	51	20	20	44.0
Kamehameha School for Boys	144	134	10	0	7.0
Kamehameha Boys' School, Preparatory	78	72	4	2	7.7
Kamehameha School for Girls	115	94	17	4	18.3
Maunalu Seminary	75	67	5	3	10.7
Ewa Private	14	14	0	0	0.0

This table shows a wide variation among the 11 prominent private schools listed with reference to the percentage of losses by failure and by elimination. This variation ranges from no loss in a small neighborhood private school to 44 per cent for the Hilo Boarding School. A percentage of failures and eliminations that runs higher than from 15 to 20 per cent of the total number of pupils usually justifies the inference that all is not well in the school, and indicates that an earnest search for the causes is in order. Are too many poorly prepared pupils admitted? Are the curricula ill adapted to the pupils' needs and interests? Is the teaching inefficient? Are the teachers too drastic in their application of standards of promotion? Do the kinds of promotion tests that are applied really test the knowledge and skill which the school aims to impart or do they test some other and unrelated thing? These things should be thoroughly inquired into by the supervisors and teachers of the schools whose mortality records are too high. These officials should read carefully the discussions of this subject in other parts of this report and in the Memphis Survey Reports, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1919, No. 50, Part 1, pp. 84–98, where they will find somewhat extended discussions of this problem.

TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS.

Two of the most important factors in the efficiency of a school are the extent of training and of experience that its teachers have had. The purpose of the following table is to show, for comparison, the weight of these important factors for each of the schools from which we were able to secure the facts with reliable completeness.

Distribution according to years of training and years of experience of teachers in certain private schools.

Schools.	Number of teachers having each amount of training, in years beyond elementary school.								Number of teachers having each amount of experience in years.			
	10 or more and master's degree.	9 up to 10 and master's degree.	9 or more and bachelor's degree.	8 up to 9 and bachelor's degree.	8 up to 9 and no degree.	6 up to 8.	4 up to 6.	Less than 4.	More than 5 years.	2-5 years.	Less than 2 years.	Total number teachers.
Punahou Academy	1	1	4	6	2	2			15	1	0	16
Punahou Junior Academy			1	5		6	2		10	3	1	14
Punahou Elementary			2	3		18			19	4	0	23
Honolulu Military Academy				3	1	3	2		4	3	2	9
Mills	2		1	6		2	4		6	9	2	17
Kawaiahao Seminary				1		8			7	1	1	9
Iolani			3		1			2	2	2	2	5
St. Andrew's Priory		1		2		2	2	1	5	1	2	8
Kamehameha School for Boys	1			5		4	3	1	10	3	1	14
Kamehameha School for Girls			2		3	5	4	1	7	6	2	15
Kamehameha Boys' Preparatory					1	2	2	1	5	1	0	6
Hilo Boarding School			1			1	3	6	2	4	5	11
Maunaolu Seminary						6			6	0	0	6

It is evident from this table that Punahou, Honolulu Military Academy, and Mills School make a very good showing on both training and experience. They insist on college graduation and experience for all teachers who give instruction in the so-called college preparatory subjects. The teachers who have not had full college training are almost exclusively teachers of elementary or vocational subjects, and nearly all of these have had some normal school or pedagogical training. Full returns from the teachers of Iolani School were not obtainable though earnestly sought. Kamehameha School for Boys employs vocational teachers on the basis of long and varied experience and skill in their special lines of mechanical work and on ability to teach these processes, not on the basis of training in advanced technical schools or colleges. A vocational shop teacher must be a skilled mechanic and he must have teaching ability. Granted these, however, it goes without saying that the more intellectual training and culture he may have the better.

2. PUNAHOU SCHOOL.

Punahou School, chartered in 1853, under the corporate name of Oahu College, includes the elementary school, grades 1–6; the junior academy, grades 7–9; the academy, grades 10–12, the music school, and the boarding department. The schools are coeducational, but the boarding department is for girls only.

The Punahou School dates back to 1841. It was founded by the missionaries of Oahu station as a boarding and day school for the children of the missionaries stationed on the islands in order that they might educate their children near them instead of sending them to the Eastern States. With the approval and support of the American board, the school was opened on the grounds which it now occupies, with an enrollment of 15 boarding pupils and 19 day pupils. Since that time it has grown through gifts and endowments until it has become a prosperous school with extensive and beautiful grounds, good buildings, and with a large and efficient personnel imbued with a fine spirit of service worthy of its founders and its traditions. It started as a tuition school and it still charges tuition, but it gives more than it receives, for the average total cost of its service per pupil is about double the average amount paid by the pupils for their tuition.

Originally established for the children of educated American families, it has continued to serve an English-speaking, Anglo-Saxon constituency, and holds to this constituency by limiting the admissions of applicants of other races to 10 per cent of its student body. Being a tuition school, its constituency must continue also to be composed largely of those who can afford to pay; but it has a number of

scholarships and half scholarships which are awarded annually to such as are judged to need and deserve them.

Because of its endowment and consequent independence, this school is in a position which affords it the opportunity to exercise a large degree of leadership in education in the islands. It is free to adopt new educational policies and can command resources and support that will enable it to try out educational experiments without waiting for the tardy sanction of the community at large. Punahou is responsible only to its trustees and to its patrons who are themselves of the educated class and prevailingly hospitable to progressive educational ideas. The president and trustees appear fully to realize that Punahou schools should aim at nothing short of the largest and most effective educational service within their means and power for the prosperity and welfare of the islands at large, and that they should not be satisfied with the limited viewpoint of the typical private college-preparatory school. The training of men and women for broad-minded, intelligent leadership in the affairs of the islands looms large in the vision of these men, as it should.

THE PROVINCE OF PUNAHOU.

This being the case, it seems clear to the members of the commission that Punahou should aim to take an important part in clarifying and crystallizing public opinion on educational matters and methods, and it should do this largely by keeping in close touch on the one hand with the economic, sociological, and aesthetic needs of the Territory, and, on the other, with the most progressive educational movements on the mainland. It should from time to time select, for introduction and thorough trying-out, such new types of courses of study, methods of teaching, and modes of organization as have been proved out in the most progressive communities in the States—always aiming to modify them so far as may be necessary to fit Hawaiian conditions.

These schools would thus constitute a proving-ground for new and valuable ideas in education, demonstrating their permanent value through actual improved results obtained with the children in the classrooms and on the campus. Thus in rendering the best service to the community it will also serve its own constituency best; and no matter how efficiently the public schools may develop on the broad lines that an enlightened public educational policy should lay down and demand for them, this school will always hold an important place, if only it keeps far enough in advance.

The fact that Punahou is attracting and holding a large proportion of those children who are likely within a few years to become

the leaders of thought and affairs hereabout, throws on the shoulders of its officers and teachers another great responsibility and privilege. It is that of properly training these future leaders, not merely for themselves and their success individually, but for the economic, social, civic, intellectual, and moral service which the advantages afforded them obligate them to render in these islands. By giving them through Punahou an expensive education at approximately half its cost, society at large, no less than their parents, is making an investment in them on which they should feel obligated to make a return in service. Hence, while the ideal of leadership in social and civic service should be made prominent in all the secondary schools, whether public or private, it should be inculcated in Punahou with particular care. The whole life of the school should make for the spirit of democracy, good will toward all races and conditions of their fellow citizens, fair play, and the desire to do things of social worth.

CHARACTERIZATION OF THE WORK AND SPIRIT.

Are the president and faculties of Punahou awake to this great responsibility? Are they earnestly, intelligently, and sincerely striving to rise to it? In all candor and fairness, after visitation in the classes of very nearly all the teachers, and after numerous conferences with the president and the principals, we have no hesitation in answering these questions in the affirmative. The school naturally falls short of many of the advanced standards that have been set up by progressive educators; but its shortcomings are such as are likely to be found in varying degrees and in various phases of school work everywhere in good schools, while in many aspects of its work the school takes rank with the very best.

The pupils of the school are generally good-humored, courteous, mutually considerate, and self-controlled. These traits they share with the pupils of all the schools that the writer has visited in the islands, and in fact with the people of the Territory generally. These are the outstanding traits among all classes, races, and conditions, but varying of course with varying degrees of enlightenment. In the recitations and all the activities the pupils are orderly and dignified. On the other hand they seem to take life quite easily, and most of them do not work very hard. Perhaps this is due mainly to the tropical climate, which is not conducive to intensive and continued application. More probably it is because the parents at home are too easy and indulgent. It seems likely, however, that a considerable part of it is due to the fact that the teachers generally are easy markers, grading the pupils too high, and also that most of them do not set a rapid and vigorous pace in the recitation work.

A general tendency to speed up the work, to drill more rapidly, intensively, and effectively on memory and skill work when that is in order, and to ask problematic or thought questions when thinking instead of memory is required—more liberal use of visual aids, such as pictures, maps, specimens and apparatus; greater attention to pointing out the practical value of the knowledge to be gained from the lesson; good humored but invariable insistence on the best work from each pupil that he individually is capable of doing, together with lower marks for mediocre and inferior or unsatisfactory work—all these means, if used, ought to secure more intensive application and more generally effective study. The almost universal testimony of the teachers in these schools and elsewhere in the islands is that the white children and the Hawaiians will not apply themselves as persistently as the Japanese and Chinese do; and this should give the former and their parents food for thought.

CURRICULUMS PURSUED.

With reference to the curriculum needs of the Punahou pupils the most striking fact is the large proportion of them who are definitely aiming to prepare themselves for entering colleges. Of the seniors this year 29 out of 41 have registered such intentions, and of the 29 only 6 are doubtful as to what particular college they wish to attend. Of the 56 juniors 44 have registered such intention, and 17 are doubtful as to their particular choices. The colleges receiving the highest number of first choices are Hawaii and California, 12 each, Wellesley 9, Yale 6, Cornell 5. Then follow Harvard, Chicago, and Smith with 3 each, and Mills and Bryn Mawr with 2 each. The following receive one first choice—Illinois, Oberlin, Mt. Holyoke, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Wisconsin, Northwestern, Michigan, and Columbia.

Of the 256 pupils in the grades 9 to 12, 192 are pursuing the college preparatory curriculum, 43 the "general" curriculum and only 21 the commercial. Most of those taking the general curriculum are reported to be choosing their studies in preparation for certain colleges so that probably 90 per cent of all pupils in the four upper years of the school are definitely aiming at college.

Probably not all who choose the college preparatory curriculum actually go to college. It would make an interesting study to go back through the records of the past 10 years and find out just what percentage have done so, but it is clearly probable from the facts presented that a large majority of those enrolled in this curriculum will go to colleges, and many different colleges at that. Since the entrance requirements of many of these colleges vary considerably,

one from another, it is easy to see that the curriculums of the school must have a large degree of flexibility in order to meet these varying requirements.

Turning to the curriculum, page 18 of the 1918–19 Punahou announcement bulletin, we find the following for the college preparatory curriculum:

Required—English, 4 units; mathematics, 2; history (college prep.), 1; science, 1; language, 3 of one or 2 of each of two (Latin, German, or French); and 3 further units to be chosen from the college preparatory courses offered in the departments mentioned above.

Elective—Other units sufficient in number to make up a total of 18.

This scheme provides for the necessary flexibility as far as the requirements of most colleges are concerned, for it includes the minimum requirements made by them in the different subject groups and allows a range of options and electives that will enable each candidate to make his adjustments to the maximum requirements of his chosen college in the various subject groups.

Turning to the content outlines of the courses, pages 22–35 of the announcements, we find that the college courses in all subjects are in line with the requirements of leading colleges; and, in addition, that most are distinctly progressive, embodying some of the recent advances in subject matter and method. For example, in English IV, a choice of reading courses in the four types of literature (novel, drama, poetry, and short story) is offered, and for the noncollege preparatory students in the junior and senior year's courses in the reading of the current magazines. There are also courses in Bible, oral expression, rhetoricals, dramatics, and public speaking. These latter courses are good in themselves as electives, but one is moved to suggest that all of them should be part and parcel of the regular four years of English work and that every teacher of English should be expert enough to teach them well. A tremendous amount of time is lost in most English classes, some of which might be thus employed; and these real live employments would result in motivating the pupils so strongly that they would do all they do now and that much more.

In the Latin course sight reading is featured and some selections from Ovid introduced. This introduction of Latin literature other than the conventional Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil might well be extended further. In order to get at sight reading of good but easy Latin literature apart from the regular grind, the pupils could easily be incited to work harder and go faster.

In modern language the outline gives the usual college list of literature for "reading" and the usual requirements for "prose composition." It is further stated that conversation is practiced from the

first of each year. The latter statement describes exactly what was observed to exist; but "reading" here, as in many schools and colleges, is not reading but translation. "Prose composition" is not writing a theme in German or French out of the mind, the thoughts coming in the language in which they are to be expressed. It really is translation of English sentences into the foreign language, just as "Latin prose composition" is really nothing but translation from English into Latin of sentences from a "Latin composition" textbook. The practice in conversation is formal and is for the sake of practice instead of for actual intercommunication of thought in the language. This results in failure to get the motivation and keen interest in conversation which almost invariably comes where the natural or conversational method is used from the first and where real reading and real composition are actually done.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE SEQUENCE.

Along the formal lines the modern language teachers of Punahou are superior teachers. They have poise, strength, personality, and scholarship, but they are using dead-language methods in too large a measure. This may suit some colleges, but usually it does not result in real command and permanent interest in the languages and literatures under study. To one who has observed modern language teaching widely it is impossible to escape the conviction that the translation method, with incidental formal practice in conversation, which is in use in most of the public and private high schools of the islands, is not to be compared with the natural method in which conversation begins the first day, with constant use in the beginning of action and pantomime, and is kept up in all the work through the years. Thus the language itself becomes at once the only recognized medium of communication as well as the subject of study. This is the only right way to teach a modern language. Pupils who learn early to talk and think in the language they are studying work much harder and more enthusiastically, so that they more than make up the time taken in acquiring a practical classroom vocabulary.

THE MATHEMATICS SEQUENCE.

The mathematics sequence, pages 41, 25, 26, takes four years for the content ordinarily covered in our best high schools in three and a half years. "Review for college examinations" is the explanation. With a good junior high-school organization, such as this school has, the simplest elements of algebra and geometry can be taught in connection with arithmetic in the seventh and eighth grades, and a half year might thus be gained; so that with intensive

work and the exclusions of nonessentials sufficient command of algebra, plane and solid geometry, and plane trigonometry also can be gained and some of the most elementary principles of graphics and analytic geometry also can be mastered within the three years of grades 9, 10, and 11. There is too much dawdling and loss of time in the mathematics sequences in almost all schools, especially in the smaller ones. Too much emphasis is placed on such nonessentials as addition of long fractions, highest common factor and lowest common multiple, square and cube root, reduction of complex fractions, and the like. Not enough rapid, intensive practice is required in factoring, solving equations, stating and solving concrete problems, dealing with exponents and radicals, quadratic equations, and the binomial theorem. These are the things needed in higher mathematics, and mastery of principles and facility in their use can best be gained by much rapid and spirited practice with easy problems rather than by much mulling over few but complicated and difficult ones.

THE HISTORY SEQUENCE.

The history sequence, page 26, is excellent as to the spirit of the scope, content, and method indicated, and in the types of textbooks used. It shows a three-year sequence, which approximates conformity with recommendations of the National Education Association committees on social studies in the reports of the national commission for the reorganization of secondary education. There is no provision, however, for community civics in the ninth grade, junior academy, as recommended by that committee. We recommend the introduction of this subject, or of civic biology, in the ninth grade in place of "general science," which should be pushed down to the seventh and eighth grades. The civics work outlined for the first six grades of the elementary school is most excellent if carried out in the full spirit of the outline, and forms a splendid basis for the upper work in social studies. It is recommended for careful study in the curriculum revision activities of the other public and private schools of the islands.

THE SCIENCE SEQUENCE.

The science outline corresponds in a general way to what is being offered in most of the best mainland high schools, and the quality of the teaching is very good, but not distinctive in its originality. It is probably unfavorably influenced in this connection by college requirements. More projects and problems of a practical nature, and more attention to the local applications of the biological, chemical,

and physical principles would add greatly to the pull that the sciences would exert on the pupils toward the formation of scientific habits of thought and permanent interests in scientific matters and pursuits, which should be characteristic of the best brains of these Islands.

THE COMMERCIAL SEQUENCE.

The commercial outline, pages 27, 28, 29, is stronger in content than the public-school outline, but we believe it gives too much time to bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting as such, and not enough to office practice, the handling of office appliances, and the content studies underlying the materials and processes of commerce and industry. If shorthand and typewriting were begun in the ninth grade and continued intensively through the tenth, they would be of advantage for actual use by the pupils in their work in the upper grades; and practice would be continued incidentally by requiring all class notes to be taken in shorthand and transcribed on the typewriter. This would also tend to keep up speed and form. Good courses in commercial geography and commercial law are offered. Science, economics, sociology, and current literature should figure more largely in the commercial curriculum. The experiment is now being tried in the school of offering special vocational courses in commercial work to be taken by graduates or pupils in the upper years of the general curriculum, on the theory that they will get better training in these after acquiring a good general secondary education. This is out of harmony with the views now held by specialists in education; but experiments carried out sincerely and consistently are always profitable, when the attitude is open minded. It will be well to give this matter a thorough test. In order, however, to decide the question, practical comparison should be made with results gained through such a vitalized commercial curriculum as has been recommended for the public high schools in Chapter VI.

THE ART COURSES.

The outline for the art courses is progressive and intelligent from the first grade elementary up to and through the six years of the junior and senior academies. It might be expanded to advantage so as to provide a wider range of projects in design than is outlined. Designs in furniture, household decoration, costumes, and millinery should be encouraged, and opportunities given in the manual and domestic arts shops for those who may wish to execute these designs. The art department should give more attention to promotion and publicity, and it should offer a course in art appreciation. It should open a similar course for the Punahou Mothers'

Club, so as to interest mothers in the aesthetic side of their children's education. The school music curriculum, which is also well planned and outlined, should be promoted in the same way.

Punahou ought to make these departments just as strong and aggressive all along the line as it possibly can, in order to lead in the aesthetic development of the community. Provision for the profitable enjoyment of leisure hours by all classes of society, especially in the lines of music and the representative arts, is much needed; and Punahou School is a logical center from which this type of social development should radiate. This has been recognized by the administration on the musical side by the organization of a well-planned music school open to all persons who are interested and qualified to do the kinds of work that are offered. It has also been recognized on the historical side, for the school is making an organized effort to collect Hawaiian legends, stories, and songs and preserve them in proper form.

MANUAL ARTS AND MECHANICAL DRAWING.

The manual arts and mechanical drawing department, pages 31, 32, 33, represents a recent development in the school, which is highly to be commended on general educational grounds. An intelligent, first-hand knowledge of the materials, tools, and processes of industry is so important a part of a modern cultural education that no school should neglect it.

This department offers an excellent program in drawing and woodwork, well adapted to the needs of the pupils who attend this school. The aim is primarily educational and social, but the effect will be also to promote needed vocational intelligence on the part of those who take this course: for a knowledge of materials, tools, and processes is of great advantage to all who are preparing for higher education, with the ultimate aim of working into higher positions in industry and commerce.

In this department the project method is being intelligently used, and the teaching activity seems to be moving satisfactorily in the right direction, with good results. The proposed extension into machine shop and metal work is in the right direction also. Promotion and publicity among the student body should receive more attention in this department as well as in those of art and music. An antidote is needed for the narrowing tendency of too close limitation of study to the so-called "college preparatory subjects." Speed the time when college entrance functionaries shall get their eyes opened to the educational values of something besides Latin, algebra, geometry, and ancient history, and shall get more in touch with the living, working world and its present problems.

THE HOME ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT.

The programs of the home economics department look somewhat weak as to statement of content and aims when compared with those in manual arts and mechanical drawing. More work, and work of greater significance should be offered for the girls, and they should be led by intelligent publicity methods to appreciate the value for every girl of practical knowledge in the arts of home making and home management. No girl is so choice that she can demean herself by learning to cook and sew and make garments. She should be as proud of such handiwork as any boy would be who had produced an artistic piece of furniture or an airplane model that will fly. Even the most exclusive preparatory and finishing schools of the mainland recognize this, or are yielding to the pressure of sensible parents; for their advertisements in the magazines are featuring their home economics courses.

The courses in domestic science, domestic art, and household management in Punahou should include more content and more practice than is indicated in the announcement, pp. 29, 30. Personal hygiene, the care and feeding of children, and first aid in sickness and injury should be taught, also the designing and making of dresses and hats. The chemistry, physics, sociology, and sanitation of the household should receive attention; and the instructors, furthermore, should go out into the community and familiarize the girls with the proper guarding of the home and public health through the work of the sanitary and health agencies of the city.

PHYSICAL TRAINING.

The principal needs in physical training are games involving running, jumping, swimming, folk dancing, and the like for developing the big muscles of the limbs and trunk, mass drills for forming habits of quick, unified and effective response to commands, and games involving skill of hand, eye, and body, such as tennis, baseball, and fencing. Most or all of these are provided in the programs of physical training for the girls and in connection with the R. O. T. C. course of military instruction for the boys. Both programs are in line with the best educational principles.

COACHING FOR COLLEGE EXAMINATIONS.

The members of the commission believe that "reviews for college examinations" should not constitute any part of the curriculum of a good school, whether its main function is college preparatory or not. If "reviewing and coaching" for examinations is to be recognized at

all, this should be permitted only in quiz-clubs voluntarily organized outside the class hours and paid for outside the regular tuition. Punahou occupies a position of dignity, strength, and independence which should enable it to put the ban of disapproval on coaching excepting for pupils who have lost time on account of necessary absence or for such as are manifestly below the average in intelligence.

Some parents prefer to pay for coaching rather than take the trouble to do their own part in making their children attend regularly to their school work. They permit them to contract habits of idleness and loafing, indulging themselves in the assurance that at the end of the term a coach will be employed and they will be "put through." Both theoretically and practically the school should set its face against all such attitudes and customs.

