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DEVELOPMENTS
IN EDUCATIONAL METHOD
1934-36

BEING CHAPTER X OF VOLUME I OF THE
BIENNIAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN THE
UNITED STATES : 1934-36



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FOREWORD

This report presents a series of brief surveys of recent developments in educational method. It points to the growing conviction that many of the aids and services once regarded as mere accessories to educational method are now among its essential elements. Many innovations of a few years ago are being accepted as basic equipment and as fundamental procedures effective in all parts of the school system from the nursery school to adult levels. Evaluations of the worth of these developments are specially important at the elementary and secondary school levels where a large proportion of the country's population completes its education and where the school's functions and responsibilities should of necessity be most carefully considered.

Two forces have operated to promote developments in educational method. On the one hand, social and economic changes have so modified family life that many responsibilities of child development and behavior guidance formerly assumed by the home have been shifted to the school. On the other hand, certain changes in educational philosophy and recent findings of scientific research have directed the efforts of the school toward new undertakings. In both instances it has become apparent that a recognition of new responsibilities for the schools and new developments in educational method must go hand in hand. The school now centers its attention on the child's personal, social, and cultural development through guidance and counseling; through instruction fitted to his capacities, interests, and needs; through cooperation with the home and community; and through broad experience afforded vicariously by radio, motion pictures, museums, libraries, and other aids. Problems inherent in these educational procedures are discussed in the reports that follow.

In the first review, Dr. Proffitt, recognizing the present widespread appreciation of individual differences, shows how guidance services are considered an essential function of education. His account summarizes briefly the work in guidance carried on by State and city departments of public instruction. The extent of occupational information courses offered in secondary schools is noted, the importance of school club activities for realizing guidance values is indicated, the increasing use of record forms in counseling and the efforts being made to improve them for guidance purposes are described, and practices relative to the qualifications of counselors are summarized. Child guidance clinics are given consideration because of their contribution to effective guidance service.

With the increased emphasis upon the complete development of each individual child there has been an extension and expansion of the methods of evaluating pupil growth. New tests of ability and achievement have been conceived. These aid in both the learning situation and the long-time guidance situation. The measurement of social behavior has also advanced paralleling the increasing attention paid to social adjustment in our schools. Dr. Segel describes the acceleration of measurement in these fields.

Attitudes and social behavior have been recognized for many years as factors in successful learning and in necessary social adjustments. Progress in character development, reviewed by Dr. Davis, indicates the extent to which efforts to help boys and girls succeed have moved from generalities that anticipate a transfer of training, to specific work, both with groups and with individual pupils. This has helped to open the field of education for character to experimental study. Studies of the causes for juvenile delinquency and of adult maladjustment during social and economic difficulties have stressed the importance of this emphasis upon character development in the school program.

Cooperation between schools and community museums is proving helpful in furthering the knowledge pupils obtain through their curriculum experiences. The guided visitations and illustrated lectures provided in many museums and the loan of material to schools by museums are described by Mr. Everard, who also refers to the initiative schools are taking in organizing and maintaining both temporary and permanent exhibits within their own elementary and secondary school buildings.

The spectacular expansion of the use of radio and motion pictures is described in Dr. Koon's summaries of national surveys. The influence of radio and motion-picture programs upon the individual and upon Nation-wide thinking are recognized as an immediate challenge to education. The review indicates some of the steps already taken to develop the use of these visual aids in schools and in general programs offered to the public.

Curricula organized on the basis of centers of interest stimulate and require children to seek information. Increasing numbers of school and community libraries are supplying reference material available in books and are adding new services by loaning visual aids and setting up exhibits related to the school programs. Miss Lathrop reviews some of the factors affecting school-library services and summarizes many of the aids related to curricula in the elementary and secondary schools and the contribution made to library services by civic and educational organizations.

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CHAPTER X

DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL METHOD, 1934-36

GUIDANCE IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

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During the past few years there has been an increasing tendency to recognize guidance as an essential function in education, a function necessary for the full realization of the potential values of school programs in terms of pupil outcomes. State, county, and local educational organizations have stressed the importance of guidance and have made provisions for studying and promoting guidance activities in the schools. This section on guidance is not intended to give a survey of the past, an interpretation of the present, nor a prediction of the future, but is intended to give an overview of present practices, with brief reference to recent developments in the guidance movement. These are set forth in terms of activities which are actually being carried on at the present time, and which involve a definite guidance function, whether or not they are formally labeled "guidance." Space permits the inclusion of only a few representative programs. Some are given in considerable detail in the belief that specific examples are of more value than generalizations.