CURRICULUMS IN THE JUNIOR ACADEMY AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

The curriculums in the junior academy and the elementary school are worked out with unusual care; and the modern principle of participation by the teachers in the progressive improvement of the curriculums has been observed. The elementary curriculum, though very good as printed, is now undergoing extensive revision in the hands of committees of the teachers, led by the principals. All this makes strongly for good and intelligent instruction. In the revision of the elementary curriculum the report of the committee on minimum essentials, of the national society for the study of education, and the curriculums of the Columbia University schools, (Horace Mann and Speyer), and Dewey's ("The Schools of To-morrow") are being studied. These are among the best sources for progressive curriculum study. In connection with curriculum revision we recommend the use of more project work in all subjects, especially arithmetic, geography, history and elementary science, the supply and use of more maps, pictures, charts; specimens and other visual aids in all subjects, and the introduction of more supplementary reading along geographical, industrial, and vocational lines in all grades. We also recommend more and better concert work for drill subjects and better questioning for thought work. We recommend featuring the socialized recitation in all grades.

One of the best classroom exercises observed in the mathematics department was in a class in the junior academy. The teacher had stimulated the pupils to bring in all the blanks and other related papers used in the collection of taxes. These were posted in the room and copies were also distributed among the pupils, who were discussing the proper methods of filling them out and the many problems connected therewith in a lively, intelligent, and interested manner. Pupils are usually interested and will work hard on a study when

they can see its direct practical application to things that nearly concern them. This came very near meeting the test of a good socialized recitation, in that the pupils were not reciting to the teacher so much as they were discussing the material with one another.

The geography work, especially in the upper elementary and junior academy grades, is too formal and bookish. There should be more planning of imaginary journeys and more consulting of maps, railroad and steamer literature, gazetteers, and reliable books on travel in place of some of the formal question and answer and topical textbook recitations which now prevail. In literature, all the way through, more attention should be given to instruction and drill in silent reading. Wherever oral reading is required, intelligent preparation should be made for it; and the reader should understand that the interest and satisfaction given to his audience is to be the measure of his success.

It is suggested that careful study be given by the management of the junior and senior academies to the curriculum discussion in Chapter VI of this report and to the curriculum discussion in the high-school section of the report on the survey of the Memphis schools. (Bul., U. S. Bu. of Educ., 1919, No. 50, pt. 2. Ch. II and pt. 4.)

The difficulties of meeting the varied college requirements are recognized by the survey commission, yet we believe that it may be possible to make stronger, broader, and more logically balanced curriculums for groups having different aims, thus avoiding some of the aimlessness of selection that must come from so free a use of the elective system. We have most particularly in mind an industrial curriculum for boys and a curriculum for girls not expecting to pursue college courses. Such a curriculum for girls should have a central core of home-economics studies and should permit options between foreign language on the one hand and a major sequence in art or music on the other. In this curriculum the college mathematics should not be required. Most girls have no use for it excepting to get into colleges that require it. They would get far better mental training and more useful content out of natural science, civics, sociology, and economics, with additional opportunities to learn shorthand and typewriting—not necessarily to fit themselves for office jobs, but for the purpose of increasing their personal efficiency. The required mathematics of the home-economics curriculum should be restricted to household and community arithmetic and the simplest elements of algebra and concrete inventional geometry in the junior academy, with the addition of household bookeeping and the arithmetic of dietetics and budget making in the senior academy.

Punahou teachers, while representing a high average of training and experience, are not free from errors of classroom technic like

those discussed in Chapter VI, Section IV; and this discussion is commended to them and their supervisors for careful study.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUNAHOU.

The organization, administration, and supervision of Punahou School are carried out with very exceptional educational intelligence, breadth of vision, open-mindedness, and efficiency. Under the president are the principals of the four schools, the head of the boarding department, the librarian, a superintendent of grounds, an engineer, a medical examiner, and a nurse. For the clerical assistance of the president and principals there are a clerk and three office assistants. Each executive officer who needs one has an assistant. The president has furnished us with an outline of the aims, plans, and policies of the school, which shows careful study of educational problems and looks well into the future along progressive lines. In the senior academy there is not so much active supervision as is desirable; but in the junior academy and in the elementary school the supervision is very good indeed. It includes nearly all the desirable features outlined in Chapter VI, Section V. Some of these were observed in successful operation.

An excellent feature in the elementary school is a rack for the teachers, containing the current numbers of the best educational and literary magazines. Articles from these are frequently discussed in the teachers' meetings, which are held every two weeks. Another noteworthy feature of the administration is the prominence given to plans for moral and civic training, which are in line with the best educational theories in this field. These plans apparently are in operation and are producing good results.

THE BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT OF PUNAHOU.

The Punahou Campus, consisting of over 80 acres of ground, is situated in the beautiful Manoa Valley, at the base of the mountains and 80 feet above sea level. There are six buildings containing 42 classrooms, laboratories, two auditoriums, and a number of special rooms for various administrative and educational purposes. The library occupies a separate building which also houses a small but valuable collection of art works and historical relics. In Castle Hall and Dole Hall are the girls' dormitories and refectory.

The classrooms are generally well adapted to the purposes for which they are used; and most of them are well lighted. There are a few in which the light is received from the right instead of from the left as it should be, and there are a number of others from which the light is cut off at the tops of the windows by the overhanging

roof or the lanais. Plans for future buildings should avoid this and should conform to the standard ratios (i. e., length of window not less than one-half width of room, and clear glass area not less than one-fifth of the floor area).

The sketches for future development of the campus and buildings, by the architect, give promise of a steady improvement of the plant from both the artistic and the educational standpoints. The athletic grounds and equipment, including tract and swimming pool, are modern and generous. The erection of a gymnasium is projected for the near future.

The equipment in good pictures for the schoolroom walls is the best to be found in the islands, and compares favorably with that in the best schools of the mainland. There are some rooms, however, that have no pictures. Every schoolroom should have artistic and educative decorations of some sort.

The map equipment, though better than that in most of the other schools of the islands, is very inadequate. Full [illegible] of blackboard outline maps are needed for the elementary school and the two academies; also full sets of physical, political, and historical maps for all three schools. A liberal assortment of the topographical maps of the United States Geological Survey and of coast and river charts is also needed. These can be obtained at nominal expense, and can be mounted in the school. The school has a few good maps and a few of the teachers use them; but maps and other visual aids are used far too little here as in other schools in the islands.

The junior academy has an excellently planned laboratory in general science which will easily accommodate 24 pupils at one time. More can use it in emergencies without serious crowding.

The present science building of the senior academy contains a demonstration classroom and two laboratory rooms. The accommodations are inadequate, as one laboratory has to be used for both physics and chemistry. This results in overcrowding and all sorts of disadvantages. Physical apparatus should never be kept in or near a chemical laboratory where the fumes from chemical experiments are sure to deteriorate it seriously. The biology room, which is used to house a quite extensive collection of museum specimens, is too small to be used for the three purposes of a classroom, laboratory, and museum. The general equipment for biology though better than that in most of the schools of the islands, excepting that at McKinley is far from generous, and needs development. The chemistry equipment is sufficient for good work, but the chemistry is interfered with by the physics and vice versa. Like the biological apparatus the physical apparatus is fair in amount, exceeding that of any other secondary school in the islands. Most of it has been kept in good condition,

but there is not adequate space for its proper storage and use. More apparatus for laboratory practice, and of the latest design, should be added.

These needs are fully recognized by the administration of the school; and a complete remodeling and extension of the science hall together with the purchase of additional apparatus is planned for the immediate future. In working out these plans, it is recommended that careful study be made of the references given in Chapter VI.

The equipment for household arts is modern and adequate for present needs. So is that in mechanical drawing and woodwork; but if the manual work grows into the popularity which it merits, its scope and equipment will have to be considerably expanded.

Besides the educational buildings there are on the campus a residence for the president, and six cottages for teachers with families. Unmarried teachers are provided with quarters in the boarding department. These facilities are of great advantage to the school, in providing satisfactory living conditions for the teachers. For the further advantage of the teachers, the school maintains a rest cottage at Kahala beach, where teachers may spend their week ends and vacation when they so desire.

The Punahou library, in respect to housing, operation, the number and balance of choice of books, is unique in its excellence as a school library. The only deficiency noted in the books was in the line of the literature that is rapidly growing up for the promotion of industrial and vocational intelligence among children and adolescents. The tendency to develop small departmental reference libraries in the different schools and departments is to be commended. It makes for economy of time, and for more frequent use of the books than would be secured by sending pupils to the central library for all books.

3. THE HONOLULU MILITARY ACADEMY.

This school was founded by its president, Col. L. G. Blackman, in 1911. It is controlled by a board of 10 trustees of which the president is a member and presiding officer ex officio. It has no endowment, but owns a fine piece of property consisting of about 100 acres of ground and six buildings, and valued at $200,000. It is located at Kaimuki near Waialae Bay, a mile from the end of the Waialae street-car line. The buildings stand on high ground overlooking the ocean.

The school draws its cadets from all points in the islands. The 1918–19 roster shows 64 from Honolulu, 10 from Oahu outside of Honolulu, 16 from Hawaii, 11 from Maui, 10 from Kauai, 1 from Molokai, 2 from California, and 1 each from New York State, Minne-

sota, and Japan. The military régime as the title of the school indicates is a dominant feature of its organization. It began at first with instruction only in the elementary grades; but it now offers a 12-grade program of studies, and is organized in three divisions, an elementary school, grades 1–6; a junior academy, grades 7, 8, 9; and a senior academy, grades 10, 11, 12.

The student body at present consists of 105 fine, alert boys, who evidently enjoy and appreciate the life and work of the school.

CURRICULA OFFERED.

The curriculum for the first six grades is similar to that which prevails in most American school systems, but is more restricted than is usual in most of our larger cities. The theory is outlined in the announcement bulletin, page 15, as follows:

PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT.

GRADES I TO VI.

The curriculum of this department is the standard course which prevails in the best American schools, and is laid down with the purpose of preparing students for the entrance requirements of the junior academy, leading up through the academy proper to the acquirement of accredited college-entrance qualifications.

Throughout the department stress is laid upon thoroughly grounding the student in the rudiments of education before passing to more advanced branches of instruction. The pupil in his early years, therefore, is required to acquire a thorough knowledge of spelling, an intelligent grasp of the use of the English language, facility in reading, a practical business handwriting, and a ready application of the elementary rules of arithmetic.

In the lower grades a thorough grounding is given in reading, writing, spelling, and in the tables and simple rules of arithmetic. Attention is given to poetry, elementary English, geography, and simple history. Singing, drawing, physiology, and nature study are also taught.

A feature of the work of the preparatory department is the daily recitation required of each student in all subjects.

Nature study is not treated as a separate subject, except in the lowest grades. A normal boy requires such knowledge from his own contact with nature and from his own general observation, experiment and inquiry. The geographies, readers, and other lesson books abound in useful information regarding mammals, birds, insects, and natural phenomena.

Throughout the curriculum an effort is made to eliminate extraneous and unessential matters which have crept into the popular courses of study of late years, often to the detriment of subjects of approval and established importance.

The survey commission can not agree with the statement as to nature study. We are most emphatically of the opinion that a strong course in nature study and elementary science should extend through the grades of every elmentary and junior school, and that such a course would be a most attractive and educative feature in this one, where it is easy for the boys to get close to nature in many

of its most attractive forms. We know that some boys will observe and learn of nature without stimulation and direction, but that most of them will not. Yet all can learn to do so under the guidance of a wise and enthusiastic teacher who is a naturalist by taste and education. Under such guidance and instruction they may develop interest and acquire knowledge and training which will help them in all their later studies, and will be a source of pleasure and inspiration to them throughout their lives. Very few boys acquire such interest and knowledge without guidance and training.

We also believe that systematic and thorough class instruction in music and art throughout the elementary and high-school grades would add immensely to the attractiveness and usefulness of the school work.

More speeding up, more intensiveness, and greater technical efficiency in the classroom teaching would gain the time for these. Also if the study problems in English, arithmetic, etc., were made to grow largely out of the conditions and circumstances of the nature and science work, and out of the commerce and industries of the island life the motivation for study would be stronger and more intensive work would result.

In the seventh and eighth grades, junior academy, Latin and French are introduced in addition to the usual English, arithmetic, geography, and United States history. This is in line with modern thought; but why not the rudiments of algebra and concrete geometry with the arithmetic, and why not general science, manual training, free-hand drawing and design? The very purpose of a junior high school organization is to afford opportunity to carry out an enriched curriculum, with elements to appeal to many pupils of varied interests and needs, and particularly to appeal to those who are more easily interested in studying and doing concrete things than in so much juggling with abstract symbols. Unless there is such a curriculum enrichment and differentiation, and unless the junior school has its own separate teaching corps and organization, its members being segregated rather distinctively from those of the other schools, a school does not fall within the accepted conception of a junior high school. The junior academy of this school goes only part of the way toward carrying out this conception.

For grades 9 to 12 the program of studies is restricted to the traditional college preparatory subjects, with the addition only of stenography and typewriting and of "general science."

IN REALITY ONLY ONE CURRICULUM OFFERED.

The studies of this quite limited program are repeated under three headings, giving the appearance, to an undiscerning view, of three

different curriculums; but just as in the case of the public high-school curriculums and those of Punahou already discussed, there is really only one. Thus any cadet choosing the "English" curriculum can take by free choice the exact studies that he would take in either of the other two by requirement or election, excepting that he may not take Greek, which however, nobody takes anyway, and he may take stenography and typewriting which nobody is taking at present.

There is then really only one curriculum as in the case of the other schools, and a narrower one than the others at that. Repeating it under two additional headings with a slight shifting of the order of studies and a different placing of them under the words "required" and "elective" does not make it any broader. In order to show clearly that this statement is true, the studies of the 1919–20 announcement bulletin have been rearranged below and tabulated with reference to their place in the three curriculum columns and with reference to whether they are required or elective. The Roman numerals refer to the high school grades in which the subjects are to be taken.

Honolulu Military Academy curriculums.

Studies.	College preparatory.	General.	Commercial.
Latin IX, X, XI, XII	Required	Elective	Elective.
French IX, X, XI, XII	Elective	do	Do.
Greek X, XI	do	Not offered	Not offered.
History X, medieval and modern	do	Elective	Elective.
History XI, English history	do	do	Do.
History XII, American history and civics	do	do	Required.
Review of plane geometry and advanced algebra, XI.	Required	Required	Elective.
Solid geometry XII	do	do	Do.
Plane trigonometry XII	Not offered	do	Do.
General science	do	Required X	Elective X.
Chemistry, physics	One required XII	Required XI Required XII	Required XI. Elective XI.
Stenography and typewriting	Not offered	Not offered	Elective.

Constants—required in all three curriculums. English IX, X, XI, XII, algebra to quadratics IX, plane geometry X, ancient history IX.

Additional sequences and studies—required, optional, or elective.

As stated in the discussion of the Punahou curriculum, we seriously question the educational soundness of giving a half year to the review of plane geometry. If solid geometry were placed here, all necessary review of plane geometry ought to come incidentally in the preparation and recitation of the lessons in solid geometry, and a fourth of a semester's time would thus be saved to spend on science, history, economics, bookkeeping, economic geography, or some other of the vitalizing and appealing subjects of a modernized secondary curriculum.

We can not see any sound educational philosophy behind the requirement for all students of a year in ancient history, while American history and civics are made elective in two of the curriculums

and left to the whim of youthful choice. Is the answer that the boys will choose these in college? If so, why should they be expected to do so if they did not choose them in preparatory school? Since the school is as yet too small to carry out economically a more diversified program of studies, our suggestion is that it offer two curriculums—substantially the "arts preparatory" and the "scientific preparatory," the first two of the five that are suggested for the public high schools, in Chapter VI.

We strongly advise the introduction of a progressive sequence of mechanical-drawing and manual-training courses, similar in spirit and method to those outlined in the Punahou bulletin, as soon as the enrollment and income of the school become large enough to justify it.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL.

The training and experience of the teachers in the military academy is set forth in a preceding table. All the teachers are earnestly devoted to the boys and the school; and in general they are good teachers. The teaching of Latin and history are especially original and stimulating. Two or three of the teachers, however, do not use good English all the time; and these ought to be admonished to make special effort that their grammar at least be always correct. Some of the technical faults mentioned in Chapter VI are more or less common among them, and they should be led to take to heart the suggestions there made as to ways of eliminating these. The supervision of the classroom work needs development along the lines suggested in Chapter VI.

The organization and administration and discipline of the school are embodied in the military routines, and are highly efficient. They appear to be excellent in spirit and wise in every detail. Character building and the inculcation of fine ideals of courtesy, manhood, and true worth are evident in all the features of the daily routines, and show plainly in the habits and conduct of the cadets. The training here in habits of promptness, cheerful obedience to regularly constituted authority, neatness and cleanliness of person and quarters, courtesy, tolerance, fair play, and chivalry is one of the very finest things seen in the schools of the islands. The routines provide for useful and interesting employment of every waking minute; and this tends to bring back to these boys an ever-present influence against loafing and dawdling and toward a fixed habit of industry and efficiency which was characteristic of the New England farm life of the early nineteenth century, but which has nearly vanished from the lives of youth to-day.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The schoolrooms are well ventilated and attractive, but are not lighted exclusively from the left. There are bad cross-lights and shadows in many of them, a condition which in some cases could be remedied by turning the seats. In others, changes in the windows should be made. The dormitories, mess hall, living rooms, club rooms, armories and auditorium are all well adapted to their purposes, and the playground facilities are excellent.

The equipment in visual aids, like that of all the secondary schools in the islands, leaves very much to be desired. The science laboratory is too small, and only in chemistry does the equipment of apparatus and supplies approach the amount and variety needed.

Physical, political, historical, topographical, and blackboard outline maps are needed. At least one full set of each should be supplied and these should be kept in constant use. More should be added later, according as the need develops. A transit, a level, a plane table, and a sextant would add greatly to the interest and utility of the course in trigonometry. Space and simple apparatus are needed for individual laboratory work in general science and physiology, both of which tend to become too bookish and abstract.

These needs are recognized by the management of the school. Doubtless the needed improvements will be made and the deficiencies remedied in the near future.

4. THE MID-PACIFIC INSTITUTE.

This school was founded by the union of Mills School for Boys, the Japanese Boarding School, the Methodist Korean Boarding School, and Kawaiahao Seminary for Girls. Mills School was started as a small downtown missionary school in 1892, by Mr. and Mrs. Francis W. Damon, who took into their home a number of Chinese boys with the aim of giving them a Christian education. Kawaiahao Seminary was founded in a similar manner, in 1864, when Mr. and Mrs. Luther H. Gulick took into their home a number of Hawaiian girls. These schools grew in numbers, interest, and influence, and they gradually accumulated properties, endowment funds, and scholarships. In 1907 both Mills and Kawaiahao had outgrown their quarters, and better sites and buildings had long been needed for them. Accordingly these two schools and the two others above mentioned were united for economy and efficiency of administration. The present valuable site of 60 acres near the head of the Manoa Valley was acquired, largely through the beneficence of the Hawaiian Board of Missions. The building used for the boys' school and the joint high school, Wilcox Hall, was given by Mr. George M. Wilcox, of Kauai; and the girls' building, Atherton Hall,

was given by Mrs. J. B. Atherton, in memory of her husband. The school is controlled by a self-perpetuating board of trustees, whose election, however, must be approved by the Hawaiian Board of Missions. It now has an endowment of over $600,000. It has an annual income from boarding and tuition fees of approximately $26,000. It is stated by the president that the fees for board and tuition ($100 for elementary schools and $125 for high school) barely cover the cost of raw food. All the expense of operating the school, therefore, is met by income from the endowment, supplemented by generous gifts from friends of the institution.

The boys of Mills school are nearly all of Chinese and Japanese parentage. The girls of Kawaiahao are largely Hawaiian, but many oriental and Polynesian races and race mixtures are also represented. The students in Mid-Pacific, especially the boys, are diligent students, as is generally characteristic of orientals when they go to school. The most of them are in school because they know they must depend on their own efforts for a career; and they believe that an American education will help them to get on. They are a fine lot of boys, and it was especially inspiring to hear them at chapel singing American patriotic hymns with evident sincerity and enthusiasm. The teachers of the school aim to make Christian Americans out of these boys and young men of oriental parentage and competent Christian home makers and wage earners out of the girls. There is every reason to believe that they are accomplishing these purposes in an efficient manner.

THE CURRICULA OF THE SCHOOL.

The curriculums are like those already discussed excepting that English is given double time, 8 units being required for graduation instead of 4, that Bible study is required in each year of each curriculum, and that 20 to 23 units instead of 16 are required for graduation. Otherwise the curriculums differ but little from those of the public high schools, excepting that in foreign languages only two years each of Latin and French are offered, and only two years of foreign language are required for graduation.

The curriculum discussions of Chapter VI of this report and of the high-school section of the Memphis survey are commended to the managers of this school for careful study.

It is fundamentally better to look at the curriculum question from the point of view of offering to the pupils the opportunity to choose among several different courses of training rather than to choose studies without any definite central aim.

The elementary curriculum of Kawaiahao includes cooking and sewing. The cooking, however, is such as can be gained by helping in the cooking and serving of the meals for the girls and teachers.

This is educative to a degree, but the requirements of regular meals, to be got exactly on time, for a large number of persons are apt to conflict with the requirements of education. Also the specialized practice which makes for efficiency in institutional housekeeping does not go so far in itself toward developing the power of initiative and the ingenuity in meeting emergencies that is so necessary to the mistress of a private home. The institutional work gives training in the formation of certain efficient habits, and in that sense is good as far as it goes; but it is not a substitute for regular classroom and laboratory training in domestic science. The sewing rooms though too small are fairly well equipped; and the work covers the articles and principles usually taught in the elementary grades of good public-school systems. As is usual, there was good interest and industrious application in these classes.

The school is missing a great opportunity in not working into its courses in English, arithmetic, and geography many real problems and projects that grow naturally out of the housekeeping and sewing work and gardening or are suggested by them. Such problems and projects would furnish real motives for thinking, such as do not come out of formal questions and abstract, made-up examples.

TEACHING EFFICIENCY.

The teachers of mid-Pacific are a fine, harmonious body of sincere men and women. They are full of the missionary spirit, and in general very well trained. It is unfortunate, however, that there are no living provisions for married men. One of the urgent needs of the school is for cottages for men with families, such as Kamehameha and Punahou possess. This would help the school to retain the services of especially useful young men when they become more mature and wish to marry and establish homes of their own.

The status of the teachers as to training and experience is shown in a preceding table. It will be seen that they stand well as compared with the teachers of other private schools.

The teaching, like that in the other schools, is open to criticism at many points and is worthy of commendation at others. For example, in geometry the teacher is not careful to have all flaws in logic corrected by the class; yet in algebra he gives unusually good attention to bringing out fundamental principles by classifying solutions to problems under different types.

Recitations in history and geography are too bookish. Not enough problematic and thought-provoking questions are asked, and there is almost no use of wall maps and other important kinds of visual aids.

In the teaching of phonetics and language, where automatic memory of forms is the objective, concert work is not used enough, and the technic is not expert when it is used.

Examples of good questioning and exposition were observed in biology and geography, but there would be more enthusiasm and better results if more definite project and problem assignments were made. This latter is true of nearly all the subjects.

In Latin it was noted that the practice of interlining their textbooks with English equivalents of the Latin words was general among the students. This is a bad practice. The purpose of studying the Latin lesson is to get a perfect mastery of the Latin author's thought and then express it in good English. Hence the student should aim in his preparation to know the story and meaning so well that he can render it in good English in his own words and also explain the Latin construction of any passage on demand. Being human, he will not do this if he be allowed to use an interlined text. The practice of interlining can easily be prevented by using in the classroom only separate class texts, without notes or vocabulary. These are furnished by all publishers of Latin classics.

The teaching of physiology in Kawaiahao was an illustration of the extreme of formal question-and-answer, out-of-the-book teaching. It is a poor method of teaching a subject which fairly bristles with points of personal and public interest of the most appealing sort. If the school has the kind of classroom supervision that it ought to have, such ineffective types of teaching may be expected to yield place to project and problem methods in the near future.

Taking all the teaching work in both schools into consideration it may be said that the quality averages well. Most of the elementary work was equal to or better than the average of that observed in the public elementary schools, and the high-school work on the average was not quite so good as the corresponding work in McKinley and Hilo high schools.

ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

As to administration, the executive work is well done; but there is very little in the way of effective supervision of the classroom teaching. This condition, as has already been shown, is not unique among Hawaiian schools any more than in the States, but nevertheless it represents a radical defect that should be remedied. Kawaiahao particularly would probably fare better as to effective supervision if its principal would assume a more hospitable attitude toward the modern tendencies in methods that are proving to be so stimulating to elementary teachers on the mainland.

The school year is 36 weeks in length. The recitation periods in the high school are 40 minutes gross. It will be recalled that this is

below the North Central standard of "40 minutes in the clear." The high-school girls in Kawaiahao recite in the same classes with the high-school boys at Mills.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The buildings are in the Queen Anne or English gable style, the outer walls being of lava stone quarried on the grounds, and the interior of wood. They are well located and make a very imposing and handsome appearance. Half the ground is used for pasturage for the cows that supply the school with milk; of the remainder, part is leased for gardening purposes and the rest is being worked up as playgrounds and campus.

Wilcox Hall, valued at $125,000, contains 14 classrooms, parlor, library, dining room, cookrooms, and dormitory space for 195 boys. The larger boys occupy single rooms and the smaller ones large dormitories. In the basement are bathrooms, showers, toilets, and laundry, two laboratories, three commercial rooms, and a manual training shop.

Atherton Hall, valued at $80,000, contains eight classrooms, 50 rooms for the larger girls, and two large dormitories for the small girls, together with parlor, library, dining room, cookrooms, and laundry. All pupils and all the teachers live in these buildings.

In both schools the food is good and the housekeeping well conducted.

The schoolrooms in both buildings are fairly well lighted, the light coming from the left in most of the rooms, as it should. Some of the basement rooms, notably the manual training shop, the commercial practice room, and the girls' laundry are very inadequately lighted. The lighting of the basement laboratories is a little less than fair. In the typing room the machines should be turned so the light may come to the operators from the side and not from the rear. The operators work with their heads in their own light. The chemical and biological laboratories are both too small and there is not adequate storage space for apparatus. There is neither sufficient nor suitable space for teaching physics. The physics apparatus is inadequate in amount and is kept in the chemistry storeroom, where it must rapidly deteriorate. A separate room with suitable tables and an adequate amount of apparatus is badly needed in order to make the teaching of this subject effective. The shorthand room should be rearranged as to seating, so the students may receive the light from the left. Semitranspatent adjustable shades should be provided for all rooms receiving direct sunlight. The plumbing in the Mills School basement is in a bad state of repair and should be overhauled or replaced.

MID-PACIFIC SCHOOL NEEDS.

To sum up, Mid-Pacific needs a new building for a joint high school, with adequate unilateral lighting throughout and no basement classrooms. This building should have spacious and well-equipped laboratories for physics, chemistry, biology, geography, and general science, cooking, plain sewing, dressmaking, and millinery. There should be rooms equipped for typewriting, bookkeeping, and office practice, and well-appointed shop rooms for manual arts and mechanical drawing. There should also be well-equipped rooms for freehand drawing and design and for handcraft work for girls. Like the other schools examined, this school is very inadequately supplied with maps. There should be two complete sets of large political wall maps, two sets of blackboard outline maps, one set each of historical maps (American and European history), and one set of physical maps.

If possible, the school should provide a completely equipped cottage in which the girls can live for a period by turns and keep house together in small groups. They might thus learn private homekeeping by actual practice under regular instruction. As they can not all have set wash trays and electric irons when they go to housekeeping on their own account, they ought to be provided in this cottage with ordinary tubs and irons and with an ordinary cook stove so that they may become skillful in the use of these.

5. THE EPISCOPAL SCHOOLS.

The Iolani School and St. Andrew's Priory are the two largest of a group of Episcopal mission schools, situated in various parts of Honolulu. These two are located in the group of edifices of which the cathedral is the center. All these schools are under the control of the Rt. Rev. H. B. Restarick, Bishop of Honolulu, who informed us that there are no boards of control or trustees for the schools, but that he is wholly responsible for financing and operating them. His attention, however, is given mainly to the financing and to the direction of the religious instruction. He informed us that the curriculums and the operation and instruction are left entirely to the respective principals. In both schools the teaching staffs are constantly changing. Both principals are new this year. They are sincere and earnest people, but neither one has had the kind of training and experience that are essential to success in organizing a school, working out a curriculum, and supervising the teaching according to accepted modern standards.

THE IOLANI SCHOOL.

Iolani School has an earnest and well-disposed body of about 120 students; the elder ones especially seem earnestly desirous of learn-

ing all they can. They are mostly of Chinese parentage. The school has all grades from primary through high school. There seems to be a fine spirit of devotion and good will on the part of teachers and pupils; but as an educational institution it can not properly be ranked high.

The Iolani buildings are very old and are totally unfit for school purposes. There is no efficient organization, and the frequent changes in the teaching staff would destroy almost any organization that could be whipped into shape.

There is no established system of keeping the school records; and important data asked for by the commission could not be found. One of the members of the clergy who was a teacher in the school left during the survey to assume a ministerial charge, and this necessitated a radical shift in the class assignments.

THE TEACHING CHARACTERIZED.

The teaching observed was mostly crude, unskilled, and ineffective. Especially in the middle elementary and lower high school grades the class management was so poor that there was much noise and confusion and little or nothing of the instruction was made to develop logically or stand out clearly. "Volley answers," "hesitation questions," "inverted what questions," and "blank filling questions" were the rule rather than the exception. In some cases the teachers were not themselves in possession of a clear understanding of what they were trying to teach. In many classes there were serious disturbances from noise coming through the thin board partitions from other rooms. In most of the rooms the blackboard space was insufficient and the quality of the blackboards very poor. This contributed seriously to the inefficiency of the instruction.

The following extracts from the observer's field notes will serve to illustrate some of the types of faulty teaching, which also are discussed at some length in Chapter VI.

1. *Recitation in English.*—Held in dining room. The boys are picking out clauses as subject and predicate, naming verbs, etc.

Questions: Whoever comes is your what?" ——— And your subject is ———? And then your whole clause is ———? What kind of a word is suffer? Answer, "a verb." Teacher, "yes, a verb, all right."

Part of the assignment for next day was to bring in five original sentences in each of which a clause is used for the subject. No explanation was given or discussion entered into as to why a clause might be more useful as subject than a word or phrase. No motive for the assignment was apparent except that of meeting the demand of the teacher.

In a really constructive teaching process the boys would have been led to analyze an English selection within the range of their comprehension and interests in order to find out what were the uses of the

different words, phrases, and clauses in conveying the thought of the writer to the reader clearly, concisely, and forcibly. They would then have been assigned something to write about—something in which they were interested and about which they had some thought that they would like to express. They would then have been asked to analyze these and change them around in various ways until they had got them into the best possible form for expressing what was in their minds. In each paragraph the structure, form, and function of each important word or group element would be discussed, and trials would be made of changing clauses into phrases or single words and vice versa, and of changing order and arrangement to get the sentence into the clearest, concisest, smoothest, and most forcible form. This kind of procedure would furnish a real motive for grammatical thought, for it would be made plain that a knowledge of grammatical relations and of the functions in a sentence of its different grammatical elements is necessary in order to achieve either a clear expression of one's thoughts or a clear understanding of the thoughts of another.

2. *A Latin recitation.*—There is much confusion of voices. Pupils allowed to interrupt each other. General questions with "volley answers" are the most common sort. There is, however, a good development by the teacher of the uses of the different inflected forms in expressing differences in meaning.

3. *Arithmetic lesson.*—Promiscuous or "volley answers" prevail. Much noise and confusion. No principles are made to stand out clearly, although some good blackboard practice is being given. Teacher often fails to notice pupils' mistakes, and hence they are not made to correct these.

4. *A geography recitation.*—"Volley answers" prevail. Much confusion. Exclusively memory work. Little or nothing made clear or interesting. No effective use of wall maps.

5. *A chemistry class.*—Class held in a shed badly crowded and very poorly lighted, part of the light coming from the front, part from left and some from rear. Students show good interest. Teacher enthusiastic, but badly hampered by lack of space and adequate apparatus and by crowding of class.

6. *A history lesson.*—Exclusively question and answer, textbook recitation. Very slow and uninteresting.

In this school there is no real coordinating leadership, no system, and no unification of aim and effort. Consequently the instruction must be relatively ineffective. There are, of course, many students who will learn much if you teach them how to read and put them in touch with books; but a school ought to do more than this.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The building is entirely unfit for the purposes of a school, especially such a large one as this. The light is inadequate or from a wrong direction or both, in nearly all the rooms. The blackboards are very poor or inadequate in area. Aside from a small demonstration outfit in

chemistry, a few articles to be used for demonstration, and a map or two, the school has practically no equipment. There was a small manual-training outfit but it is not now in regular use.

It was stated that $100,000 of a large fund that is to be raised by the Episcopal churches of the United States has been apportioned to this school for the erection and equipment of a building. The bishop hopes that this will be available within another year. Such an up-to-date building as might be erected and equipped for this amount is certainly badly needed; but it may prove difficult to reconcile the needs of both an up-to-date school building and equipment on the one hand and the needs of an adequate boarding department on the other. Those who are to be responsible for spending this amount of money should see to it that the plans and specifications are correct and up-to-date in every detail of adaptation to the needs of a good school. This means that someone who knows about good schools should have a hand in making the plans. Otherwise there is danger that the building will be made to fit in well with the ecclesiastical group as to proportion and appearance, but that many urgent needs of the school will be overlooked or poorly provided for.

ST. ANDREW'S PRIORY.

The St. Andrew's Priory is, on the whole, a much more successful school than Iolani. It has an attractive and comfortable building of monastic style, harmonizing well in type of architecture with the church buildings. The dormitories, dining room, and kitchen are neat and attractive. Most of the schoolrooms are well lighted and of suitable size, but the school is already overcrowded. The plans for the building failed to provide for any expansion, yet the management keeps on admitting more pupils, finding it hard to refuse those who apply.

The school gives much attention to right habits of home life, good ideals, and training in English speech. In these it has been remarkably successful, according to the testimony of the bishop and the teachers.

Visitation in the classrooms revealed that the lower primary work is being well done, that the English training and the observances of courtesies in all classes and at all times are good, that the upper elementary work is fair and that the high-school work is weak.

The equipment for sewing is fair. There is no cooking laboratory and no special rooms or equipment for laboratory work in science.

The elementary curriculum is of the strictly traditional type above the first two grades excepting there is opportunity for the girls to get good instruction in sewing. There is no other handcraft work, and no noteworthy effort at systematic instruction in drawing, color,

and design. The high-school curriculum has more on paper than can be properly taught or than is being taught. It is not built on modern principles of curriculum making. The kind of curriculum which would seem to be demanded to fit the needs of the girls in this school is one in which the home interests and the interests of the women citizens should form the core. The home economics curriculum recommended for the public high schools, Chapter VI, would serve well as a basis to work from in constructing a curriculum for this school. It is recommended to the principals and teachers for careful consideration in connection with the work of building a curriculum that is better suited to the needs of these girls.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The survey commission believes and recommends that steps should be taken at once to have the control and oversight of these schools placed in the hands of a board of trustees or a board of control, who shall decide on the educational and fiscal policies to be carried out, and who shall select a competent head for the schools. The person selected should be a schoolman of experience, trained in the profession of supervising education. He should direct and supervise the activities of both schools and recommend policies to the board of trustees for consideration and approval. The salary attached to this position should be sufficient to attract and hold a competent person, or else no benefit will result.

6. THE HILO BOARDING SCHOOL.

This is one of the oldest schools in the islands. It was established in 1836 through the efforts of the Rev. D. B. Lyman, who was its principal until 1874, and the Rev. Titus Coan. It is recorded that Gen. Armstrong, who founded Hampton Institute, received much of his inspiration and many of his practical ideas of industrial education from contact with Dr. Lyman and the Hilo Boarding School. The fact is noteworthy that elementary tool work and industrial training were well started in this school by "Father Lyman" 40 years before the founding at Boston in 1878 of the first manual-training school on the mainland.

This school served well in the early days in educating leaders among the Hawaiian race, producing what was most needed among them, teachers, preachers, and intelligent agriculturists and home-makers. It also served as a feeder for Lahainaluna Seminary which was then a higher school for the training of native preachers and missionaries. From the first, religious instruction, practical farming, and the mechanical skills of the time were dominating elements of the curriculum, but instruction in the common-school branches was

also given. It has always been predominantly an industrial school, and the labor of the pupils themselves has been a large factor in building up the plant, developing the farm and maintaining the subsistence department. There has been a steady development of shopwork until now the school approaches the trade school type.

The enrollment rapidly grew from 8 boys at the opening to 75 and has stood between that and a hundred ever since. Originally entirely Hawaiian, the enrollment has gradually changed so that now more than half the students are of oriental parentage, the Japanese being the most numerous, and the remainder nearly all part-Hawaiian, Hawaiian, and Portuguese. In 1918–19 the geographical distribution of the 83 students was as follows: Hawaii outside of Hilo, 58; Hilo, 19; Honolulu, 4; Kauai, 1; Philippine Islands, 1. The school is thus seen to be serving mainly the large island of Hawaii, leaving the other islands to Lahainaluna and Kamehameha, the other two important industrial boarding schools for boys.

THE WORK OF THE SCHOOL.

The curriculum as set forth in the 1918–19 catalogue is very well worked out, and if taught thoroughly and in the spirit in which it is conceived should produce very good results. There is a consistent attempt to build up the academic work in close connection with the industrial, making the intellectual problems grow out of the occupations of the farm, the shops, the kitchen, and the dairy. This is decidedly in the right direction and is to be commended. There is a "preparatory" class for older boys who do not know English, which covers the work of the first three grades in a year. The smaller boys coming from English-speaking families make their home at the school, but attend the neighboring public elementary school in Hilo for the first two grades.

The regular curriculum begins with the third grade and ends with the eighth. The academic studies are arithmetic, English, language, and reading, biography and history, Bible study, geography, the elementary physics of the farm and shop, civics and economics, hygiene, agriculture, and music. The work includes carpentry, joinery, cabinetmaking, wood turning, and polishing. A prominent feature of the shopwork is the manufacture of novelties from the native Hawaiian woods for the tourist market. Blacksmithing, printing, painting, concrete construction, road building, and automobile repairing are also taught. One of the best features of the manual training work is the home crafts or "handy man" course, in which the boys are taught in rotation to do all sorts of handy home construction and repair jobs, such as repairing shoes, saddles and

harness, house cleaning and cooking, mending clothes, simple electrical repairing and wiring, pipe fitting, setting window glass, care of horses, vehicles and farm implements, soldering, soap making, butchering and meat cutting, caning chairs, and making knots and splices.

The learning of these things is of great value from the practical standpoint alone, but their intellectual value in giving a first-hand knowledge of the materials, tools, and processes underlying all our home and industrial life can scarcely be overestimated. It furnishes a concrete basis of wide experience out of which ideas may arise in the processes of thinking out intellectual problems of all sorts, and it also helps the boys in choosing the kind of shopwork on which to specialize. What a boon it would be to every modern city boy if he could have such experience as this, which his great-grandfather got on the farm, but which he is denied by the complex living conditions of to-day! Besides the shopwork a rather comprehensive course in elementary mechanical drawing is offered.

It would be well, indeed, for the public-school authorities to carefully examine these courses with a view to introducing similar instruction into the public schools. (See Ch. I.)

Like Kamehameha, this school is conducted largely on a military basis, military drill, instruction, and daily routine being made regular features of the boys' life in the school. As in the Honolulu Military Academy, Kamehameha, and in less degree in Punahou, where it is rather more incidental, this military regimen proves to be of great assistance in the formation of right habits and ideals. It is a most important aid in maintaining good discipline and morale, and instilling loyalty to the school and the Nation.

Athletics is encouraged, and physical training is carried on under the direction of an instructor.

The extent of the training and experience of the teachers in this school is shown in the comparative tables in the first section of this chapter. In general, the teachers have not been so fortunate in the amount of training that they have received as is desirable. If possible, higher salaries should be paid in order that teachers might have means to supplement their previous education by further study. The principal has set a very worthy example by his enterprise in going to the mainland and taking special courses in automechanics, repairing, and other craft work in order that he may teach these subjects in the school. Other teachers should be encouraged to do likewise. It would be a great advantage to the school if some of its friends who have ample means and philanthropic ideals would set aside a sum to be used by it in aiding teachers by paid leaves of absence to be used in this way.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The school possesses 44½ acres of cultivated ground and campus and about 25 acres of pasturage. It also owns water rights which are the means of contributing substantially to its revenues.

The main building contains seven classrooms, offices, library, and study or assembly hall on the first floor; dormitories on the second floor; and dining hall, kitchen, and agricultural laboratory in the basement or ground story. There are also an additional dormitory building, a gymnasium with a floor 70 by 100 feet, a shop building, principal's house, and three teachers' cottages.

The carpenter shop has benches and tools for 10 pupils to work at one time and a fair outfit of power tools, which, however, are in rather poor condition from long and continuous use. The blacksmith shop is well equipped for classes of 10 at a time. The other shops are more or less improvised and poorly equipped, but by dint of patience and industry are made to answer their purpose fairly well. Besides the school and shop buildings, there are the dairy and poi factory, the cow sheds and horse barn, a stone crusher, and the necessary stock and farm implements.

The school classrooms are all lighted from the left, and the light is fair, though the windows have the fault so common in the Territory of being too short. The auditorium, which is used for a general study room, is very badly lighted. So are the shops, and also the dining room.

The horse barn and cow sheds are in a bad state of repair, and the barnyard and grounds about the buildings are not kept so clean and as sanitary as they should be. Surely in a school of this character no more valuable contribution can be made than to develop among the pupils standards of order, neatness, and cleanliness. The care and attention to these matters observed in the classrooms and the dormitories have not been projected, as they should be, to the outbuildings and the grounds adjacent.

The school equipment, like that elsewhere in the islands, is far below the minimum of efficiency. There is very little in the way of modern apparatus for the teaching of elementary science and agriculture; and there are scarcely any good maps. The school has a good Thompson reflectoscope, and a carefully classified and neatly filed collection of pictures, gathered from all sorts of sources and including a great variety of subjects. This collection of pictures is constantly growing, and is a valuable adjunct to the teaching of geography, history, literature, and composition.

The library contains several thousand volumes, but many of them are entirely out of date and worse than useless in a school of this character. Many such books are given to schools by well-intentioned

people who have not taken the trouble to think what kind of books are suitable. Certainly no school can use books that no one else knows what to do with. They only take up space which ought to be occupied by books of interest and present value—books that would help young people in getting true and up-to-date information about the sciences, arts, industry, and culture of to-day.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The commission recommends the following changes, which are urgently needed:

1. A stenographer-clerk should be employed as assistant to the principal and vice principal. She should be competent also to act as recorder and alumni secretary.

2. The library should be carefully gone over, and the useless, worn out, or badly printed books should be disposed of. Modern books of a rather simple and elementary character, but written by scholars and authorities, are needed, especially books of biography and history, elementary science, geography and travel, mechanics, agriculture, and vocational information.