Guidance programs are taking shape with more emphasis than formerly on methods used in the fields of psychiatry and personnel. The philosophy of guidance is in harmony with the developing psychology of individual differences, and with the more general assumption that differences in environment and opportunities are factors which condition an individual's successful progress through the schools and his participation in social relationships, including employment.

To support and to lend direction to the programs of guidance which have been developing throughout the country, and to pool the interests of those actively concerned with the guidance movement, the National Vocational Guidance Association was formed by educators and laymen. Through the work of branch associations of this organization, the help of a national magazine,¹ and the cooperative

¹ Occupations—the vocational guidance magazine. National Occupational Conference, 551 Fifth Ave., New York.

efforts of other national educational and personnel associations, many services are now offered to promote public support of guidance and to secure the participation of civic organizations in guidance work.

STATE GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Most of the State departments of education have held and are continuing to hold meetings including programs which are wholly or partially devoted to guidance. State courses of study rather generally include consideration of guidance. A number of States have issued publications for aiding and promoting it and others are outlining guidance programs for the schools. A few States have made specific provisions relative to the inclusion of studies in occupations as a part of the school program; others have guidance workers on their staffs. The New York State Education Department has taken the lead in appointing a full-time supervisor of guidance.

Though many States still remain without formal guidance programs, a number, according to information furnished the Office of Education in 1936, have made some provision for guidance on a State-wide basis. The following may be noted:

Alabama.—A 5-year committee on courses of study has outlined a plan for occupational courses and guidance activities.

California.—A State committee has done work similar to that in Alabama.

Delaware.—A State-wide pupil-record system is stressed for guidance and other uses.

Georgia.—Guidance has been promoted through summer teacher-training courses at the University of Georgia.

Idaho.—Guidance is encouraged through the issuance of bulletins and periodicals.

Iowa.—Vocations are included in the high-school course of study.

Louisiana.—A State committee is working for the promotion of guidance services in the schools.

Maine.—The agent for secondary education is fostering guidance in the secondary schools by working through the Maine Principals' Association.

Massachusetts.—Several guidance conferences have been held.

Michigan.—An active State committee holds conferences, issues publications, and circulates books devoted to guidance. Two major projects are now going forward: (1) Development of personnel records for better elementary and secondary school guidance, and (2) promotion of guidance and testing on the college level.

Missouri.—A guidance bulletin for junior-senior high schools was issued in 1933.

Minnesota.—Guidance and occupational information appear in school manuals.

Nebraska.—High-school manuals including guidance, safety education, and the study of occupations have been published.

Nevada.—A class called "Student Relationships" is in the required course of study for high schools. This carries a guidance emphasis.

New Hampshire.—In 1936, the State board of education published a detailed program of guidance for grades 7 to 12.

North Carolina.—A new course of study including materials on guidance, home rooms, and occupations is being introduced.

Ohio.—Guidance is included in the newly revised manual of high-school standards.

Oklahoma.—The director of instruction and reorganization and the chief high-school inspector are cooperating in an active program fostering guidance.

Oregon.—In 1936 the State formulated a definite plan for inaugurating guidance in the grades and in the high schools. The State department of education prepared two manuals to be used as guides and designated a representative from a teacher-training institution to act as supervisor in assisting local schools to set up their individual guidance programs.

Pennsylvania.—Ninth-grade courses in school opportunities and occupations were issued in 1933, and a guidance handbook in 1935.

South Carolina.—The State board of education has adopted a text on vocations.

Texas.—A curriculum revision program includes a section devoted to guidance.

Vermont.—A State committee on guidance is preparing a program.

Virginia.—This State has a required course in occupations, recommends guidance through home rooms, and has published and distributed a guidance bulletin.

Wisconsin.—An annual conference of school supervisors considers guidance among other school programs.

CITY GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

City programs of guidance were studied and reported upon, both generally and specifically, in the National Survey of Secondary Education. Four general types were found, differing in centralization of authority and in detail of organization, rather than in the basic functions performed:

1. Centralized bureaus of guidance for secondary schools in city systems.
2. City school systems with a central guidance organization but with the individual secondary school considered the unit in the program.