3. Either a new and properly planned and furnished study room should be added to the school plant, or the present auditorium should be remodeled and refurnished as follows: Replace the short windows that are now in the front or west wall by two banks of long mullioned windows, equal in area to one-fifth of the floor space, and reaching from the ceiling to within 4 feet of the floor. Remove the stage and also the antiquated double desks. Replace the desks by tables 6 feet long and 2 feet wide, with two folding camp chairs for each table, or by desk-chairs of the Moulthrop type. Chair legs should all be rubber tipped. Chairs should face the north so as to get the west light from the left. Shorten all the east windows and build in bookcases beneath them. Transfer all the reference books from the library to these shelves. Place a long reading table with shaded drop-lights alongside cases. Equip all windows with buff, semitransparent adjustable shades of the Draper type. Fit up a removable stage to replace the present fixed stage for entertainments. This, when set up, should be placed at the north end of the room. Provide this room with semi-indirect electric-light fixtures of sufficient power and proper distribution to give ample light for evening study or reading; and paint the ceiling a light cream color to facilitate diffusion of light.

4. Provide for more daylight in the dining room by use of prism glass lights to be inserted above the present windows.

5. The shops should be remodeled to provide better lighting. The present lighting is pitifully poor. In order to remedy this condi-

tion it will be necessary to remove the adjoining sheds and lean-to shops, especially the stone crusher, and rebuild them elsewhere. Remove trees and shrubbery that are too close to windows. Add more windows, making the outside walls practically all glass, like a modern shop building. All windows should reach to the ceiling.

The stone crusher could be installed along with the feed cutter, and use the same motor.

6. Rebuild or improve the cow sheds, providing concrete floors and proper drainage. Clean up and drain barnyard and provide concrete floor, at least near the sheds and barn.

7. Keep records of feed consumed and milk produced by dairy cows, and build up the herd by selection to the highest possible state of efficiency.

8. Negotiate with the board of education, and if possible work out a plan for cooperation between this school and the Hilo High School whereby a machine shop may be installed at Hilo boarding school, to which day and part-time scholars may be admitted. Offer thorough intensive trade courses in machine shop work and mechanical drawing for pupils of all ages who are mature enough to profit by them. If possible include night courses for young men who are at work during the day.

9. Provide more and better apparatus for the teaching of science and agriculture. Much of what is most needed could be produced as projects in the shops, but some of it would have to be purchased.

10. Provide one set each of physical maps, blackboard outline maps, and historical maps of standard authorship.

7. KAMEHAMEHA SCHOOLS.

These schools were founded and are maintained under the provisions of the will of Bernice Pouahi Bishop, an enlightened and beloved princess of the Hawaiian race, who was the last of the royal line of Kamehameha, and who died October 16, 1884. The will provided for a board of trustees appointed for life, vacancies in the board to be filled by the court of jurisdiction in the Territory, to whom, after having made a few personal bequests, the testatrix bequeathed all her estate, real and personal, for the erection and maintenance of two schools each for boarding and day scholars, one for boys and one for girls, to be known as the Kamehameha Schools.

The trustees are "to provide first and chiefly a good education in the common English branches, and also instruction in morals and in such useful knowledge as may tend to make good and industrious men and women," and instruction in the higher branches is "to be subsidiary to the foregoing objects." The board of trustees, of whom the Hon. Charles R. Bishop, husband of the testatrix, was one, issued

the first prospectus of the school under date of December 23, 1885. This prospectus sets forth the plans at some length, and among other things it says of the schools:

> While they will be conducted with special reference to advantages to be afforded to Hawaiians by preference, as the will requires, they will not be exclusively Hawaiian. Hilo and Lahainaluna, Makawao, and Kawaiahao may well be devoted to such special work; but the noble-minded Hawaiian chieftess who endowed the Kamehameha schools put no limitations of race or condition on her general bequest. Instruction will be given only in the English language, but the schools will be open to all nationalities. Hawaiians must compete with other nationalities in the struggle for national existence. It is wise to recognize this beneficent but inexorable law of competition in human society, a fundamental law in all physical life. It is hoped to help the young Hawaiian hold his own from the first in this honorable rivalry, so that he can work out his own future under conditions most favorable for his success. To this end some industrial training is for the majority more essential than any high degree of literary qualifications. The course of study will require several hours of manual labor every day, the controlling purpose of the school being to fit the boys to take hold intelligently and hopefully of the work of life.

The students are almost exclusively Hawaiians and Part-Hawaiians. The distribution of the pupils in the various grades of the three schools is shown in a preceding table. The most striking thing about the enrollment figures is the small number of pupils in each grade. The number in each of the five grades of the boys' preparatory might be doubled without materially increasing the cost of teaching and overhead service, and with very good effect on the enthusiasm of the group work. The same is true of grades 5, 6, and 9 of the girls' school. The numbers in the boys' school are nearer to the norm. However, the three upper grades are split up into specialized vocational classes, each with a very small number of pupils. Hence in this department also there might be a very considerable increase in the extent of service rendered without a proportional increase in the expense of teaching and overhead, if the number of pupils were doubled. The small classes here are in the vocational work, not the academic.

THE NATURE OF THE WORK OFFERED.

The curriculum in the boys' school, grades 5 and 6, provides for manual training, but otherwise it is rather narrowly conventional and academic. In grades 7, 8, and 9 the boy's time is about equally divided between conventional academic work and shop work that is intended directly to fit him for a trade. The shop work consists of the various phases of carpentry, joinery, and cabinetmaking, general blacksmithing, including horseshoeing and wheelwrighting, machine shopwork, electric wiring and repair work, plumbing, painting, and agriculture.

In a school whose aim is frankly vocational one would expect to find that the classroom work in the academic subjects was kept in very close touch with the work of the dairy, the garden, and especially the shops; and that the problems of English, arithmetic, and science used in the classrooms as a means of introducing the principles of these studies should be largely those that grow out of the shop and other industrial activities in which the boys are daily engaged. On examining the curriculum, we find some suggestions as to doing this, but they have not been worked out in detail, and illustrative examples are not given; so that the curriculum in its present form does not go far in helping the teachers to find and use such problems.

Observation of the work in the classroom reveals that it is quite generally of a formal nature, though well done for formal work. The teaching of spoken and written English is being very well done in all three schools. Judging by the English which passes current in the classrooms it is quite successful. Good topical recitations are very general in both the boys' and girls' schools, especially the latter, but very little of the teaching was found to be of the types that are especially effective in developing thinking power through practice in working projects and problems and discussing problematic questions.

In the girls' school, for example, we should expect to find in the arithmetic classes many problems involving costs and proportions of supplies purchased and used for the tables, of materials for dresses, hats, underclothes, room furnishings and decorations and the like; but we did not find them. There were, however, some suggestions as to the use of that sort of thing in the curriculum for the girls' school. Budgets and household accounts do appear as items in the household arts course; but the general type of procedure in the classrooms leads to the inference that these subjects are probably treated in a formal and conventional way, rather than as real projects or live problems of immediate application to personal interests and immediate needs.

Flower and vegetable gardening, chicken, pigeon, and rabbit raising and even pig raising, might be practically taught to these girls so as to be made centers of interest and motivation for more intensive study, as well as means of preparation for successful and economical types of living for prospective housewives. These things also would be just as practical for the girls who are preparing to take a normal school course and fit themselves for teaching in the rural and suburban public schools. As community leaders they also would need such knowledge and experience. The small boys in the boys' preparatory department are taught gardening, and each has his own garden to cultivate; but in this school no attempt whatever is made to use in the

classrooms problems and projects arising out of the gardening or manual training work.

VOCATIONAL AND CLASSROOM WORK UNRELATED.

For schools that are frankly vocational, as these schools are, and ought to be, and that have ample means with which to employ such teachers as are needed to do the work according to the best modern practice, this lack of coherence and correlation between the vocational occupations and the schoolroom studies is a condition which ought not to exist. It requires an explanation and the application of whatever remedial measures may be necessary to bring about a marked change. There are three possible causes for this condition:

1. The classroom teachers may be exclusively such as have received academic training only. They may not have learned that such correlation is necessary in successful vocational education, or knowing it to be necessary they may not know how to do it.

2. They may not be getting direct, active leadership and constructive supervision in this new kind of education.

3. They may understand the principle of the problem method in a general way, and accept it as academically true, but find following the old and customary habits and routines of teaching so much easier that they are not hospitably inclined toward methods that are new or different, and are not interested in trying them out.

Our observations lead us to conclude that each of these causes in some degree lies back of the failure to make vital connection between the class work and the industrial work.

In order to improve this condition, the administration will have to require the principals and teachers to study the problems and methods of vocational education, keep up with the development of theory and practice in it, and to make such study, individually and in round-table discussions, a very important part of their business.

As a result of these studies and discussions the curricula of the three schools should be developing progressively toward consistent statement in terms of the problem method. The curricula themselves should be concise and comparatively brief outlines, but an explanatory handbook should be worked out to accompany each of the sequences of courses, telling with specific examples and illustrations how the different fundamental principles are to be taught through practice in working out problems and projects. For the teacher the aim is to teach general principles through problems and projects and to form habits, inculcate ideals, develop thinking ability, and impart information by means of them; but the teacher must remember that if the pupil is to work in the most successful way

he must become possessed of a strong and impelling motive; and that such a motive most often arises out of the desire to carry out a project or solve a problem that appeals to him as being worth while for its own sake. To the pupil therefore the completion of the project or the solution of the problem is the immediate aim, and the values of the more permanently important things that the teacher has in mind are so little comprehended and so inadequately appreciated because of his youth and inexperience that they are incidental. The teacher then must plan projects that will make an appeal, and that at the same time involve opportunities for the practice that is necessary to the pupils for acquiring the habits, skills, ideals, thinking ability, and information that are part and parcel of "a good industrious citizen" and competent skilled worker.

It seems to the members of the survey commission that there is too distinct a line of demarcation between the academic and the vocational work, and between the two types of teachers who are giving the academic and the vocational instruction. The vocational teachers understand their special work, and apparently are giving good instruction in their trade processes and skills; but they ought to know more about the types of academic work that are applicable to the kinds of pupils they are training; and they ought to suggest projects and problems, from their trade and shop tools, materials, and processes, that will be useful to the academic teachers in training the pupils for general intelligence. On the other hand the academic teachers are good teachers of the conventional elementary grade sort, but several of them are badly beset by the technical faults that are common among teachers; and most of them are deficient in vocational insight, and in knowledge of the best things that are going on elsewhere, and even in their own school, in vocational education. Hence they are not resourceful in hooking up the academic work with the vocational in such a manner as we have indicated.

In order to bring about this desirable change there should be brought into the schools some teachers who are trained in vocational education on the theoretical as well as the practical side. There should at least be one such person in the boys' schools and one in the girls' school. Such teachers would be very useful on their own account, because of their knowledge of both vocational and general culture studies; but they are particularly needed to assist in bringing about through individual conference and round-table discussions a better knowledge of the nature and functions of the basic cultural studies on the part of the vocational teachers, and a better knowledge of the vocational work and a broader and deeper insight into the social and educational functions of the vocational studies on the part of the academic teachers.

With the development of more effective supervision it seems probable that the teachers now connected with the school can modify their methods, and make them more truly effective for the kind of vocational education that the school is aiming to give; but if after fair trial some of them should not prove able to do so, it would be well to assist them in securing positions in schools where the work is more academic in aim. In view of the teacher famine that is destined to prevail it should be easy for them to secure such positions.

ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND COST.

Kamehameha schools have an elaborate system of administration, consisting of the president, a chaplain (part time), a principal for each of the three schools, six office secretaries, an alumni secretary, an accountant and purchasing agent, a bookkeeper, a storekeeper, three matrons, five assitant matrons, a physician, a dentist, and three nurses. The relationships of these officials are in accordance with well-established principles of administration; and the organization, apparently, works smoothly and harmoniously. Were the schools not spending less than their income, the question would probably arise as to whether, for only 338 students, it were necessary to have three principals, five principals' secretaries, and three nurses. If the school were supported by public taxation, pressure would certainly be brought either for a little more centralization and economy in the overhead activities, or for assigning more pupils to the care of the officials in charge.

The table which follows shows the administration and supervision costs per pupil in each of the three schools. The cost per pupil for general administration is computed by finding the sum of the salaries of the president, graduate secretary, president's secretary, purchasing agent, chaplain, and storekeeper and dividing it by 338, the total enrollment of these schools (i. e., $13,150÷338=$38.90). The cost per pupil for salaries and expenses of principal is computed for each school by summing the amount paid the principal and clerical asistants and dividing by the enrollment of that school.

These costs, then, include only salaries of administrative personnel and do not take account of stationery, supplies, and other service. Also, in the absence of definite information as to how much of the time of these officers is given to the educational departments and how much to the boarding departments and general business of the school plant, it is arbitrarily assumed that half their time is given to each, so in computing for this table the costs for administration and supervision of school work one-half the total of such cost is taken in each case.

Costs of administration, supervision, and instruction. Kamehameha School.

	Boys' school.	Boys' preparatory.	Girls' school.
Salaries of teachers	$24,270	$8,580	$15,960
Salaries, general administration, $13,150			
Salaries of principals and clerical assistant	$4,500	$4,800	$5,310
Enrollment	151	75	112
One-half cost per pupil for principal and clerical assistants	$14.90	$32.60	$52.70
One-half cost per pupil for general administration	$19.45	$19.45	$19.45
Total cost per pupil, school administration and supervision	$34.35	$52.05	$43.15
Cost per pupil for instruction	$160.07	$170.40	$112.50
Total per pupil, administration, supervision and instruction	$194.42	$222.45	$155.64
Ratio cost of administration and supervision to cost of instruction	1 : 4.66	1 : 3.27	1 : 3.30

Three interesting facts are shown by this table:

1. The costs of supervision and instruction in all three departments of the school are high as compared with the public schools. Thus, in 18 cities of the United States with populations from 25,000 to 750,000 the average expenditure per pupil for instruction was $32.39 and the sum of the averages for superintendence, management, and supervision was $5.77; total, $38.16.[1] Kamehameha costs average pretty nearly the same as at Punahou, where the per capita cost based on instruction alone is reported by the president at $115.85 while that based on all expenses is $216.46. These figures, however, are not fully comparable, because the boarding department of Punahou is a relatively small factor in its demands on overhead service, and also this total may include all operating expenses, such as light and janitor service. Janitor service at Kamehameha is done by the students cooperatively, and involves no large cash outlay.

2. The boys' preparatory department costs more per capita than either of the other schools, although it ought to be the cheapest. The reason is to be found in the small number of pupils. If the number of pupils were doubled the classes would still not be too large, and the per capita cost would be cut to one-half. That is, this department without extra expense for the administration and instruction might be taking care of 150 pupils instead of 75.

3. The salaries of the principals in the three schools are graded in the order, but not in the ratio, of knowledge needed and responsibility assumed. The amounts spent for clerical assistance seem to bear no relation whatever to these fundamental factors. In the girls' school the amount is more than double the corresponding expenditure for the boys' manual school; and that spent for the same purpose in the boys' preparatory department is a little less than double. If two secretaries are necessary in the girls' school, and two in the school for the small boys, why should only one be needed in the school for larger boys? And why should as much clerical as-

[1] From data given in the Cleveland (Ohio) School Survey.

sistance be required in taking care of 75 small boys in grades 1 to 5 as in taking care of 112 girls or of 151 boys in grades 5 to 9?

Possibilities for greater efficiency should be studied.

The facts that have been mentioned with regard to administration suggest that some attention should be given to a study of the possibilities for greater efficiency in this field. Since the school is not pressed for funds, there is no object in merely saving the money. The money in fact is intended to be spent; but every effort should be made to have it go as far as possible for actual results in education.

One thing seems certain. The teachers and administrators are receiving salaries that are more nearly adjusted to the value of their service as related to the present costs of living than are those in most schools; and this is one reason for the relatively high costs. The other reason is the small enrollment in many of the classes. There should be no reduction in salaries, but a careful study ought to be made of the possibilities of increasing the size of the school or of certain classes, and also of the possibilities of getting more effective supervision and educational leadership for the teachers from those who are responsible for this function, and are well paid for exercising it.

It is believed that the principals are sincerely desirous of giving just such service; but in order to succeed fully in their attempts they need to direct their educational studies away from the traditional classroom methods and toward a first-hand study and understanding of the vocational work. The problem in which the teachers most need guidance is that of how to correlate the classroom work with the vocational work through the use of projects and problems that arise out of the vocational activities or are suggested by them.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT.

The school plant when first erected and the equipment when first installed were considered modern and generous according to the standard of the time; but all the units can not be so considered now. The main building of the girls' school is a bad fire risk. It is hard to see how the dormitories on the third floor can be regarded as otherwise than dangerous. Also the tower room on the fourth floor, which is used as an art room, is connected with a fire escape which leads from a window down the steep-sloping roof to the level of the eaves, where it opens on the platform for the third-floor escape. Not only would it look fearsome to a bevy of frightened girls, but it is also difficult to reach, since it starts at the sill of a high window to which no steps are provided. In the States where there are adequate fire laws the use for school or dormitory purposes of rooms above

the second story, in wooden or nonfireproof buildings, would not be permitted. In the islands the absence of heating plants in the school buildings somewhat reduces the fire hazards, but the presence of electric-light wires, as is well known, is one of the chief sources of fires.

Aside from the fire risk the girls' building is homelike and the school classrooms are well designed as to lighting and spacing. The main defect lies in the absence of suitable laboratory rooms and equipment. There is almost no equipment for laboratory or demonstration work in science. The equipment of maps is inadequate. While there are a few good maps, there are many others that are either very poor or very much out of date. As to maps, the same is true even in greater degree of the boys' schools. Physical and blackboard outline maps are especially needed, and when obtained should be more often used than are the maps now on hand.

The boys' manual school has one laboratory which is pretty well equipped for chemical experimenting, but there is neither sufficient floor and table space, nor sufficient equipment for physical and biological experiments.

In the development of the islands the biological and physical sciences and geography are playing such a large part, and need to play so much larger part in the future, that no reasonable expenditure should be spared for facilities in teaching them concretely and with full means of illustration.

The school shops are fairly well equipped with tools and machinery, but the shops themselves are far from being well designed, neither do they admit of further expansion. Some of the machines are strictly up to date and motor driven, and this is well; others are old and not in the very best of condition. It is believed by many excellent vocational teachers that it is not well to have an equipment which is too elaborate and extensive, because if students work only with such equipment they do not learn to adapt themselves to conditions under which the average shop is conducted. The kind of mechanic for whom there seems to be the greatest present and prospective demand in the islands is the one who can do the job with whatever machinery and tools are available; so that the resourcefulness that must be developed by overcoming difficulties with modest equipment is a real asset. However, when machines become so old as to be incapable of turning out good work, even with care and ingenuity, they should be rebuilt in the shop or discarded.

The dairy is complete, modern, and supplied with the best of cattle, but at the present site there can not be grown sufficient forage for their maintenance. A fine stock of pigs is being raised on the grounds, but the spaces available for them to run in are not adequate for exemplifying the best methods of stock raising. Rabbit raising

has been introduced as a project for the boys, as an introductory type of training for the greater responsibilities of a pig-raising project. The agriculturist reports that 75 per cent of the boys undertaking this work carry it through satisfactorily, while 25 per cent of them fail because of neglect or indolence. He seems somewhat discouraged at this result, but we believe that for the beginning of the enterprise this percentage is encouraging; with more experience in handling the boys on this project it is probable that a much larger percentage of them can be so trained and motivated as to stick to the work and make a success of it.

The libraries in the three schools are extensive and well housed. The main library in Bishop Hall, the principal building of the boys' manual school, contains over three thousand volumes and the girls' library over a thousand more. The main school library contains a good many books which are of doubtful value for the school and which might well be disposed of; but there are many recent additions, and the usable books are pretty well balanced as to the different fields of knowledge. The greatest needs are for more recent books on biography, on civics, economics and social problems, on science, on geography and travel, and above all for some of the recent suggestive literature on the processes, requirements, working conditions, opportunities, and rewards of the various vocations.

Student participation in government is developed successfully in these schools to a very considerable extent. In the boys' schools this is closely tied up with the military training, which seems to be thoroughly efficient in developing individual initiative, school loyalty, and sense of responsibility. Much of the oversight and control of the boys is exercised through authority delegated to student officers, who seem to carry their responsibilities well. Much of the discipline is administered through a students' council.

In all three schools, the manual labor required in connection with the maintenance and operation of the school, and boarding plants, and the regular daily program of fixed duties are features of great value to the students in the formation of habits of promptness, obedience, and industry.

PROBLEMS FACED BY THE SCHOOL.

In looking toward a consistent and useful educational policy for the future the trustees of Kamehameha have before them a puzzling problem with a variety of conflicting conditions, the most significant of which are enumerated below.

1. Several of the buildings are not well adapted to their uses, or are in such a state of deterioration as to demand constant and expensive repairs, so that the rebuilding and remodeling of the plant will soon become imperative.

2. The city is rapidly growing up around the property; so that the very desirable seclusion heretofore enjoyed by the girls' school will soon be a thing of the past. From a suburban school formerly well removed from the immediate and incessant distractions and temptations of a rapidly growing city, these schools are fast becoming city schools. On this account they are losing for both girls and boys many of the advantages that are peculiar to a boarding school in a suburban or open-country location.

3. The underlying industries of the islands are probably destined to be mainly agricultural or tributary to the needs of agriculture. Many who have given much thought to the mission and purpose of the school have believed that training in the science and art of agriculture should be one of its most important types of work. The study of the situation made by the commission leads it to concur with them in this belief.

4. After numerous, well-considered, and persistent attempts to develop the present groups for productive agriculture and for a laboratory of instruction in agricultural methods it seems fairly well proved that these grounds are not at all well adapted for these purposes.

5. Certainly for the present, and probably for a long time to come, the culture of sugar cane and pineapples on a large scale will be the main types of agriculture, with cattle, pigs, and other live stock coming forward rather rapidly toward a position of importance among the products of the Territory. In these three most important industries very little can be done either for production or instruction at the present site of the school.

6. As far as the boys are concerned the school is having the effect of gathering them up from all over the islands and attracting them toward life in the city. According to President Webster's statistics about 75 per cent of all the living graduates, and 89 per cent of the living graduates of the past 10 years, now reside in Honolulu.

This certainly means that the school as now conducted in its present location is training its students into the ways of city life. It is doing very little to educate them in tastes and abilities for doing, out on the land, many kinds of work that need to be done there and will command high wages but which can be done only by fairly intelligent and technically trained workers.

7. The capacities of the three schools for the accommodation of boarding pupils are, respectively, boys' preparatory, 75; girls' school, 112; boys' school, 150. Each is filled and has a small waiting list; but in each the school enrollment could be doubled with very few additions to the number of schoolrooms or the number of teachers.

THE INCOME OF THE SCHOOL.

8. The income of the portion of the Bishop estate which has been set aside for the school has been growing rapidly, and the expenses have also been increasing, but not so fast as the income, so that for several years a surplus has been accumulating. The amount of the surplus is reported to be sufficient for the rebuilding and remodeling necessary to modernize the plant.

9. Since the income is greater than the schools can now use to advantage—indeed, the enrollment could be doubled without exceeding the income—it would seem that every effort should be made to expand to the point of absorbing the annual surplus, reserving only a margin for emergencies. They would thus be educating a larger number of youth at a much smaller per capita cost and on a higher level of educational efficiency.

10. In the first prospectus issued by the trustees it was announced, as a part of the educational policy, that the Kamehameha school would avoid duplication of the work of the public schools. The survey commission believes that this intention to avoid duplication and competition for pupils is fundamental, and should be a controlling factor in shaping the educational policies of the trustees.

We are convinced that the private schools, and especially this one, ought not to be doing exactly the same work as the public schools are doing, and that they should not compete with the public schools for students.

On the other hand, they may very wisely undertake to do many things that are educationally desirable, but which the public schools can not do, and also many things that the public schools ought to be doing but are not now doing.

11. For a long time it has been a policy, not published but tacitly adhered to, not to admit day pupils to Kamehameha school. The managers and trustees of the school seemed to think that the presence of day scholars would disturb the organization of the boarding school, and cause it to lose many of the character-forming features of a school exclusively for boarding pupils. The opinion seems to prevail that boarding and day pupils do not mix well.

On the other hand, it may be urged that without increasing its boarding accommodations the boys' school might admit enough day scholars to double its enrollment. It might then accommodate 150 additional boys of Honolulu whose parents prefer to maintain them in their homes, but want them to secure the vocational training which this school offers, and no part of which, until the inception of the public trade school during the current school year, has been offered by the public schools.

THE SCHOOL NOT NECESSARILY LIMITED TO HAWAIIAN RACE.

12. In Honolulu it is generally taken for granted that Kamehameha schools were originally intended to be, and always will be, operated exclusively for the benefit of youth of Hawaiian blood. The Hawaiians themselves, and especially the alumni of the school, appear to believe that these schools should be reserved for the people of this race.

It is quite natural that this opinion should prevail; and up to date the school has been almost exclusively Hawaiian; yet it is not necessarily nor even probably correct for all time. The clauses in Mrs. Bishop's will and the original prospectus, already quoted, do not require such an interpretation. The will merely mentions giving preference to those of Hawaiian blood, presumably in the distribution of benefits to children in destitute circumstances (free scholarships).

The prospectus distinctly enunciates the doctrine that no race should be excluded and that children of other races should be admitted in order that the young Hawaiian may learn in school to compete successfully with those whose competition they must meet in later life. As Mr. Bishop was one of the trustees who framed the prospectus, it must be assumed that his wife held this view, for he left no stone unturned to carry out her desires in connection with the school.

The question of admitting other races to the school has frequently arisen, and in view of the evidence and the circumstances it seems fair to conclude that a wise policy should give preference to members of the Hawaiian race. So long as a sufficient number of Hawaiians apply to fill the quota and so long as these are all that can and will profit by what the school offers, they should be admitted even to the exclusion of other races. Supposing, however, that by admitting day pupils, or otherwise providing for expansion, the school should be prepared to double or triple its enrollment and that a sufficient number of worthy Hawaiian candidates should not be found to fill the school, we believe it would be not only proper but desirable to do as the Hilo Boarding School has done, and open the door to all deserving and promising candidates.

GRADUATES DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONS.

13. In considering what trades and occupations the school should prepare for, the following revised statistics from the alumni list are significant: The total number of living male graduates up to and including the class of 1918 is 359. Their distribution by occupations is as follows: Manual trades, 110; clerical service, 61; Government

service, 39; education, 33; business, 29; agriculture, 28; professions, 13; music, 12; Army and Navy, 9; unknown, 25.

The total number of living girl graduates is 220; their occupational distribution follows: Housewife or living at home, 104; education, 76; nursing, 14; clerical work, 9; trade, 4; Army and Navy, 1; unknown, 12. Of the number 133 are married.

In both lists students in public and private high schools are classed with teachers under education.

These figures are interesting as showing the vocational tendencies of the graduates. Many who are here classed under clerical are in Government, municipal or county service; and many who are classed as in business are in clerical positions. While 110 or 31 per cent are engaged in mechanical work, 162 or 45 per cent are in clerical, Government, business, or educational occupations, and only 28 or 8 per cent in agriculture.

Since the school does not give any special training for clerical positions and does give special training in mechanical trades and offers it in agriculture, these figures show the existence of a real need for a continuing system of vocational surveys and vocational and educational guidance, which should be maintained by this school. Many graduates are going into minor jobs of a clerical nature, where the opportunities to rise are rare. With the training in mechanics and agriculture available in the school, with a wide outlook and with ambition aroused by vocational guidance, probably most of these could command better wages on the plantations as mechanics and skilled agricultural workers. They would have more and better opportunities to rise to greater responsibilities and rewards on the plantations than they could have as clerical workers, where the demand is already well supplied. This whole subject needs careful investigation from the standpoints both of the industries, which need various kinds of trained workers, and the schools, which are attempting to provide the training. If the trend toward clerical work and governmental jobs should prove to be inevitable, then the school should offer the best possible training specifically for such positions.

The figures show that the Hawaiian girls have a remarkably strong tendency to marry early and settle down as home makers. Out of the total of 220 graduates, 133, or 60 per cent, are married, although 29 per cent of these are listed under occupations other than housekeeping.

Home making, nursing, and teaching, then, are the leading occupations chosen by the girls, and training for these is prominent in the aims of instruction as stated by the teachers. Whether this strong tendency to marry early may not result in a large percentage

of ill-considered and unwise marriages, and whether opportunities for training in a larger list of occupations, such as seamstress, dressmaker, milliner, saleswoman, and stenographer, ought to be opened up and attractively presented to the girls, are questions that should be carefully looked into.

14. The public-school system is beginning to develop along modern lines, but as yet its accommodations are inadequate and its types of training too narrow. In view of the probable development of the public-school system and the policy of nonduplication to which Kamehameha is or should be committed, and in view also of the other conditions here described, the trustees have found difficulty in coming to an agreement on a consistent educational policy for the future, and for the past two years the school in consequence has not been making progress.

The tendency has been to neglect repairs and betterments, to let the schoolroom equipment run down, and to drift along without making any considerable improvements in curriculums or methods.

Among the teachers there appears to be a tendency to settle down into a kind of easy-going institutional type of living and to be rather too well satisfied with the status quo.

The question of a future educational policy is bound up with that of the location of the school, so that both must be settled together.

THREE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS.

To the survey commission it seems more important that both questions be settled without further delay than that they be settled according to any particular one of the possible solutions. We can find only three solutions:

1. Proceed at once to rebuild on the present site, and develop as a city boarding and day school.

2. Build on the property at Waialae Bay and develop as a suburban boarding school, or on property of the Bishop estate on Oahu, farther away from Honolulu, and develop as a rural boarding school.

3. Keep the boys' school where it is, and develop it as a mechanical trade school, with possibly a business department. Build for and establish the girls' school and set up an agricultural branch school for boys at Waialae or on a suitable tract in rural Oahu.

THE FIRST PLAN.

If the first-named solution be adopted, the boys' school would become a boarding and day school with a large number of day pupils, including orientals up to say 30 or 40 per cent, and offering many types of vocational training for city boys or for boys from outside Honolulu who have their eyes turned cityward. It would cease to

offer agriculture as a vocational subject. It would develop night courses, part-time day courses, and cooperative shop and store courses.

The girls' school would continue to feature home training, but would improve and broaden the intellectual training and connect it up closer with real life interests. It would be a city school, identified and connected with urban life and activities. It would admit day pupils and offer office training as well as preparation for normal school, salesmanship, nursing, and the needlework trades.

If the schools stay in the city, it seems to the commission that they must inevitably develop as indicated or gradually die of dry rot. With an adequate development of the city and rural public schools the "preparatory school" for the younger boys will become superfluous within a few years and will be discontinued.

If the public schools go forward as they should, they will in time be carrying on all the types of activity that we have indicated; and the Kamehameha schools will be duplicating their work, unless, as may happen, the public should shirk the task, and leave it for Kamehameha to carry on. This it is very likely to do unless the trustees make it plain that they are only pioneering this field and intend to retire from it in due time. In the latter case the question of determining on an educational policy for the future would still be unsolved.

THE SECOND PLAN.

If the second solution be chosen and the schools are established either at Waialae or on a tract in rural Oahu, a unique type of school can be developed which will have a distinctive and permanent field of its own.

With such a large tract of land as will be available one can picture in his mind's eye a large plantation with fields of cane and pineapples, with a small, but complete and up-to-date sugar mill, a small cannery and a technical laboratory, a stock and dairy farm, a large vegetable garden, and a garden and nursery for the culture of flowers and ornamental shrubs. There will be sufficient land for producing all these things on a commercial scale and for producing most of the food that is needed for the maintenance of the pupils, teachers, and hired labor.

Here, right on or near the plantation, will be located a boarding school of a new and unique type—a plantation school, both agricultural and mechanical. Here all the plantation industries will be going forward normally on a production basis under the eyes of the pupils.

The school buildings will be of concrete, in the early English or Spanish mission style, grouped around a quadrangle, with the administration building at one end and the chapel at the opposite end.

On one flank of the school group and facing the parade ground will be the barracks group, including the sleeping rooms, study hall, mess hall and kitchens, the armory, and the gymnasium. On the other flank will be the shop group, with modern shop buildings and equipment, and near by the school groups will be the athletic fields and playgrounds.

Sufficiently removed from the boys' school and the plantation will be the girls' school group, with a modern dormitory and cottages, where the girls may learn not only institutional housekeeping but family housekeeping and "light housekeeping" in cottages and small apartments, for the latter are the types of housekeeping which will later come into their own experience. There will be a gymnasium and playground for the girls, and well-equipped laboratories for cooking, sewing, dressmaking, millinery, and general science, and a home laundry where the girls will do their own laundry work and learn by doing all the processes of home laundering and cleaning. There will be a hospital for the plantation and schools, where the girls can learn nursing by practical experience in cooperation or part-time courses. There will also be a visiting nurse and social worker, under whom the girls can get practice in social and community welfare work.

The school group for the boys will contain laboratories for physics, chemistry, and general science, as well as a sufficient number of classrooms. The center of the administration building will be occupied by the auditorium, one wing by the library and reading room, and the other wing by the administration offices. The basic vocations for which the school will offer training are: Agriculture, carpentry, joinery and cabinet making, drafting, blacksmithing, horseshoeing and wheelwrighting, plumbing, general machine-shop work, and the operation, care, and repairing of auto cars, trucks, tractors, and plantation and farm machinery.

Courses in shoe, harness and saddlery repairing, steam laundry work, concrete work, road building, and other occupations will be given when sufficient numbers of boys will take them so that they can be taught with reasonable economy. The general aim of the school will be twofold: First, to find out what kinds of jobs are opening up that offer a useful and hopeful career to young men with some intelligence and promise; and, second, to attract such young men into the school and train them for these jobs. The training, of course, should not be confined to the mere getting of skill in mechanical processes. The intellectual training will go forward with the hand training and both will be aimed toward building up through actual practice the skills, habits, information, and thinking ability that is most needed by men in the kinds of

jobs for which the training is intended. Consequently, the classroom work must be based largely on problems and projects that come up in the shop or plantation work or are suggested by the information requirements of such work.

The aim will be to make not merely skilled workmen in various lines but skilled workmen with at least some ability to meet emergencies and new situations while on the job—men who are capable, with experience, of becoming foremen, small contractors, small-shop proprietors, skilled plantation employees, homestead or leasehold farmers, etc.

Since the plantation itself will be carrying on or can carry on, on a commercial basis, practically all the occupational activities for which the students will be trained, the school and the plantation can provide for night classes, part-time day classes, and cooperative apprentice courses of the most efficient sort. The business offices of the plantation will afford opportunities for similar cooperative courses in business education.

The religious and the aesthetic sides of life will not be neglected. There will be provision for religious instruction and service and opportunities for class and club instruction in literature, music and art, for both boys and girls.

There will be ample chances on the plantation for boys and girls who have ability to make something of themselves, but are poor and friendless, to come here and work their way through, or at least to prove their worth and promise to an extent that will justify awarding them free scholarships or part scholarships.

The plantation and school will keep in close touch with the college of Hawaii and the department of agriculture and will cooperate with the experts of these institutions with reference to both production and education.

In such a school as this, removed from an immediate city environment and surrounded by and participating in the interesting activities of a plantation, it would seem that the attraction toward rural life and occupations would be stronger than the pull toward the city.

THE THIRD PLAN.

The third plan is in the nature of a compromise or temporary solution. It would get the girls away from the city and provide new, safe, and adequate buildings in place of the dangerous wooden structure now in use. It would also provide for the boys opportunities for learning agriculture at first hand and under conditions affording a strong pull toward rural life; but the number of boys who would elect to attend the small branch school in agriculture as against the larger school in the city, training for city trades,

would probably be relatively small. Also it would split the school; and whatever of efficiency and economy in management and community of interests there might be in keeping the schools in close proximity and running them under one organization would probably be lost.

Furthermore, the development of that part of the school which remained in the city would be precisely like that described in the discussion of the first plan. The time would come ultimately when the trustees would have to determine whether to do, in the place of the public schools, the work which obviously they should do, or to compete with them for students in this work in case the public schools do undertake it, or to retire from the field and sell its plant to the public schools.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

In view of this analysis the wisest and most farsighted policy for the trustees would seem to be to adopt the second plan—the plantation school.

Whether the boys' manual school moves or stays, one thing seems to the survey commission to be very important—more attention should be given to vocational guidance. This vital work should be taken in hand by some one who can give it a great deal of study and practical attention, involving careful study of occupational conditions and opportunities in both the cities and in the rural sections of all the islands. The vocational director should also use his traveling opportunities to look up promising boys who need just the chance that Kamehameha can give them and can not get it at home. He should be active in attracting such boys to the school. He should make known to the people in the various districts the advantages which Kamehameha can offer to their boys and girls.

While a considerable portion of his time should thus be occupied, his main function should be that of a vocational guide and coordinator in the school. Individually he should study the pupils' tastes and abilities and assist them in their choice of studies and make the vocational meanings and connections of their studies clear to them. He should gradually assist them toward a decision of their future occupations. He should see to it that the jobs for which they are being trained are jobs at which they will have good chances of getting work and of getting openings for promotion if they prove themselves worthy. He should advise and instruct the teachers as to how they, in connection with their subjects, may help effectively in this work. Finally, he should organize and maintain an employment bureau for placing new boys and for placing boys already at work in

better positions when suitable openings occur. For this he would need to keep a continuing card file of all undergraduates and of all graduates in positions—also a card file of firms employing boys, and of the kinds of jobs available in their plants, together with the requisite qualifications for each job.

Whether the president and principal can take on these functions along with those they now have must be left for them to decide. We incline strongly toward the opinion that more satisfactory results would be obtained by employing one man with special training for just such a job. Such a specialist would be a great asset to the whole Territory as well as to Kamehameha School.

8. BOARDING SCHOOLS FOR HAWAIIAN GIRLS—KOHALA GIRLS' SCHOOL AND MAUNAOLU SEMINARY.

In the early days of their work the missionaries saw that schools for natives were necessary. From the first they established such schools. Very early, too, it was seen that boarding schools were essential to the proper training of selected youth of both sexes and many sprang up in response to the need. More recently, however, a number of these schools have been merged or discontinued. Thus the Girls' Seminary at Waihinu was removed to Waialua. After a time it was merged in Kawaiahao Seminary, Honolulu, now a part of the Mid-Pacific Institute. The Wilcox School at Waioli, Kauai, after a long period of usefulness was discontinued; as was the school at Koloa, the boys' school at Waialua, and the Bond School for Boys at Kohala, Hawaii.

The special schools filled a great want prior to the development of the public-school system. But with the steady growth of the latter the need for such schools has not seemed as great. Furthermore, the development of good roads and more rapid means of intercommunication have operated to turn the flow of students away from the smaller and more isolated schools to those more centrally situated.

Aside from the girls' division of Kamahameha School and of Mid-Pacific Institute, both in Honolulu, there now remain, distinctively for girls of the Hawaiian race, coming down from this early period, only two boarding schools in the islands—the Kohala Girls' School, Kohala, Hawaii; and the Maunaolu Seminary, Paia, Maui.

ORGANIZATION AND WORK.

The Kohala Girls' School was established in 1874 by Rev. Dr. Elias Bond, who came to the islands in 1841 as a missionary under the American Board of Foreign Missions. The school remained under Dr. Bond's supervision until 1889, when the property was deeded in trust to the Hawaiian Evangelical Association, under whose gen-

eral control it now stands, although the direct management of the school is vested in a board of managers appointed by the association.

The Maunaolu Seminary was established in 1860 by the Rev. C. B. Andrews. The school started with but a handful of Hawaiian girls who were taken into Mr. Andrews's home principally for the purpose of giving them a training in home making. The academic features of the school do not seem to have been emphasized until about 1864, when the records show that some attempt was made to teach the English language. In 1869 the school was destroyed by fire and seems not to have resumed its work until 1871. From this time the attendance gradually increased until in 1891 there was an attendance of 110 pupils, the largest eprollment in the history of the school. The attendance now is about 85 pupils.

Both schools are beautifully situated on high ground overlooking cane-covered lands stretching down to the ocean. The buildings of both are also set down in tracts of ground of generous size. Both, too, are supported in large part by the beneficence of two families—the Bond family in the case of the Kohala School and the Baldwin family in that of Maunaolu. In both the tuition charged is only about $50 per annum per pupil, part of which can be worked out if the pupil desires. Through the generosity of interested friends a number of scholarships at both schools have been provided for pupils who are too poor to pay the full tuition.

In both schools regular work is carried on from the primary grade through the eighth grade. Effort in both schools is made to parallel the work of the public elementary grades as far as is practicable. Much more is being done, however, in sewing, housekeeping, and weaving in both schools than the public schools are attempting. Special attention also is being given to music, and classes in chorus and part singing are held each week with good results, as the Hawaiian girls are natural musicians, many having excellent voices.

In short, these schools are attempting to give to deserving girls, chiefly of the Hawaiian race between the ages of 6 and 18, a wholesome Christian home training, together with a practical education of the character such as to fit them to become housekeepers or wage-earners in the handicrafts, or for entrance into schools at Honolulu which prepare teachers for the public schools of the Territory.

The member of the commission who visited these schools was much impressed with the high type of personality found in the principals and faculty members of both schools; in the standards of immaculate cleanliness of buildings and grounds and of person insisted upon; and in the practical and helpful character of the work which was being given.

The Maunaolu Seminary is much better appointed in buildings and equipment than the Kohala School. At the latter school the buildings are old and not well suited to the work. It is planned, however, that these will soon be replaced by commodious and well-equipped buildings arranged to meet the modern conceptions of good educational practice.

As these schools are the last of the group of boarding schools independently supported, which sprang up before the development of the public-school system, the question naturally arises whether these, too, will go the way of the others in the face of the rapidly developing importance and efficiency of the public schools. There can be do doubt that these schools have served and are still serving a very useful purpose, for because of their work scores upon scores of girls from the poor and isolated homes of the islands of Hawaii and Maui have been started on lives of usefulness through the training it would have been impossible for them to have gotten otherwise. There is no doubt, either, that through having the girls under their instruction and supervision for their entire time, the teachers can accomplish much more in training the girls to complete living than can teachers in the public schools who are in contact with the children but a few hours daily. Indeed, it would be a splendid thing in many ways if the Territory could maintain boarding schools of the character of these schools where all the children of the islands could spend all their time, returning to their homes only during vacations.

THE DORMITORY SYSTEM ON THE MAINLAND.

Within five years a movement in the States has sprung up and is growing rapidly which has much of significance in it for the islands; that is, providing dormitory and boarding facilities for public schools of high-school grade in sparsely settled regions of the country. More than 150 such plants are now to be found in the United States. In general the plan is to have a considerable acreage of ground in connection with the school on which the pupils can work out all or part of the fees charged. In most cases the amount charged the pupil is not sufficient to cover the entire cost, the deficit being met by the State or county.

So far the plan has not been extended to grades below the high school but there is no inherent reason why such extension should not be made. In Hawaii such a plan would meet not only conditions of sparse population in many regions but would be particularly valuable in enabling the Territory to do on a large scale just what the Kohala and Maunaolu schools are doing on a small scale. Such a plan would facilitate greatly the thorough and rapid Americanization of children of the foreign born.

At any rate, whether or not the Territory enters upon such a comprehensive plan, the commission can think of no way by which wealthy persons can expend their money more wisely than in generously maintaining such schools as the Kohala and Maunaolu schools and making it possible for the children of deserving people to secure the excellent training which they are giving.

9. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. In the absence of a completely organized system of schools supported by public taxation, the private schools of the islands have constituted an educational and Christianizing force of great value and influence. They will continue to constitute such a force if they succeed always in keeping in the vanguard of educational progress. The public-school system, though it falls far short of what it should be as to adequate accommodations and facilities for the number of pupils to be educated, is thoroughly leavened with the progressive spirit. It is rapidly gaining in its hold on the interest and loyalty of the public, and is due for a period of rapid expansion and intensive internal improvement. To hold their position of usefulness the private schools must develop consistently progressive programs and policies and carry them out with efficiency and thoroughness.