3. Centralized bureaus or departments in individual secondary schools.
4. Central guidance organizations in individual secondary schools which utilize regular officers and teachers as guidance functionaries.²

A type not enumerated above was disclosed by information collected by the Office of Education in 1936. This type is the central guidance committee organization in which the guidance functionaries are all part-time workers, carrying on counseling activities in addition to their other duties. For example, Birmingham, Ala., has a guidance committee composed of the director of vocational education, as chairman, and seven other members selected from among the advisers of boys and advisers of girls in the high schools. The committee is appointed by the associate superintendent of schools, who has guidance as one of his responsibilities. Wilmington, Del., has a similar arrangement.

Los Angeles, Calif., has a full-time supervisor of educational research and guidance, as does Oakland which has an assistant superintendent of schools in charge of individual guidance. Other cities with full-time guidance directors are: San Diego, Calif.; Bridgeport, Conn.; Hartford, Conn.; Atlanta, Ga.; New Orleans, La.; Baltimore, Md.; Boston, Mass.; Detroit, Mich.; Kansas City, Mo.; Albany, N. Y.; New York, N. Y.; Yonkers, N. Y.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Cleveland, Ohio; and Knoxville, Tenn. This list is compiled from answers received in the informal survey mentioned above, and includes cities with populations of 100,000 or over. Some cities reported officials whose titles would indicate full-time guidance supervision, but whose duties actually include other functions. Many smaller cities not having a full-time director do have full-time guidance workers. Moreover there are numerous cities with part-time directors of guidance.

The most outstanding legal development with reference to city guidance programs came in 1935, when New York State required all cities having more than 100,000 population to provide for guidance in their schools. The law reads as follows:

The board of education of each city and of each school district having a population of one hundred thousand or more shall establish, conduct, and maintain a guidance bureau. The organization and functions of each such bureau shall be determined by the board of education in accordance with the provisions of this section authorizing the establishment of guidance bureaus.³

In the field of elementary education little, if anything, has been done in formally organized counseling programs. Much is being

² Reavis, William C. Programs of guidance. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. 144 p. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin 1932, No. 17: National survey of secondary education, Monograph No. 14.)

³ An act to amend the education law, in relation to the establishment of vocational schools and providing for vocational and extension education. Ch. 250, Laws of New York, 1935.

done, however, through grade placement, diagnosis of learning difficulties, and other services to study individual children for the purpose of aiding their progress in school and supplying guidance and assistance in the development of social behavior.

Home-room periods and activity-periods sometimes found in elementary schools, frequently include work which has guidance value. In such programs a place is often given to a discussion of school courses, school activities, and individual problems that serve to orient and direct the pupil.

Cumulative records of manifested traits and interests are kept by many elementary schools. These records have a very definite guidance function and are useful throughout the entire school career. In many elementary schools, especially in systems organized on the 8-4 plan, pupils in the last grade are visited and counseled by persons representing vocational, technical, and academic high schools, relative to the courses and opportunities offered.

One notable new emphasis is directed toward the enlargement of duties of the visiting teacher or other official making home visits. These expanded duties frequently include guidance services. Behavior study and social adjustment have become so allied to attendance problems that some cities consider their visiting teachers as part-time guidance workers.

A characteristic of many city school programs, particularly on the secondary level, has been the departmental organization of instruction. Specialization in school organization and supervision has resulted in the pupil's coming under the tutelage of so many different persons that he spends but a comparatively short time with any one. Consequently, there is a lack of continuity of desirable teacher-pupil relations. It is to be remembered that after all the child is a unit and that he cannot be divided up among departmental and subject teachers for the development of certain parts of him without running grave risk of interference with the unity of his development.

City guidance programs which are school-centered, and which are built around the teacher as a counselor, seem to have been most successful in permeating entire school systems. An example of this type is found in Providence, R. I., where guidance is included under instructional work and is emphasized as a function of education. An organization has been developed to compensate the individual child for the diffusion of responsibility on the part of the school staff. The assistant superintendent of schools has direct responsibility for the organization, direction, and supervision of guidance services in all the schools of the city and is, *ex officio*, a member of the department of personnel research and guidance.

This department maintains continuous records on attendance, health, intelligence, achievement, aptitudes, and interests. It studies

pupil adjustment in classes and in school subjects; investigates articulation between grade levels; collects basic data for construction of the school program and for redefining school aims and curricular objectives; provides psychological and psychiatric examinations; collects and makes available information on schools and courses beyond the secondary level; and assists pupils in orienting themselves to the school and its program.

Counseling of individual pupils is done by teachers selected and trained for the purpose. A school counselor in Providence never ceases to be a classroom teacher for at least part time. Instruction in occupations, two periods per week, is given throughout the junior high school grades. Part of the period is set aside for educational and vocational conferences with individual pupils. The instruction is given by counselors, who are generally assigned some pupils in need of individual counseling.

Directed effort is made in the Providence program to secure the cooperation of the entire school staff in the use of facilities and conditions which affect the welfare of the pupil. The classroom teacher, the school principal, the supervisor of school subjects—each has an opportunity to discover, stimulate, and develop pupil aptitudes and interests. It is the purpose of the Providence schools to obtain from all of these some contribution to the guidance function.

The program includes a central office guidance clinic for the examination of pupils referred by counselors, school principals, or parents. A central placement service is maintained where records of placement and employment contacts are kept on file. Shop teachers and supervisors of guidance are scheduled one-half day each week to contact employers to determine opportunities for pupil placement. A regular and systematic follow-up program is in operation, constituting a valuable source of information for use by school officials in revising the curriculum and in developing desirable contacts for gaining the interest and support of the public in behalf of the schools.

DEVELOPMENTS IN GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

The recognition of the pupil's need for information in the intelligent choice of an occupational interest, for selecting courses of training, and for adjustment in employment has been rapidly growing during the past few years. That schools are now generally including classroom instruction in occupations is shown by data collected by the Office of Education in 1934.⁴ Reports received from more

⁴ Proffitt, Maris M. Courses in occupational information. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. 47 p. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin 1934, No. 11.)

than a thousand representative secondary schools showed that 68.5 percent of these schools were giving formal classroom instruction through organized courses in occupations. These courses usually come in the junior high school or the first and second years of a 4-year high school. The average length of these courses is about 5 weeks if the class meets every day. In most of the schools the course is either elective or limited to pupils taking certain curricula, or to special groups of students. Frequently in these courses pupils prepare workbooks covering such topics as:

Self-analysis.	Kinds and distribution of occupations.
How to study occupations.	Preparing for your vocation.
Choosing an occupation.	Securing and holding a position, and advancement.
Relation of education, work, and success.	
Why people work and how they cooperate.	

SCHOOL CLUBS

The guidance function of education is often served by the work carried on in school clubs. Their great variety of activities contributes extensively to the realization of guidance objectives. The recent rapid increase in the number of school clubs has broadened the opportunities for guidance services through extracurricular activities.

A study made by the Office of Education in 1934 based on returns from 883 representative junior and senior high schools shows that 92.4 percent of these schools have clubs.⁵ The following group classification, each having many variations not listed, indicates the great number of exploratory experiences club work may include:

Art clubs.	Household arts clubs,
Aviation and airplane clubs.	Industrial arts clubs.
Business and commercial clubs.	Journalism (poetry and literary clubs).
Camera clubs.	Music clubs.
Character building clubs (national and local).	Nature study clubs (botany, geology, zoology).
Collectors' clubs (stamps, coins, etc.).	Personal culture clubs (etiquette, hygiene, conversation).
Debating and speaking clubs.	Science clubs (physics, chemistry, mathematics).
Dramatic clubs.	School service clubs.
Farm, garden, and yard clubs.	Social and recreational clubs.
Foreign-language clubs.	Social science clubs.
Games (chess, checkers, nonathletic contests).	Sport and athletic clubs.
Health and welfare clubs.	
Honors clubs (scholarship, leadership, letters).	

⁵ Proffitt, Maris M. *High-school clubs*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. 64 p. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin 1934, No. 18.)

Properly filled-in pupil records are essential for successful counseling services. Many schools are now developing and revising forms for recording data on individual cases. In the Cincinnati schools the following are in use:

My high-school plan.—With the assistance of the counselor, the pupil completes this form before entering high school.