2. The influence of the small and uneconomical private schools will gradually become smaller. Such schools will be more successful if they limit their instruction to pupils of special classes and ages, so as to do more homogenous work. For example, they should not attempt high-school work, because it is impossible for them to do it well except at excessive cost. The problem of providing homes and education for orphans, dependents, and subnormal children should be solved by establishing a central institution under public support and control and conducted by experts in the education and care of such children.

3. Certain physical conditions in several of the private schools are faulty to a greater or less degree.

All have cases of inadequate or improper lighting arrangements, some of them to a serious extent. All wooden school buildings and dormitories and all buildings whose interior construction is mainly of wood are dangerous to life and limb because of the risk from fires. All buildings having rooms above the second floor, occupied as dormitories or classrooms, should be equipped with automatic sprinklers and adequate fire escapes. Fire drills should be held regularly. Fire escapes, extinguishers, electric lighting wires, and automatic sprinklers should be inspected at frequent intervals. In future, no nonfireproof school building or domitories over two stories high should be erected anywhere in the islands.

Several of the private schools are badly cramped for lack of sufficient room for class and laboratory work. If relief be sought by the erection of temporary or portable buildings, these should be designed so as to be adequately and properly lighted, from the left only, and also properly ventilated. The type of bungalow used in the public elementary schools and the McKinley High School should not be used. It is utterly unfit for school purposes.

4. All the private schools need more and better laboratory equipment for science work, more maps, and more liberal supplies of other visual aids to teaching. With respect to these important facilities the Hawaiian schools do not compare favorably with the best schools in the States.

5. The standards for qualifications of teachers on the mainland should be adhered to. These are: For high-school teachers, graduation from a standard collegiate institution with at least 11 semester-hours of training in education; and for elementary teachers graduation from a standard four-year high school and at least two years in a standard normal school or college requiring a four-year high school course for admission.

6. The high-school curricula of all the private schools need more or less revision along progressive lines as suggested for the public high schools in Chapter VI of this report.

7. In most of the schools, closer classroom supervision is urgently needed; and especially should better correlation be worked out, with use of the project-problem types of teaching, in the intellectual work of the vocational schools.

8. These schools should study the possibilities of abolishing many of their very small classes or of recruiting them up to a better size for economy.

9. Most of the private schools have some form of pupil participation in self-government which they are carrying on with very good results. Evolution along this line should be encouraged.

Very few are making any attempt to use the various forms of socialized recitation. We recommend that in all of them the socialized recitation be carefully and gradually introduced and tried out.

We recommend continuance and further development of directed study in grades 7 to 10 in those schools where it is being tried out. We suggest that it be tried out in the other schools, and that systematic attempts be made to educate the teachers in the technic of handling it.

10. We recommend the introduction of systematic effort toward educational and vocational guidance, especially in the vocational schools. To be successful it must be under the direction of specially trained experts in this relatively new and very important type of

educational service. All subjects in the curriculum should contribute something consciously toward vocational intelligence. An industrial and vocational survey of the Territory by experts in this field is urgently needed. The schools need to know more definitely the occupational opportunities for which the rising generation of Hawaii must be trained if they are to do the best for themselves and the community.

11. We recommend the appointment of a competent specialist who shall serve as school adviser under the direction of the superintendent of public instruction and as half-time professor of education under the direction of a college or department of education to be established in the University of Hawaii, and who shall act as a liaison officer or clearing-house agent for the two departments. We recommend that this officer, acting for the superintendent of public instruction, shall visit the private schools as often as may be necessary and practicable for the purpose of reporting on their conditions and advising them as to their work and plans.

This recommendation is made because the private schools, no less than the public schools, some in greater degree and some in less, are in need of expert advice in solving their problems of administration of personnel, of methods, and of equipment. The private schools in fact as well as in law should be made to come under the general supervision of the Territorial department of public instruction; and this supervision could be best carried on by an expert who should spend about half of his time visiting the high schools and private schools of the Territory and the other half teaching in the University of Hawaii and the normal school, if it should be affiliated with it.

During his supervisory semester his chief function should be to examine into conditions and report to the superintendent what he finds, together with his commendations of what is good and his suggestions for improving what seems to be poor. A copy of his report on each school should in every case be sent to the officer responsible for the conduct of that school; and he should prepare an annual or biennial report covering the features that are of general interest. This report should include particularly suggestions for the correction of faults that are common to many schools and features of excellence that occur in some schools that it would be desirable for the other schools to try out with reference to adoption. As an adviser he could do much in stimulating teachers toward professional study and greater zeal in the use of such modern devices as educational measurements and self-surveys by schools of their own work. As a teacher of education in the college, he should prove to be of much value to public and private schools both by training teachers in service and by preparing candidates for teaching positions.

Late afternoon, night, and Saturday courses might be given for teachers in Honolulu; and a system of exchange of teachers between Honolulu and other districts might be worked out, so that teachers who are ready to work for advanced degrees in education could teach in Honolulu for a year and carry on their studies at the University of Hawaii. Such an arrangement would be very beneficial to all concerned, by bringing them into close touch, so that the department of public instruction, the University of Hawaii, the public schools, and the private schools, all of which are working toward the one purpose of promoting the education of the children and the welfare of the island, would have a clearing-house agent through whom each could keep in touch with all the others.

APPENDIX.

CONTENTS OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE SCHOOL TEXT-BOOKS.

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 1.

This book is made up of two parts. The first part of it (pages 1 to 41) is essentially a primer, containing words, short phrases, and illustrations. For example, on the first page the word "hata" or flag with the illustration of American and Japanese flags is given. The second page gives four Japanese characters meaning "tako" or kite, and "koma" or top, with illustrations. The pictures are entirely of Japanese conception. The contents of Book I, Part 2, follow:

1. People.
2. Momotaro, Part 1.—"Peach Boy."
3. Momotaro, Part 2.—(This has been taken from the Japanese Government School Text-Book. It is a story of a child born from a peach. Once an old man went up the mountain to get fuel, while his wife, an old woman, went to the river for washing. While she was washing her clothes, a large peach came floating down the stream. She took the peach home, and gave it to her husband. An unusual thing happened when the old man cut the peach into two. Instead of a seed, a large boy came out of it. The child was named Momotaro or Peach Boy, and the story goes on to tell that he became one of the strongest men in Japan.)
4. Sisters.
5. Chickens. (G. S. B.[1])
6. Sunrise. (G. S. B.)
7. The River. (G. S. B.)
8. Chrysanthemums. (G. S. B.)
9. The Moon. (G. S. B.)
10. O Hana. (The story of a girl who was very tidy and neat.)
11. A Dog's Greediness. (G. S. B.) (A story found in the Defoe's Tales.)
12. Playing Ball.
13. A Riddle. (G. S. B.)
14. The Rainbow.
15. Japanese New Year. (G. S. B.).
16. Hide and Seek. (G. S. B.)
17. Do Not Tell a Lie.
18. Papaia and Guave. (A Hawaiian subject.)
19. Mother. (G. S. B.)
20. Kite Song. (G. S. B.)
21. Sympathy.
22. Goddess Pele. (A Hawaiian subject.)
23. Goddess Pele. (A Hawaiian subject.)
24. Hanasaka Jijii. (An old man who made the flowers bloom. An old story of an honest man, who was rewarded for honesty.) (G. S. B.)

[1] Government School Text-Book.

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 2.

1. Cherry Blossoms. (G. S. B.)
2. My Home. (G. S. B.)
3. Ninomiya Kinjiro. (A story of a man who always served other people.)
4. The Lark. (G. S. B.)
5. A Riddle. (G. S. B.)
6. Cows and Horses. (G. S. B.)
7. The Little Horse. (G. S. B.)
8. The Mango. (A Hawaiian subject.)
9. Cornelia. (Story taken from Roman history.)
10. Bambo. (G. S. B.)
11. May Day. (A Hawaiian subject.)
12. Right and Left. (G. S. B.) (This is a story of Minamoto Yoshiiye, one of the greatest generals of Old Japan. The lesson tells that once this general placed all of his soldiers who had distinguished themselves in the day's battle on the *left side*, and those who did not perform any act of valor on the *right side*. By so placing all his followers, the general encouraged men to strive their utmost, and in every battle they were victorious.)
13. The Cardinal Points. (G. S. B.)
14. The Lizard. (A Hawaiian subject.)
15. What to take to school. (G. S. B.) (The answer given is "carry your eyes, ear, and mouth.")
16. Washington's Honesty. (Story from American history.)
17. The Mountain Apple. (Ohia—a Hawaiian subject.)
18. The Frog. (G. S. B.)
19. The Frog and the Spider. (G. S. B.)
20. The Frog's Mother.
21. "Yes, right now!" (G. S. B.) (It is a story of a girl who always replied to her mother's request to do anything—"Yes, right now!" but did not try to do anything.)
22. The Sea. (G. S. B.)
23. The Salt.
24. The Crab.
25. The Shell. (G. S. B.)
26. Urashima. (G. S. B.) (A Japanese fairy story. Urashima is the Japanese Rip Van Winkle.)
27. Same.
28. Our Plantation. (A Hawaiian subject.)
29. The View from the Mountain (Punchbowl). (A Hawaiian subject.)
30. Mount Fuji.
31. Japan's greatest mountain. (In verse—G. S. B.)
32. Hunting on Mount Fuji. (G. S. B.) (It is a story of Minamoto Tadatsune, a great hero of Japanese history who killed a huge boar by hurdling on its back from his horse. "The people," the story concludes, "cheered so loudly that even the mountain seemed to crumble down.")
33. The Taro. (A Hawaiian subject.)
34. The Tenchosetsu. (The Emperor's birthday.) (G. S. B.—slight alterations.)
35. The Fingers. (G. S. B.)
36. The Good Children.
37. Playing Store. (G. S. B.)
38. The Man-eating Shark. (A Hawaiian subject.)
39. The Proud Sazae. (Sazae—Turbo cornutus, horned top—sort of shell fish.) (G. S. B.)
40. The Cereals. (G. S. B.)

41. The Clock. (G. S. B.)
42. Song of the Clock. (In verse—G. S. B.)
43. A Riddle. (G. S. B.)
44. The White Rabbit. (G. S. B.)
45. The White Rabbit and God Okuninushi. (A prehistorical personage.)
46. Sympathy.
47. Sugar. (A Hawaiian subject.)
48. A Child's Heart. (G. S. B.)
49. A Mother's Heart. (G. S. B.)
50. Ohinasama—Girls' Festival. (G. S. B.)
51. Nasuno Yoichi. (G. S. B.) (A story of a hero in Japanese history who was
52. Nasuno Yoichi. (G. S. B.) adept in the use of bow and arrow.)

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 3.

1. The Stone Door of Heaven. (G. S. B.) "Amaterasu was a very soft hearted goddess. Her younger brother, Susa-noo-no-mikoto, was a very rough god. He did many mischievous things. His sister, Amaterasu-oo-mikami (the real sun goddess) was always patient with him. One day the god, Susa-noo-no-mikoto, took the skin from a living horse and threw it (the horse) into his sister's weaving room. The sun goddess was very much surprised and she hid herself inside of the Stone Door of Heaven.—"How terrible! The world which until now was bright is dark and bad people began to do bad things. Many gods conferred as to how to bring her out and began to dance before the door. At that time a goddess by the name of Ame-no-uzume-no-mikoto danced an interesting dance which made the gods laugh and clap their hands. Because of this noise, the sun goddess opened the door a little and when she peered out Tajikara-no-mikoto, a strong god, took her out by the hand and led her forth. It is said that from that time the world was bright again."
2. The Golden Kits. (G. S. B.).
3. Playing the Boat. (In verse—G. S. B.)
4. Studies of Arai Hakuseki—a great Confucianist (1710).
5. Ulu. (A Hawaiian subject.)
6. The Travels of Water. (The story of the drop of rain.)
7. Same. (G. S. B.)
8. Kapiolani Park. (A Hawaiian subject.)
9. The Aquarium. (A Hawaiian subject.)
10. Kusanagi-no-tsurugi. (The Herb-Quelling Sword.) (G. S. B.) ("Keiko Tenno is the twelfth Emperor from Jinmu Tenno. He commanded Yamato-takeru-no-mikoto to make an expedition to Western Yezo. Yamato-takeru-no-mikoto first went to Ise to pray at Jingu (temple of the Sun Goddess). Then he said farewell to his aunt, Yamato-hime-no-mikoto. At that time she gave Ameno-murakumo-no-tsurugi (a sword). On the road Yamato-takeru-no-mikoto subdued many bad people and when he came to Suruga (a province), the enemy at that place seemed to surrender. 'In this place there are many deer; you should hunt,' the enemy urged him. 'That will be fun,' said Mikoto, and he walked into the field. When the enemy saw this they set fire to the four sides of the field to try to kill him. Mikoto noticed the enemy's trick, took out the sword and cut down the grass, and wonderfully, the wind changed to the direction of the enemy and he escaped from the danger. From this time we call this sword Kusanagi-no-tsurugi."
11. The Carp. (G. S. B.) (The practice of flying the paper carp above a house on May 5, the festival of boys in Japan. This custom is very popular in Japan. The idea is that the boys may become strong and brave like the carp going up the falls in certain season of the year.)

12. Helping Mother. (G. S. B.)
13. The Boy's Eye Marks.
14. The Pickled Plums. (G. S. B.)
15. Tea and Coffee. (G. S. B.—with slight alteration.) (Coffee's description is Hawaiian.)
16. An Obedient Girl.
17. Independence Day. (An American subject.)
18. The Surf-riding. (A Hawaiian subject.)
19. The Hawaiian Islands. (A Hawaiian subject.)
20. The Kukui. (A Hawaiian subject.)
21. Post Cards. (G. S. B.)
22. Melons. (G. S. B.)
23. The Bat. (G. S. B.)
24. Story of the Mosquito. (A Hawaiian subject.)
25. Fire.
26. Uyesugi Kensin. (A great historical figure. The lesson deals with Uyesugi's great respect toward his teacher.)
27. Arbor Day. (A Hawaiian subject.)
28. The Deer's Mirror. (G. S. B.)
29. Hiyodorigoe-no-sakaotoshi. (G. S. B.). (It deals with the famous battle of Heike and Genji.)
30. Same.
31. Honolulu. (Places of interest; a Hawaiian subject.)
32. The Letter from Honolulu. (A Hawaiian subject.)
33. The Picnic.
34. Taro's Diary.
35. The Strong Child.
36. Battle of Ujikawa. (Taken from Japanese history.)
37. Lei. (A Hawaiian subject.)
38. The Clever Child. (Taken from a Chinese story.)
39. Pineapples. (A Hawaiian subject.)
40. A Good Boy.
41. Textiles.
42. Proverbs. (Japanese.)
43. Jingu Kogo. (The story of the subjugation of Korea by Empress Jingo Tenno, A. D. 201 to 269.)
44. Human Sympathy. (Verse.)
45. The Bear.
46. The Old Desk.
47. The Harbor.
48. Osaka. (Bridgeport of Japan.)
49. Counting Song. (Verse.)
50. Shotoku Taishi. (The man who established Buddhism as the state religion.)
51. Washington. (An American subject.)
52. Discovery of Fire. (Taken from Hawaiian folklore.)
53. Same.
54. Rice.

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 4.

1. Kusunoki Father and Son. (G. S. B.) (The story which is singled out as the best illustration of Japanese patriotism.)
2. Same.
3. Letter of Inquiry and Answer.
4. One Kind of Bean.

5. Hojo, Yasutoki. (G. S. B.) (A short sketch of Hojo, who was a firm believer in Buddhism.)
6. Brothers.
7. Hanahabo Kiichi. (G. S. B.) (The story of famous blind writer.)
8. Work with Hands. (G. S. B.)
9. Bon and Decoration Day. (Compares the Memorial Service for the dead in Hawaii and America with that of Japan. The lesson brings in the significance of Bon, a memorial service among the Buddhists.)
10. Imperial Japan. (A description of Japanese islands and possessions. It notes the fact of Jinmu Tenno's accession 2,570 years ago and the present emperor as 123d in direct line.)
11. Same.
12. Tokyo, Japan. (It describes the places of interest.)
13. Silk Worms and Tea. (G. S. B.)
14. Porcelain and Lacquer. (G. S. B.)
15. Wife of Yamanouchi. (G. S. B.—story of a wife's thrift.)
16. The Family Crests. (G. S. B.—deals with coats-of-arms of important families in Japan.)
17. Tenbinbo. (The stick used for carrying baskets.)
18. Dogs. (G. S. B.)
19. Sakanouye-no-Tamuramura. (The story of a giant general; attempts to portray the valor of the man. Taken from Japanese history.)
20. Water and Body. (G. S. B.)
21. Care of the Body.
22. A Letter Concerning Mango, and its answer.
23. Living Things of the Sea. (G. S. B.)
24. Same.
25. Mind in all Things. (Verse.)
26. Story of a Voyage. (G. S. B.)
27. Same.
28. The Ungrateful Soldier. (It is a story of war between the Swedes and Danes. A wounded Dane offered his canteen to a wounded Swede, who tried to kill him. He spared his life and was rewarded.)
29. A Letter Concerning a Picture and Answer.
30. To Work is People's Duty.
31. The White Sparrow.
32. Same.
33. Kato Kiyomasa. (Story of a great general who invaded Korea. Attempt is made to show wherein lies the greatness of a great man.)
34. Florence Nightingale.
35. The Blacksmith.
36. The Japanese Flower Calendar. (Verse.)
37. Matches.
38. Yamada Nagamasa. (A story of a famous general who went to Siam and became a king of that nation.)
39. One Day. (Verse.)
40. The Forty-seven Ronins. (Taken from Japanese history.)
41. Same.
42. The Bird.
43. The Stomach and the Body.
44. Franklin. (An American subject.)
45. The Tiger and the Cat. (Æsop Fable.)
46. Around the World.

47. Same.
48. Hawaii. (Description of the Hawaiian Islands with map.)
49. Washington's Birthday and Mid-Pacific Carnival. (A Hawaiian subject.)
50. Sejshimaru. (Taken from Japanese history.)
51. The Owl returns a Favor. (A Hawaiian story.)
52. Same.
53. The Brave Sailor. (The story of a sailor, Miura Torajiro, who was wounded and killed in the battle of the Yellow Sea. Another story of patriotism. The lesson is partly in verse and partly in prose. Both attempt to show how the dying sailor thought of his country.)
54. Public Interest.
55. Napoleon.
56. Same. (The lesson emphasizes the qualities of Napoleon—the audacity and courage.)

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 5.

1. Amaterasu-o-mi-kami. (Taken from Japanese history.) ("Kotai Jingu is at Uji Yamada in Ise. This is the temple of the Sun Goddess. The Sun Goddess is the ancestress of the Imperial House. A long time ago O-mi-mikami (Sun Goddess) gave to her grandchild, Ninigi-no-mikoto, the land of Japan. 'This country must be ruled by my descendants. Go, Imperial grandsons; thy throne between earth and heaven shall be without end.' she said. Ninigi-no-mikoto listened attentively and taking many followers he came down to this country. This is the beginning of Japanese history. At that time the Sun Goddess gave him the Yamato Mirror, Amenomurakumo-no-tsurugi (the sword already mentioned in Book 3, Lesson 9) and Yasakani Jewels. These are called three sacred treasures. They are handed down to the hereditary emperors as symbols of power. The song of Meiji Tenno (died 1910):

   From the age of the Gods
   The Sacred Treasures have come down
   To govern the land of Japan.

   From Ninigi-no-mikoto, during three generations the capitol was in Kyushu. This is called the Age of Gods."
2. Jinmu Tenno. (Taken from Japanese History.) (Jinmu Tenno is the fourth generation after Ninigi-no-mikoto. He is the grandchild. When he was in Hyuga, in the eastern part there were many bad people. Jinmu Tenno subdued them and he made the people contented. Jinmu Tenno took his brother and his child and many followers and lived in Hyuga. And from this time during some tens of years they encountered many hardships. One time a strong enemy made war and his brother was lost, but at last the enemy was subdued and he acceded to the throne of Yamato-no-kuni, Kashiwara-no-miya. Counting from the sixth year of Taisho (1917) it was 2,577 years ago that this occurred. Jinmu Tenno is called the first emperor, and the present emperor is the one hundred and twenty-second.")
3. From Honolulu to Yokohama.
4. Three Views of Japan.
5. The Grand Parents.
6. Sugita Iki. (Again the story of loyalty to master.)
7. The Sailor's Mother. (The letter of a mother to her son on "Takachiho" urging him not to be afraid of sacrificing his life for the country's sake. It is again the attempt to arouse one's sense of loyalty to his country.)
8. Mother's Day. (Mother's Sunday.)

9. Chinese Literature and Buddhism. ("In Japan at the present time they have the kana [Japanese syllabry] and the kanji [Chinese characters]. The origin of the kanji was in China, and gradually come to be used in Japan. Of the kana, kata-kana are parts taken from the kanji character. Chinese writing as well as Chinese Literature spread. That was 1,600 years ago, during the reign of Ojin Tenno. Ojin Tenno's mother was Jingu Kogo. After Jingu Kogo had subdued the three Han states (Korea), they gave many things. One year Kudara-no-kuni (one of the states) brought Chinese books on literature and from that country came a teacher named Wani. He taught many princes. From that time Chinese writing was used and Chinese literature was studied in Japan. Two hundred and sixty years after that time, Buddhism also came from Kudara. In the beginning there was a dispute about this doctrine. But gradually it spread throughout Japan. We learned before how Shotoku Taisho woked for the spread of Buddhism in Japan.") (Book 2, Lesson 59.)
10. Inventions of Modern Times. (Watt, Fulton, Stevenson, Morse, Bell, Edison, Marconi.)
11. James Watt.
12. From Tokyo to Aomori.
13. Nikko. (G. S. B.) (Describes the temples and tombs of shoguns.)
14. Kokugi. (Describes the national pastimes and games of different countries.)
15. Tenji Tenno and Fujiwara Kamatari. (Taken from Japanese history.)
16. Head Dress. (Hats, etc., of different nationalities.)
17. The Red and White Balls.
18. Sightseeing in Hokkaido. (Northern Japan with map. Chaps. 18 and 19.)
19. Care of Health.
20. Nara Period. (Describes very briefly the golden age of Buddhism and Chinese Literature in Japan.)
21. Wakino Kiyomaru. (The story of a fearless patriot who frustrated the attempt of the priest Dokyo, a paramour of the Empress Shotoku, to ascend the throne. He was banished only to return at the end of the empress' reign.)
22. Visiting the Sick.
23. A Girl's Saving
24. Abeno Nakamaro and Kibi-no-Makibi. (Two personages in Nara Period who studied in China. The last named invented the Japanese syllabry.)
25. Currency, Weight and Measures.
26. Sights of Japan.
28. Kaumu Tenno. (Includes the account of two scholars, Saicho and Kukai, who went to China and studied Buddhism, and their activities in spreading Buddhism after their return to Japan.)
29. Kioto. (Describes the Buddhist temples.)
30. Fujiwara. (The Fujiwara family was most powerful in the Middle Ages.)
31. Choryo and Kanshin. (Taken from Chinese history.)
32. From Nagoya to Niigata, Japan.
33. Genji and Heiji. (Describes the account of the Wars of Roses [of Japan].)
34. Same.
35. A Letter to a Friend.
36. A Book.
37. Hojo Tokimune. (Describes the account of the Mongol invasion of Japan.)
38. A Winter view of Japan.
39. Mines of Japan. (G. S. B.)
40. Revival of Kenbu Period. (Forty years after the Mongolian invasion.)
41. The Dew under the Pine. (Poem.)
42. Era of Yoshino. (Taken from Japanese history.)

43. Kojima Shoyen. (Describes his loyalty and obedience to the aged mother.)
44. Flowered Matting.
45. An Order, and Answer.
46. Ashikaga Period. (Describes the two famous Buddhist temples in Kioto. Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji.)
47. The Battle of Kawanakajima. (Taken from Japanese history.)
48. A Whaling Vessel.
49. A Brave Girl. (The Story of Grace Darling.)
50. Captain Cook. (Discovery of Hawaii.)
51. Oda Nobunaga. (First Shogun of Japan.)
52. Toyotomi Hideyoshi. (Account of his rise.)
53. From Nagoya to Uji Yamada.
54. Gratitude. (The story of Hideyoshi's wife.)
55. Thanksgiving Day and Harvest Festival. (Comparison between the Puritans' Thanksgiving and early festival in Japan.)
56. Hot Springs.
57. The Great King Kamehameha.
58. Arctic Expeditions. (Narrates the various expeditions.)
59. Same.
60. Hawaiian Correspondence. (From Hawaii to Japan, and from Hawaii to America.)
61. Stories of the Post.
62. Courtesy.
63. General Nogi. (In verse.) (Extolling the heroism and loyalty of the general to his country.)
64. General Grant. (His life and trip to Japan.)
65. Travels in Yamato.
66. Same.
67. The Potato King. (Account of George Shima of California.)
68. Hawaii. (In verse.) (English translation given in the textbook.)

PRIMARY BOOK NO. 6.

1. Imperial Rescript on Education.
2. The Honey Bee.
3. The Division of Labor.
4. The Wind.
5. Osaka (Japanese City).
6. Tokugawa Iyeyasu. (The account of the founder of the Tokugawa dynasty of Shoguns.)
7. Columbus' Discovery of America.
8. Fixing One's Aim in Life.
9. Kobe and Okayama. (Japanese cities.)
10. The Inland Seas. (Description of the sea between Japanese islands.)
11. The Shogun Tokugawa. (The account of the Tokugawa Dynasty.)
12. Baseball and Football.
13. The Ideal Physique.
14. The Pacific Coast of the United States.
15. Same. (Description with map.)
16. The Paradise of the Pacific. (Hawaii.)
17. The Duty of the Hostess.
18. Arai Hakuseki. (The account of the famous Confucianist.)
19. The Four Seasons.
20. Washington.
21. Famous places of Honolulu.

22. One Year in Honolulu.
23. Travel in Shikoku. (One of the main Japanese Islands.)
24. Same.
25. Three Eccentric Persons of the Kansei Period. (Gives account, very briefly, of Gamo Kunpei, Takayama Hikokuro, and Hayashi Shihei. The lesson tells that this period for the first time began to see the rise of nationalism in Japan. Kunpei traveled the whole nation, urging the people to back the movement to rebuild the imperial tomb. Takayama, bewailing the weakness of the imperial power and the tremendous prestige and power of the Shoguns, prayed on the Sanjo bridge, Kioto, for the Imperial Household. Hayashi studied the conditions of the foreign countries and wrote a book on the military defense of the nation.)
26. Lincoln.
27. The Home.
28. Making the Camps Beautiful. (Plantation camps.)
29. Kamakura. (The seat of the old Shogun Government.)
30. Seki Takayori. (The account of great mathematician.)
31. The Opening of the Nation. (Commodore Perry's Expedition.)
32. Hiroshima and Yamaguchi. (Description of two provinces in Japan, from which most of the Japanese in Hawaii have come to Hawaii.)
33. Japanese Woman.
34. The Drummer Boy. (A French story.)
35. Suez and Panama Canals.
36. Time.
37. An Invitation.
38. The Protecting Light House. (Poem.)
39. The Kamon Channel. (The Western entrance to the inland sea.)
40. The Great Reign of Meiji. (Extols the remarkable progress of Japan under the Emperor Jeiji (died 1910). The lesson is illustrated with the picture of Meiji Tenno.)
41. Public and Private Business.
42. Kumamoto and Fukuoka. (Two provinces in Japan. Japanese from these two provinces well represented in Hawaii.)
43. Japanese Agriculture.
44. About Formosa.
45. The Music of the Street Corner. (Story of Alexander Bouche.)
46. Kagoshima and Nagasaki. (Description of two cities.)
47. Spinning. (Cotton industry of Japan.)
48. Cooperative Spirit.
49. The War of Japan and Russia.
50. America and Hawaii. (Very brief account of Hawaii from the coming of the American missionaries to the annexation of Hawaii to the United States.)
51. Japan and Hawaii. (Brief account of Hawaii's relationship with Japan.)
52. History of the Coming of Japanese to the Hawaiian Islands.
53. Pearl Harbor. (Brief description of the naval station.)
54. Cecil Rhoads.
55. About Saghalien. (Description of Japanese possession on that island.)
56. Commerce.
57. Story of the Declaration of Independence.
58. A Child of the Sea. (Poem) "I am the child of the sea."
59. Prince Takehito on Board the Battleship. (Account of the early naval training of Prince Takehito Arisugawa. Prince was educated under Captain Cleveland on British Battleship "Iron Duke.")

60. History of the Bank.
61. The Morimura Company of New York City. (Account of Baron Morimura's business ethics.) (Note: Baron Ichizaemon Morimura is one of the most remarkable Japanese merchants. He became a Christian the later part of his life, and traveled the whole country preaching the Gospel. He died beginning of this year.)
62. The Mixture of American Race. (Account of the American melting pot.)
63. Good Citizenship.

NOTE.—For contents of Grammar Grade Books Nos. 1 and 2, see Chapter III of this report.

JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL (HONGWANJI BUDDHIST) TEXT-BOOKS.

Revised High School Reader. Edited by Prof. Yaichi Haga. Published by Fumiyama Bo. Each marked "Approved by the Department of Education." Date of Revision, October, 1912.

BOOK I.

1. Our Home. (Description of the home, how built, traditional usages, the family hearth, the family Buddhist shrine, the family treasures, the sword, etc.)
2. The Early Spring. (In verse.)
3. The Cherry Blossom. (Description—"The Cherry blossom can with pride be said to be the national flower of the Japanese," etc.)
4. On the Banks of the Tonegawa. (River Tone.) (Description.)
5. The Farewell to the Birthplace.
6. From the Country. (A letter—description of its beauty.)
7. The Social Intercourse.
8. A Spartan Warrior. (The training of Spartan youth, extolling the loyalty and courage of Spartan warrior.)
9. A Talking Turtle. (A Korean story.)
10. The Great Empire. (A song extolling the beauty, greatness of the land, spirit of the people, the unbroken line of Mikado, etc.)
11. The Capture of 203 Metre Hill (Battle of Port Arthur). (A long description in nine pages.)
12. Lieut. Sakuma. (A story of heroism.)
13. Commander Hirose. (In verse; extolling his heroism.)
14. Yushu Kwan. (The museum in the premises of Yasukuni Jinsha, Tokyo, which exhibits the captured guns, rifles, and other spoils of the Russo-Japanese War.)
15. Work Well and Play Well.
16. The Boy Scouts of England.
17. The Boyhood of Bismarck. (A narrative in nine pages.)
18. The Oriental Jokes: (*a*) Japan, (*b*) China, and (*c*) India.
19. The Great Walls.
20. A Letter to a Schoolmate.
21. On the Hakone Road. (Description of famous places—Odowara, Soun-ji (a temple), and the Hakone Pass.)
22. The Vanguards at Ujigawa (River Uji). (The story of the famous battle.)
23. The Ronins Retire to Sengakuji (Sengaku Temple). (The story of forty-seven ronins after their revenge on Kozukenosuke.)
24. The Return to Home. (A description.)
25. The Moon of Four Seasons.
26. A Letter, inviting a friend to swimming, and its answer.

27. Bankoku no Ryomi (Coolness). (A description.)
28. Amano Hashidate. (A description of famous Japanese scenery.)
29. A Daily of Rural Life.
30. The Siberian Railroad.
31. Prince Ito's Advice. ("Every man is born with a certain definite task. I do not urge you to follow my will unwillingly. If that is your innate task, I would not regret it even if you may become a beggar. If you desire to follow my will, be above all loyal to our emperor. Japan is a small nation, but with the emperor as a center we have developed the country internally and externally. That is the reason we are enjoying today a great prosperity! A Japanese, no matter whether he be an official, or merchant, or an ordinary citizen, should be loyal to the imperial family of unbroken lineage, and should realize that his mission is to share in making Japan an upholder of peace in the Orient. Next to loyalty, be exceedingly honest, etc.")
32. Ninomiya Sontoku. (Biography of a famous scholar.)

BOOK II.

1. My Album.
2. The Joy of Home.
3. Raisanyo. (A biography.)
4. The Star and the Flower. (In verse.)
5. The Music of Nature.
6. Niira Saburo. (A biography.)
7. The Birds of Passage.
8. The Wisdom of Monkey.
9. The Rabbit Hunt. (A description.)
10. A Letter to a Brother.
11. Soga Brothers. (A story of filial loyalty.)
12. Same.
13. Yoritomo and Goro. (A story of filial loyalty.)
14. Winter at South Sea.
15. Ounabara (Great Sea). (A song.)
16. The Battle of Dan no Ura. (The famous battle between Genji and Heishi.)
17. The Visit to Dadaifu.
18. Queen Victoria.
19. The Ruins of Egypt.
20. The Protecting Eyes and Arms of a Nation. (The story of Horatius.)
21. The Greatest Man. (Dialogue between a school principal and pupils. The story leads up to a conclusion that the greatest man is one who overcomes self.)
22. Three Great Men of the Restoration. (Brief biographies of Generals Saigo, Okubo, and Kito.)
23. The Old Man's New Year's Eve.
24. Christmas and New Year. (Description of Christmas at Berlin; celebration under the Linden.)
25. A Letter to a friend who mourns over the death of his death.
26. The Battle of Mukden.
27. Same.
28. The Rearguards. (Also a story of the battle of Mukden.)
29. The Way of the Brave. (In verse. Extols the heroism of the soldier.)
30. The Characteristics of Englishmen.
31. Same.
32. Ohukei Ino. (Biography of a scholar.)

BOOK III.

1. My Birthplace.
2. A Garden of Three Feet Square.
3. The Four Seasons. (In verse.)
4. The Pilgrimage to Saikoko. (A description of places noted for flowers.)
5. The Visit to the Imperial Palace at Kioto.
6. The Jinsha (shrines). (A description of famous shrines.)
7. The Butsukaku (Buddhist temples). (Description of famous Buddhist temples.)
8. A Ship's Route. (In verse.)
9. A Daily on the Steamer.
10. A Letter from Odawara. (Description of the life on that South Sea Island.)
11. The Battle of Japan Sea.
12. The Same.
13. Lieut.-Commander Shiraishi. (A eulogy. Lieut.-Commander Shiraishi was in command of the third blockade expedition against Port Arthur.)
14. The Feeling at Early Summer.
15. The Village in the Morning. (In verse.)
16. My Boyhood.
17. Kii Dainagon. (Story of a councillor of state, Kii.)
18. From the Kiyomi Promontory. (A description.)
19. The Story of General Moltke.
20. The Siege of Kumamoto Fort. (An incident of Jeiji Restoration.)
21. A Mirror Does not Reflect the Back.
22. Three Species of Mankind.
23. Yukichi Fukuzawa. (Herald of Western Culture.)
24. The Story of Major Fukushima's exploits in Siberia.
26. The Hike on Mount Asama.
26. The Mongolian Customs. (The customs in Mongolia.)
27. A Letter.
28. The Voice of a Mother.
29. Andrew Carnegie in Boyhood Days.
30. The Imperial Family and The Citizens. (An essay on the allegiance of Japanese people to the emperor.)

BOOK IV.

1. My House.
2. The Family Seal. (Depicts some famous family seals.)
3. The Customs of the Year's Holidays. (The holiday customs mentioned in this chapter are mostly Buddhist.)
4. The Joy of Farming.
5. The Song of the Farmer.
6. The Autumn. (A description of the autumn scenery of famous beauty spots.)
7. Down the Fujigawa (River Fuji).
8. Tokyo. (A description.)
9. Musashino. (A description of fields and woods.)
10. Shoun Zenshi. (A story of famous Buddhist priest.)
11. The Boyhood of Nobutsuna Matsutaira.
12. The Hawk Hunt.
13. The Blockade Expedition against Port Arthur. (Story of heroic deeds.)
14. The Naval Heroes.
15. The Fall of Port Arthur. (In verse.)
16. Customs and Manners in Korea.
17. Sketches of Europe and America: The Mist of London, Americans, Germans, The Streets of New York City.

18. The Moon of the Desert.
19. The Joy of Travel.
20. From Kasagi. (A letter.)
21. The Shijonawate. (The reminiscence of old battles.)
22. Takayama Hikokuro. (The story of a patriot who traveled all over Japan during the rule of the Shogunate to restore the imperial rule.)
23. The Joy of Heaven. (A letter.)
24. Kiyomori and Yoritomo.
25. Prince Iwakura. (A great figure of the imperial restoration.)
26. Same.
27. Same.
28. Men Most Needed After Death.
29. Patriotism. Part I.
30. Patriotism. Part II.

BOOK V.

1. An Evening in Spring. (A description.)
2. A Springtime Meditation.
3. A Letter. (Describing the journey from Yechigo to Tokyo.)
4. The Oi River Crossing.
5. Travel, Past and Present. (Describing the modes of travel, the attractions, dangers, etc.)
6. An Endless Ship's Route (?).
7. Our Life is in Your Hand. (Describing the incident of a great storm during the expedition of the men from Kishu.)
8. A Hero. (A manly youth. In verse.)
9. A Live Man of Live Society: (*a*) Soul of the Great; (*b*) Soul of the Child; (*c*) Culture—what does it mean? (*d*) The final Moment; (*e*) The Source of Dynamic Power.
10. The Parting at Sakurai. (The story of Kusunoki, father and son. A story of filial loyalty and loyalty to the Lord.)
11. Gamo Kunpei and Ozawa Roan. (A story of two patriot scholars who beautified the sepulchre of emperors.)
12. A Letter. (Describing the famous Buddhist temple, Shuzenji.)
13. A Song of the Summer.
14. Climbing the Nitkin San (Mount Fuji).
15. Chidaina. (A story of a great Buddhist priest.)
16. The Chuzenji Lake. (A description of the lake in the premises of famous Buddhist temple.)
17. The Relation between the Atmosphere and the Appearance of the Plant. (An essay.)
18. The Love of Nature. (An essay which leads up to the conclusion that the essential characteristic of Japanese people is the love of nature, admiration of nature, and intimacy with nature.)
19. The Preservation of Natural Scenery. (An essay.)
20. Hosokawa Yusai and Ohta Dokan. (Story of two scholars.)
21. Toyotomi Taiko. (The sketch of great dictator.)
22. Kingo, The Councillor.
23. Characteristics of the Korean People.
24. Up the Yangtse River. (Description of a great Chinese river.)
25. The Cocoanut. (In verse.)
26. Sugimoto Kujuro. (A story of a youth who committed "hara-kiri" when commanded to do so, and lived up to the name of his family.)

27. The Forty-seven Ronins' Plan of Revenge. (A story of men who sacrificed their lives for the master.)
28. Self-Help. (The secret of success is self-help.)
29. Nichiren-Jonin. (A story of a great Buddhist priest.)
30. To Every Young Man. (The gist of the essay is: "Japan of pre-Meiji era was 'Japan of Japan.' But Japan after the restoration became 'Japan of the Orient.' Now it is 'Japan of the World.' Japan is now undergoing a fierce competition within and without. She is face to face with two alternatives—rise or fall. For us living in this age of great national revolution, we should press onward in spite of the hardships and shortcomings, and should become active in the world's arena. Strengthen your body, rouse your spirit, cultivate your wisdom, and nourish your power, etc.")
31. Language and Patriotism. ("The man who truly loves his country venerates the language of his country. The characteristic of the people of a great nation is the sincere love of the language of one's country, and no other's. The people of such a nation would guard it and would reform it, and with it would strive to produce good and loyal citizens. The example of Germany is an excellent one. A people of any country should not forget two things: the language and the history of their country. That should be the prime duty of every Japanese.")

BOOK VI.

1. Hagi (Flower—Lespedeza bicolor). (An essay with verses.)
2. The Moon of Four Seasons. (A description with verses.)
3. Agriculture in Japan. (A treatise.)
4. The Protecting Woods. (A description of the woods or lse.)
5. The Country and the Great Man. (An essay. It tries to bring home the fact that a great man has always come out of the country-district. A good example, the lesson tells us, is Bismarck.)
6. Glimpse of Prince Ito. (*a*) Prince Ito and Kobo Daishi, a great Buddhist priest: Prince Ito looked up to this great priest as an ideal. (*b*) The Manchurian Tour. (Prince Ito's impressions in verses.)
7. General Nogi. (In verse. Extols his greatness.)
8. Admiral Togo's Farewell Speech to the Grand Fleet.
9. Honda Shigeji. (The story of a faithful follower of Tokugawa Shogun who risked even his life to save the life of his master.)
10. The Allegories of India: Destiny and Work; The Owl and the Raven; and The Sparrow and the Falcon.
11. The Moon, Snow, and Flower. (A description.)
12. Japanese verses. (Inspiration.)
13. The Letter of Otaka Gengō to his Mother.
14. An Old Scholar. (An essay.)
15. Watanabe Sadashizu (Watanabe Kasan). (Sketch of a great artist.)
16. The Jar of Nanking. (The story of a man who from his greediness was not able to take his hand out of the jar.)
17. An Advice to a Pupil.
18. An Evening of the New Year.
19. The Sea on New Year. (In letter and verse.)
20. An Evergreen Tree.
21. Hannibal, Part I.
22. Same, Part II.
23. The Tribute to Saigo Takamori. (A great figure of early Meiji period. By Prince Aritomo Yamagata.)
24. The Shiroyama. (In verse. Shiroyama is the Waterloo of Saigo Takamori.)

25. The Hearing of Plea behind the Screen. (A story of a famous judge, Okaye-chizen-no-kami.)
26. The Merchant of Venice. (The trial scene.)
27. Same.
28. The Morality and The Law.
29. Same.
30. Taira no Shigemori. (The story of a great personality who was faithful to his father and country.)
31. Ancestor Worship. (The lesson teaches that a true Japanese should always respect his forefathers. The greatness of Shin-shu Buddhism is that it has taught the people to respect their forefathers, while it has inculcated the power of faith and the future life, etc.)

BOOK VII

1. Kyoto. (A description of the old capitol.)
2. The Evening in Spring. (In verse.)
3. The Sunshine in Spring and the Autumn Color.
4. The Beautiful Soul. (In verse.)
5. The Battle of Okehazama. (The battle between Imagawa Yoshimoto and Oda Nobunaga.)
6. The Central Plains of Empire. (A description of the birthplaces of famous historical figures.)
7. The Rain. (An essay.)
8. The Lake. (Its variety.)
9. Up the River Hozu. (A description.)
10. The Student of Summer.
11. Oku no Hosomichi. (A collection of essays.)
12. The Last Moment of Basho. (A great poet.)
13. Basho, The Great poet.
14. Alas, Professor Fujioka. (A tribute by Prof. Yaibhi Haga.)
15. An Acquaintance.
16. Matsushita Sonjuku. (A sketch of a great scholar, Pestalozzi of Japan.)
17. The Will of Shoin. (A great scholar who was imprisoned and killed for studying the Western culture.)
18. Pestalozzi. (A sketch.)
19. The Flight to Kumano.
20. The Duty of Subject. (The duty of a subject should be above everything else loyalty to the lord and the sacrifice of his own life for the sake of the master.)
21. The Bushido. (The ways of the knight: skill in arms; loyalty to the lord; willingness to sacrifice one's life; and purity.)
22. The Sword of Japan. (The sword is the symbol of courage and might of the knight (samurai). As Mahomet said, "The sword is the key to Heaven and Hell." These words well reflect the thought of Japanese people, etc.)
23. The Red Cross. (Sketch of its movement from the inception.)
24. The Proverb. (A treatise.)
25. The People of Prehistoric Japan.
26. The National Aspiration, Part I.
27. Same, Part II.
28. To be a Great Nation: (*a*) To value education; (*b*) to respect industry and labor; (*c*) to value science; (*d*) to value arts and literature; (*e*) to value good habits and customs; (*f*) to value rights; (*g*) to develop commerce; (*h*) to maintain army and navy; (*i*) to cultivate public spirit.