Counselor's record.—This includes data on tests, school grades, attendance, memoranda on conferences, and school plans.

Study yourself.—This is a self-analysis blank.

Teacher's estimate.—The teacher records estimates of personality, aptitudes, and interests.

Student information.—Pupils record their personal and family histories and answer questions as to special interests.

Cumulative record card.—This card contains comprehensive data on the pupil.

As a further indication of trends in the use of record cards it may be noted that the Minneapolis schools in 1936 began using new cumulative record cards for all pupils from kindergarten to grade 10B, a total of 62,000. Rochester, N. Y., now supplies teachers with a class record book for both elementary and secondary schools providing space not only for numerical grades and attendance records, but for social relations, work attitudes and habits, and other more subjective items useful in counseling. Michigan is developing a State-wide system of personnel records for the specific purpose of improving guidance in both the elementary and secondary schools.

CHILD GUIDANCE CLINICS

At the present time psychiatric clinics, or child-guidance clinics, have become recognized agencies for the adjustment of problem cases of behavior and personality. Clinics in general are community agencies, not officially connected with any other community organization. However, their functional relationship to the public schools and to the child-caring institutions of the community is necessarily close. In some cases the child-guidance clinics are directly connected with the school system.

Clinics are doing much to advance the development of efficient practices in the diagnosis and treatment of problem cases in the schools. An incidental, but important, result of clinical work is the heightened sensitivity to problems of the child on the part of schools and other agencies dealing with children. It is the intention of the clinic to study the child through the cooperation of all agencies interested in child life. A full clinic consists, therefore, of specialists in medicine, psychology, psychiatry, and sociological research.

* Survey report of the Cincinnati public schools made by the Office of Education. The Cincinnati Bureau of Governmental Research, Report No. 64, July 1935. 476 p.

In smaller clinics, one person may attempt to cover more than one of these fields.

It has been found that the clinic is of most value when problem cases can be reached early. For this reason child-guidance clinics have widened their scope beyond juvenile court cases to take in delinquent children before any legal hand has been laid upon them.

The number of clinics, both full-time and fully staffed and part-time and partly staffed, is increasing every year. More than 200 are now known to be in existence,⁷ of which more than half are full-time clinics. The budget and personnel vary considerably in the different clinics.

With reference to length of treatment, the experience of the Los Angeles Child-Guidance Clinic revealed, in a survey of 236 consecutive full-service cases, that the study and treatment of an individual case covered an average of 19 months, with the range running from 1 to 53 months.⁷

As is the case with many improved educational practices that require a considerable sum of money to initiate, child-guidance clinics had their origin in and are now largely confined to cities and large administrative units. However, schools in the smaller places, seeing the good results accruing from the work of the clinics, began to think of ways and means whereby their services might be carried to smaller places. As a result, visiting or traveling clinics more or less adequately equipped for service, have been provided by a number of States, including Massachusetts, Illinois, Rhode Island, Delaware, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, South Carolina, and California.

The visiting child-guidance clinic of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research, organized in 1929,⁸ provides a complete clinic where services are available to the smaller communities in the State that meet necessary requirements. Thus the cooperation of local public schools, doctors, and social welfare agencies is made possible. The children studied and examined may have been suggested by any one of a number of agencies, such as schools, juvenile courts, welfare organizations, or physicians. However, children of school age are given preference, and from the names suggested, the clinic selects those cases which seem to indicate that the trouble is not merely a physical condition.

In all cases, individual mental tests are given by a trained person. The child is studied by a psychiatrist to determine attitudes and in-

⁷ Stevenson, George S. and Smith, Geddes. *Child guidance clinics: A quarter century of development.* New York, Commonwealth Fund, 1934. 186 p.

⁸ Fenton, Norman. *Organizing a mental hygiene program through the child guidance conference.* Sacramento, California State Printing Office, 1933. (State of California, Department of Institutions, Bureau of Juvenile Research, Bulletin No. 9, new series.)

terests pertaining to his environmental conditions. A local physician makes the necessary physical examination, and social and welfare agencies, together with the parents, supply necessary information for an understanding of the case. After the records are completed, a conference of the clinical staff is held and a report prepared. The report is given to the liaison worker between the clinic and the community. This person makes it available to persons and agencies having responsibility for providing the kinds of remedial treatment or other form of action recommended. Follow-up reports are made by the local agencies on the progress being achieved. Members of the clinic's staff advise concerning further treatment and revisit the community for further consultation as time permits and need is manifested.

COUNSELORS' QUALIFICATIONS

With the development of guidance as a special function of education, attention has been given to the qualifications of workers in this field. It is now a rather general practice to stipulate that persons rendering guidance services meet special requirements.

In New York State, for example, "A teacher or other staff member who devotes at least 50 percent of his time to counseling shall hold a certificate valid for such service in the public schools. This applies to advisers, counselors, deans, and others performing the duties prescribed."⁹

In order to make sure that no member of a school staff is performing such functions unclassified as guidance activities, the State department defines the following duties as guidance functions:

Subject to the direction and supervision of the superintendent of schools, to plan, organize, and direct the guidance program of the school; confer with parents, community agencies, teachers, and specialists on the educational, health, social, moral, family, and vocational problems of pupils; confer with pupils on curricular and extracurricular problems, school policies, and related problems; give instruction covering educational and occupational opportunities and related topics; prepare and maintain cumulative pupils' records; secure reliable information about higher education, special training, and occupational opportunities; organize and administer pupil placement and follow-up service; advise the superintendent of schools and principal with regard to all matters relating to counseling; and to do related work as required.⁹

The guidance counselors in the Providence, R. I., schools are all selected from the teaching staff. Teachers manifesting personal qualifications and having had educational courses that contribute to an understanding of guidance work are chosen. ⁴Special training is

⁹ Certification for administrative and supervisory service: laws, rules, regulations, and information. Albany, N. Y., The University of the State of New York Press, 1935. (Certification bulletin no. 1.)

then provided for those teachers who are to give part time to counseling. They come under the direct supervision of the official responsible for the development of the guidance program. The Providence plan provides for 3 years of inservice training for each counselor.

In Cincinnati counselors are a carefully selected group. In their selection emphasis is placed upon vocational experience, personality traits, knowledge of social service practices, university training with particular consideration to subjects related to child welfare, and specific interest in the work. These counselors come under the supervision of an official especially trained and experienced in the conduct of counseling and guidance services in the school system.

DEVELOPMENT IN MEASUREMENT

Prepared by DAVID SEGEL

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The application of measurement to education has developed both intensively and extensively—intensively in that the use of tests in the classroom or guidance situation is becoming better defined and understood and more acceptable to school people; extensively in that measurement is being extended to new administrative school units and educational or socio-educational agencies. Generally speaking, the acceleration in measurement has not only had as its objective the measurement of products of the curriculum and the abilities of the individual pupil, but also adjustments in testing techniques to parallel the changes taking place in educational practice and the need for knowledge about individual pupils. Selected evidences of growth in measurement are reviewed in this report.

MEASUREMENT AND THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

New-type testing which represents a departure from the old essay-type of examination began with an emphasis on skills and factual knowledge. Inasmuch as school practices vary with respect to the time of teaching the various fact items and skills, standardized tests do not always fit the curriculum. Their validity has consequently been questioned. In recent years, as the school has extended its objectives to include appreciations, tastes, and preferences, attitudes of work, the application of principles to the physical sciences, the social sciences, and elsewhere, standardized new-type tests have become still less satisfactory as a means of measuring the effectiveness of the whole curriculum. Since the need for better types of tests has become generally apparent, important developments in adapting measurement to the objectives of the curriculum have taken place. A few of these developments will be noted.

Tyler's work at the Ohio State University has contributed materially to the improvement of testing techniques. He has cooperated with the college instructors at Ohio State University in analyzing their subjects and in defining specific learning objectives to be incorporated in examination items. In science the basic material was found to be "a list of important facts, technical terms, and prin-

principles which students might be expected to remember; a list of common misconceptions which the course might help to eliminate; a list of sources, both reliable and unreliable, of scientific information; collections of problems, problem-solving situations, and problems to be analyzed; experimental data or facts encountered in everyday life from which students should be able to draw generalizations; a list of hypotheses which could be tested by the students; a list of scientific principles which the students should be able to apply to new situations; and a collection of laboratory techniques which the students are expected to master."¹⁰ An important outcome of Tyler's work is a long-time program of evaluation of high-school instruction sponsored by the Progressive Education Association.