BOOK VIII.

1. The Farewell on the Banks of Nagara. (A famous historical incident.)
2. The Will of Taiko. (Great dictator, Toyotomi.)
3. Naoye Yamashiro no kami. (A story of a great knight.)
4. The Decision and Judgment.
5. Kiyomori Nyudo. (A story of a historical figure.)
6. The Target of Fan. (A story of a great warrior, Nasuno Yoichi.)
7. The Great Billows of Onaruto.
8. The Fishermen's Village.
9. The Sea in Japanese Literature, Part I.
10. Same, Part II.
11. The Water and Fire. (In verse.)
12. The Famine.
13. Lotze's View of Humanity.
14. A Letter to a Colleague.
15. The Potted Plant. (A lyrical play.)
16. Same.
17. The Plum.
18. The Exile of Kanko. (A great historical figure.)
19. The Death and Eternal Life.
20. The Poems of Emperor Meiji.
21. Yosa Buson. (A poet.)
22. The Drudgery of Writing. (An essay.)
23. Japanese Poems (recent).
24. Self-control.
25. The Birthplace, Part I.
26. Same, Part II.
27. Characteristics of the Japanese: (*a*) Sentimental, sensitive; (*b*) willingness to sacrifice one's life for country; (*c*) receptive; (*d*) not venturesome.
28. The Mission of Japan. ("Japan stands in a position of an interpreter of oriental civilization to the occident and of occidental civilization to the Orient.")

BOOK IX.

1. Hagoromo (Angelic Clothes). (A famous Japanese lyrical play.)
2. No. (Traditional dance of Japan.)
3. The Four Seasons.
4. Tachibana Shoran's Home.
5. The Pyramids.
6. Jinmu Tenno (Emperor) and Godaigo Tenno (Emperor Godaigo). (In verse.)
7. The Funeral of the Emperor Meiji. (From Tokyo Asahi Shinbun; a newspaper report.)
8. The Constitution. (A treatise.)
9. Prince Ito and the Constitution. (An essay.)
10. Saigo Takamori. (An esssay.)
11. The Morning View of Mount Fuji. (A description.)
12. The Prose Poem on Mount Fuji. (An essay.)
13. On Suruga Highway. (A description.)
14. The Moonlight Enjoyment. (A description.)
15. The Furin (bell that rings in the wind) and Mallet.
16. The Wrestling.
17. Japanese Poems. (Verses.)
18. Kikaiga Shima. (A place of exile of Shunkan.)
19. The Country of Greed.

20. Kinzei Hachiro Tametomo. (A great warrior who was very skillfull with the bow and arrow.)
21. The Promise with Chrysanthemum. (The story of Hasebe Samon.)
22. Saigyo Hoshi. (Story of a great Buddhist priest who was noted for Japanese poems.)
23. Four Saints of the World. Part I.
24. Same. Part II. (Buddha; Confucius; Socrates; Christ.)
25. The Manly Youths.

The Text-Book on Middle School Moral Precepts. Edited by Profs. Tsubouchi Yuzo and Mori Shinichiro. Published by Sansei Do Book Company, Tokyo, Japan. "Approved by the Department of Education," March 4, 1912. (Each book is prefaced with two Imperial rescripts; the first of October 30, 1890, and the second of October 13, 1908.)

BOOK I.

1. Do that which you think is right and do not that which you think is wrong.
2. Weak will, source of all evils.
3. One can not be a true man by not being independent.
4. Patience is the first step in molding a character.
5. To follow that which deserves to be followed is the way of a manly person.
6. Act that which is told quickly, readily and sincerely.
7. Lying is a cowardice.
8. To be honest is to be fearless.
9. Falsehood is liable to be exaggerated.
10. Overcome impatience and greediness.
11. Play well and work well.
12. There is a way if there is an ambition.
13. Venturesome (Columbus—an example).
14. Think well before you do it.
15. Do not forget self-control.
16. Selfishness is the worst evil.
17. Do unto others as you would they should do to you; or do not do the things to others which you would not they should do to yourself.
18. Filial piety is the beginning of all actions.
19. Foremost duty is to relieve the parents.
20. Same.
21. Be careful of the start.
22. Bear the burdens of others.

BOOK II.

1. The habit is a secondary nature.
2. The habit of overcoming the wicked habit is the best.
3. Day after day, month after month, and year after year press onward toward that which is good.
4. Do not hesitate to correct excess.
5. Stubbornness and sturdiness are like muddy water and medicinal spring.
6. The breaking of a promise is a bit of lie.
7. Do what you have always promised.
8. Do not wash blood with blood. (Meaning, do not retaliate.)
9. Return the wickedness with good.
10. One who knows not his shame does not do the things which he knows.

11. One without courage is not a man.
12. Learn the spirit of Bushido (ways of the knight).
13. A boy who risked his life as a secret messenger.
14. One who is careless of little things can not succeed—can not do a big thing.
15. Virtues of Napoleon—independent, patient, courageous, sturdy, careful of little things, and self-confident.
16. Virtues and weaknesses of Napoleon. Virtues: Studied everything minutely; concentrated on one thing or task; keenness. Weaknesses: Selfishness; placed personal interests above everything else.
17. Benevolence of John Howard.
18. A man can not live alone.
19. Same.
20. Be like a man, be a man worth living.
21. Reputation or wealth is not true goal of life.
22. Japan is like one big family.

BOOK III.

1. Morality.
2. Sincerity, self-control, loyalty, and tenderness.
3. Filial piety.
4. Kyubei Kameda. (Story of a man who was exceedingly loyal to his parents.)
5. Brotherliness.
6. Moderation.
7. Courtesy.
8. Public spirit.
9. Friendship.
10. Charity.
11. Self-dependence.
12. Perfect mind and body.
13. Training of mind and body.
14. Self-support.
15. Good heart and wicked heart.
16. Temptation.
17. Conscience.
18. Reading.
19. Same.
20. Worship of ancestors and patriotism.

BOOK IV.

1. The Imperial Rescript of Boshin (1898).
2. Same.
3. Same. (In one of these chapters mention is made of the Five Articles promulgated March 14, 1868. The Five Articles are sometimes called "The Charter Oath of 1868." (*a*) An assembly widely convoked shall be established, and all measures of government shall be decided by public opinion. (*b*) All classes, high and low, shall unite in vigorously carrying out the plan of government. (*c*) All the people shall be given [the opportunity] to satisfy their legitimate desires. (*d*) All absurd usages shall be abandoned, and justice and righteousness shall regulate all actions. (*e*) Knowledge shall be sought for throughout the world, so that the foundation of the empire shall be strengthened.)

PART II. The Nation and Imperial House.

4. The throne and Imperial house.
5. The nation.

6. The national constitution.
7. The subject. Part I.
8. The subject. Part II.

PART III. Home.

9. Home.
10. Ancestors.
11. Filial relationship. Part I.
12. Filial relationship. Part II.
13. Husband and wife.
14. Brothers and sisters.
15. Relatives.
16. Servants.
17. Home and cultivation of virtues.

BOOK V.

PART I. Social Life.

1. Spirit of cooperation.
2. Social order.
3. Customs and manners.
4. Public welfare.
5. Occupations.
6. Property.
7. Reputation of fame.
8. Rights and duties.
9. Same.
10. Character.

PART II. International Relations.

11. The faithful attitude toward foreigners.
12. Courtesy toward foreigners.

PART III. The Characteristic Morality of Our Country (Japan).

13. The origin of our national morality.
14. Filial piety and loyalty to lord, one and same.
15. Worship of ancestors.
16. Patriotism and public duty.

THE TEXTBOOKS FOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES (INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS).

The Independent Schools do not use the textbooks of Moral Precepts like Hongwanji or other Buddhist Schools. There is a great difference between the textbooks used by Hongwanji or other Buddhist Temple Schools and those used by the Independent Schools. Even the contents show this marked difference.

The Taisho National Language Book. Edited by Koichi Hoshina. Published by Ikuyeishoin, Tokyo, Japan. "Approved by the Department of Education," December 26, 1915. (Like Buddhist Temple Schools' Textbooks, this set of readers is also made up of a collection of essays, treatises, extracts from history, novels, etc.)

BOOK I.

1. The Spring of a Thousand Miles. (Description of Kioto, the old capital, and its vicinity.)
2. Same. Part II.
3. Spring. (Poem.)

4. The Flowery Temple. (The celebration of Buddha's birthday.)
5. The "Tastes of the Ear." (The music of the fields; the song of the fall.)
6. From the Deck. (A letter to a friend, describing the experiences of a long journey from Japan to Marseilles, France.)
7. The Trip on the Rhine. (A description.)
8. Alexander the Great. (A brief sketch.)
9. The Horse Race. (Japanese army.)
10. Five Months in Paris.
11. A Lighthouse Keeper. (A French story.)
12. Itto Sen (A money for one candle). (A story of a group of students under Yoshida Shoin.)
13. The Heroic Samurai (warrior) of Chohan.
14. A Kindness Unforgotten. (A story of Masanori Fukushima, a warrior under Hideyoshi Toyotomi, a great general.)
15. Yamada Nagamasa. (A story of a hero who went to Siam at the behest of the Siamese King, and later became King of Siam.)
16. The Summer of Formosa. (Description of Formosan life.)
17. A Summer Evening. (A poem.)
18. A Firefly. (An essay.)
19. Mount Fuji. Part I.
20. Mount Fuji. Part II.
21. Five Funny Stories: Thales, La Fontaine, The First Reason, A Mohammedan Priest and his Adherents, Saved by Wit.
22. The Essay of Tokutomi Roka. (Description of the seashore of Sagami.)
23. The Boyhood of Bismarck. Part I.
24. Same. Part II.
25. The Flight from Berlin. Part I.
26. Same. Part II. (The incident narrated here is that which occurred just before the Great War. The writer tells of the good treatment received from Germans.)
27. The Wise Lord of Iyo. (The story of Matsutaira Nobutsuna.)
28. The Training of the Heart. (The story of Masumune, the great forger of the sword.)
29. Penguin. (An incident of Shackleton.)
30. The Priest at Moonlight Night. (A story of Misoya Nibei.)
31. The Bell of the Village Temple. (In verse.)
32. Admiral Togo. (A sketch.)

BOOK II.

1. Poems of the Emperor Meiji.
2. Emperor Meiji as a Poet. Part I.
3. Same. Part II.
4. The Progress of Tokyo.
5. The Restoration of Yedo Jo (Tokyo Fortress). Part I.
6. Same. Part II.
7. Gokendo. (Shrine of Prince Ito.)
8. Commander Hirose. (In verse. Extols the heroism and sacrifice of life for fellow men.)
9. The Training of Courage or Coolness.
10. The Arctic Explorations. Part I.
11. Same. Part II.
12. A Letter to Parents from Kiau Chau, China.
13. The Triumphal Entry into Kiau Chau, Shantung.
14. Same.
15. View from the Summit of Mount Hiei, Kioto.

16. Tales of Ninomiya.
17. See Thyself First.
18. Three ways of Living. (Three kinds of life.)
19. The Snow of Koshiji. Part I.
20. Same. Part II.
21. The Assault of Gishi (47 Ronins or retainers). (A story of 47 loyal retainers who revenged the death of their master.)
22. Same.
23. Same.
24. The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln.
25. The Story of Matsudaira Sadanobu.
26. The Letter to Father.
27. The Trip across the Red Sea.
28. A Night at Dunkirk.
29. Same.
30. The Water Mill. (In verse.)
31. Ino Chukei's Study in his Old Age.
32. Same.

BOOK III.

1. Unebi Yama. (The account of the visit to Unebi Yama, the tomb of the Emperor Jinmu.)
2. The Four Seasons. (In verse.)
3. Nakoso no seki. (From Japanese history.)
4. From the Tales of Soga. (The story of brothers who avenged the death of their father.)
5. Experiences from Reading.
6. Ushiono misaki (Uchio Headland). (A description.)
7. The Cruise of "Beagle." (An experience of Prof. Henslow, of Cambridge, with Captain Fitzroy.)
8. The Life Competition. (Theory of survival of the fittest.)
9. The Writings of Ohta Kinjo. (Extract.)
10. The Dikes of Tenryu River.
11. Impressions of Korea.
12. Same.
13. The Mountain of Eight Provinces (Great Central Range of Korea). (In verse.)
14. The Sapporo Farm (Sapporo Agricultural College).
15. Eton School.
16. The National Characteristics of England, France, and Germany.
17. City of Venice.
18. Shokusanjin and Bon Lantern. (Story of Ohta Nanbun and a lantern dealer.)
19. Our Household Economy.
20. Date Masamune's Return.
21. Yegawa Tanan. (Story of Yegawa Tarozaemon.)
22. A Merchant with the Spirit of a Samurai.
23. Joy.
24. Interest in Learning.
25. Extract from Meirin Songs. (Japanese poems.)
26. From Formosa. (A letter of General Nogi.)
27. The Battle of Trafalgar.
28. Same.

BOOK IV.

1. The Bravery of our Nation.
2. Be a Man who would be Valued after Death.
3. The Music of Shiroyama.
4. The Will of Saigo Nanshu.
5. The Comment on Japanese verse.
6. The Autumn Night.
7. Across the Alps, Part I.
8. Same, Part II. (The story of Hannibal.)
9. The Senjo ga Hara. (Description of a famous plain.)
10. Lake Leman, Geneva.
11. The Wealth of our Home.
12. Oishi Yoshio. (A sketch of a famous warrior who was the leader of 47 Ronins or loyal retainers.)
13. The End of the Year. (An essay.)
14. Satsuma no Kami Nakatoshi's Catch of a Badger.
15. A Comic Poem (Japanese).
16. The Wound of a little Snake.
17. The Boyhood of the Saint of Omi. (The story of his devotion to his mother.)
18. From Vladivostok. (A letter.)
19 The Customs and Manners of Russia, Part I.
20. Same, Part II.
21. General Nogi. (In verse.)
22. Constantinople.
23. Iwakura Ufu. (Sketch of Iwakura Tomomi.)
24. Same, Part II.
25. Same, Part III.
26. The Letter of the Lord of Mito on the Child's Education
27. The Decline of Shogunate (Feudal Government).
28. Same.

BOOK V.

1. The Moon, Snow, and Flower, Part I.
2. Same, Part II. (Essay).
3. An Evening Stroll in Spring.
4. To Mother. (A letter of Sakuma Shosan, a famous scholar, describing the coming of white men at Uraga.)
5. Sugita Iki. (A famous warrior under the Lord of Iyo.)
6. A Wild Goose. (A poem.)
7. Sado ga Shima. (A description of an island.)
8. From Yechigo to Tokyo. (A descriptive letter.)
9. Oda Nobunaga. (An essay, Sketch of a famous statesman-general.)
10. Toyotomi Hideyoshi. (A sketch of another statesman-general.)
11. The Bushido. (The way of Samurai or knight.)
12. The Manly Man, or Hero. (In verse.)
13. The Olympic Games.
14. The Museum of Fine Arts at the Louvre.
15. The Four Great Bridges of New York City.
16. Gamo Gonpei and Ozawa Roan. (Story of a patriot and his benefactor. Gamo, the patriot, traveled every corner of Japan and carried on a campaign to beautify the tombs of the emperors. Ozawa Roan took Gamo into his home and looked after him. Both are noted as scholars in Japanese history.)

17. The Four Seasons. (The collection of Japanese verses.)
18. View of Onaruto, Part I.
19. Same, Part II.
20. Same, Part III. (Description of a famous Japanese whirlpool.)
21. Nichiren Jonin. (A sketch of a famous Buddhist priest.)
22. The Mongolian Invasion, Part I.
23. Same, Part II. (The exploits of Hojo Tokimune.)
24. The interview of Ukishima ga Hara. (An historical incident from the Tales of Yoshitsune.)
25. The Wild Goose. (From the Tales of Soga Brothers.)
26. Shoyo, the Hermit.

BOOK VI.

1. The Comparison of Flowers.
2. Before and After Snowfall.
3. The Moon of Lake Dotei (Chinese Lake).
4. The Coast of Italy.
5. Greatness. (Japanese verses.)
6. Watanabe Kasan. (Secret of his success.)
7. Samurai (Knight), Farmer, Craftsman and Merchant.
8. Prince Ito. (A tribute.)
9. The Remarkable Scenery of Kise.
10. Travel. (In verse.)
11. Miura Peninsula. (A description.)
12. The "Parting" Letter. (A letter of Ohta Gengo to his mother.)
13. Shushansui and Ando Shoan. Part I.
14. Same. Part II. (The story of a famous teacher and pupil.)
15. Sobu. (A Chinese emperor's faithful follower. A song.)
16. The Imperial Sepulcher at Shiramune.
17. Tametomo in Exile.
18. Sakakibara Yasumasa. Part I.
19. Same. Part II.
20. The Priest of Ninnaji.
21. The Vicinity of Saga.
22. Genroku. (In verse—collection.)
23. Kitsunezuka. (A farce.)
24. The Tale of William Tell.
25. Same. (Drama.)
26. The Result of War. (An essay. In this essay the writer says: "The thing which is most beautiful, most noble, and best of human being is that which has spring out of the war. Of Japanese spirit, that which is most beautiful and noble is not Buddhism or Confucianism. It is the spriti of Bushi or Knighthood. It is the spirit born out of the battle. This noble spirit is not the product of the teaching of China or India.")

BOOK VII.

1. Our Nation.
2. Hitachi Obi. (Essay on the Old Japanese Song.)
3. An Evening in Spring. (In verse.)
4. The Essays of Matsuo Basho.
5. A Scarecrow.
6. Climbing the Taisan. (Chinese mountain.)
7. The Council of War. (Of Tametomo.)

8. The Night Assault of Shirokawa Den.
9. The Glimpse of Emerson.
10. A Letter to Sister. Part I.
11. Same. Part II. (Letter of Yoshida Shoin.)
12. The Snow of Ono.
13. Rihaku, the Poet. (Chinese poet.)
14. The Extract from Hojo Tales or Chronicles.
15. The Proverbs. (An essay.)
16. Scott, the Poet.
17. The Poet's Statue. (In verse.)
18. Collection of Songs.
19. A Letter of Amemori Hoshu.
20. Extract from Satomi Hatsuken Den of Takizawa Baxin—The Takino gawa.
21. Same.
22. The Imperial Sepulcher at Ohara. (An essay.)
23. Taira Shingemori. Part I. (An essay.)
24. Same. Part II.
25. Arai Hakuseki and Motoori Nobunaga. (Sketch of two famous scholars.)

BOOK VIII.

1. Characteristics of the Japanese.
2. The Fall of Aizu Fortress.
3. Same.
4. Collection of Songs.
5. Saigyo, the Musician.
6. Same. (Sketch of a famous Buddhist priest musician.)
7. "By Making the Child a Priest." (From the Tales of Yoshida Kenko, a famous Buddhist priest.)
8. A Letter to a Brother. (By a certain Buddhist priest.)
9. Speech of Anthony. (From Julius Cæsar.)
10. The Tower of London. (An essay of Natsume Soseki.)
11. The Wandering. (In verse.)
12. Mitsuyori's audience with the Emperior.
13. Dan no Ura. (The Battle of Heike and Genji.)
14. Same.
15. The Assault of Gishi, or Loyal Retainers. (In letter form.)
16. The Four Seasons. (From Yoshida Kenko's Tsurezure Gusa.)
17. The Flight to Kumano of Prince Daito.
18. Prince Hironari's Hawk Hunt.
19. The Extracts from Shinyo Wakashu. (Japanese poems.)
20. The Potted Plant. Part I.
21. Same.
22. Yosa Buson, the Poet.
23. Japanese Songs.
24. The Tartars' Invasions.
25. Grecian Civilization.

BOOK IX.

1. The Essentials of National Constitution.
2. Yamaga Soko and General Nogi.
3. The Restoration of Kenmu. Part I.
4. Same. Part II.
5. Japanese Songs.

6. Inspiration. (By Tokutomi Soho.)
7. Same.
8. The Keeper of Niishima.
9. Same.
10. The Imperial Sepulcher at Mano. (Of Emperior Shitoku.)
11. Same.
12. The Four Saints of the World.
13. Same.
14. Tsukino mayo no noryo. (The Moonlight Enjoyment.)
15. Raisanyo. (A famous scholar.)
16. Same.
17. The Song of Hirano Kuniomi.
18. Faust's Pessimism.
19. From Weimar. (Sketches of Goethe and Schiller.)
20. Musicians of Manyo Era.
21. Gojo ga Hara. (In verse. Incident from Chinese history.)
22. Mensius. Chinese Philosopher.
23. Same.

BOOK X.

1. Emperor Jinmu. (First Emperor.)
2. Same.
3. Life's Greatest Happening.
4. Same.
5. Same.
6. The Collection of Songs.
7. The Meditation of Autumn.
8. Confucianism.
9. Oyomei's Greatest Resolution.
10. Moon, the Reflection of Earth.
11. Moon and Flower.
12. The Spirit Imperishable. (By Tagore.)
13. Ataka no Seki. Part I.
14. Same. Part II.
15. Same.
16. Mount Hakone. (A description.)
17. The Exile of Sugawara.
18. Extract from Heike Monogatari. (Tales of Heike.)
19. Kikaiga Shima. (From the Tales of Heike.)
20. Opinion on Educational System. (In letter form.)
21. The Great Walls. (In verse.)
22. Soga Brothers.
23. Same. (Brothers who took revenge for their death and disgrace.)
24. Extracts from Japanese History.

INDEX.