Lindquist¹⁰ has shown that objective test questions can be framed so that understanding can be tested. He describes the construction of such test items in connection with a study of the Iowa State testing program. The use of this improved type of question results not only in making the test more valid, but it tends to serve as an example to the teacher of the type of instruction he should carry on. Lindquist gives the following as a sample showing the differences in types of questions and the reactions of pupils to them. The items are taken from a physics test given to a random sampling of 325 Iowa high-school physics students.

1. What is the heat of fusion of ice in calories?
(Answered correctly by 78 percent of the pupils.)
2. How much heat is needed to melt one gram of ice at 0° C?
(Answered correctly by 70 percent of the pupils.)
3. Write a definition of heat of fusion.
(Answered correctly by 50 percent of the pupils.)
4. The water in a certain container would give off 800 calories of heat in cooling to 0° C. If 800 grams of ice are placed in the water, the heat from the water will melt
 - (1) All the ice.
 - (2) About 10 grams of ice.
 - (3) Nearly all the ice.
 - (4) Between 1 and 2 grams of ice.
 (Answered correctly by 35 percent of the pupils.)
5. In which of the following situations has the number of calories exactly equal to the heat of fusion of the substance in question been applied?
 - (1) Ice at 0° C. is changed to water at 10° C.
 - (2) Water at 100° C. is changed to steam at 100° C.
 - (3) Steam at 100° C. is changed to water at 100° C.
 - (4) Frozen alcohol at -130° C. is changed to liquid alcohol at -130° C.
 (Answered correctly by 34 percent of the pupils.)

¹⁰ Hakwes, Herbert E., Lindquist, E. F., and Mann, C. R. The construction and use of achievement examinations. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. 497 p.

In this test, each succeeding item represents greater difficulty than the one preceding. Items 4 and 5 cannot be answered by rote memorization but require an understanding of the basic principles involved.

Intimate connection is being increasingly established between the curriculum and the use of "diagnostic", "unit", and "instructional" tests. The use of diagnostic instruments has been described in detail in the Thirty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.¹¹ There are two general aspects to educational diagnosis—one relating directly to instruction and the other having as its ultimate purpose the discovery of those individual traits which must be known if educational guidance is to be most effective.

Unit tests are becoming an integral part of the unit of work or activity unit. Such tests are generally constructed by the teacher or the local school system. They are more closely related to actual class instruction than any other tests except perhaps the so-called instructional tests which usually consist of drill material together with certain final tests, and which are being developed for insertion at the end of topics or units in courses of study and textbooks. Workbooks consisting largely of instructional tests are being issued in arithmetic, algebra, English, science, and the social studies.

The use of tests for guidance has been increasing. In the kindergarten or first-grade reading readiness and school readiness tests^{12, 13} are being used to classify entering children into reading and non-reading groups. Such tests have been found to be slightly superior to general intelligence tests for the purpose.¹³ In the other elementary grades there has been notable growth in the use of batteries of tests which give, in addition to data for immediate instructional purposes, a picture of capabilities of the individual pupil in the different school subjects.

This information is of value to the school in planning the pupil's long-time program. In many rural schools the traditional examination for graduation has been shifted to the lower grades where its guidance possibilities have been greatly increased.¹⁴

In the high school and the college great impetus has been brought about in the guidance field through sponsorship of the Cooperative Test Service by the American Council on Education. The work in

¹¹ National Society for the Study of Education. 34th Yearbook. Educational diagnosis. Bloomington Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1935. 523 p.

¹² Harrison, M. Lucille. Reading readiness. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. 166 p.

¹³ Wright, W. W. Reading readiness—A prognostic study. Bloomington, Ind., Indiana University. (School of Education Bulletin, vol. XII, no. 3, June 1936.) 46 p.

¹⁴ Segel, David. Elementary school graduating examinations. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1935. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1935, No. 10.) 64 p.

occupational research at the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Institute has contributed also to our knowledge of abilities deemed essential in certain types of occupations. This should be of value in school guidance.

A study sponsored by the Office of Education, in which some 15 colleges and universities are participating, centers attention upon the factors in secondary education which may influence success in college. One of the studies undertakes to determine the relation between character ratings and college success. Advanced methods of using measurement in college guidance have been described in detail in a recent Office of Education publication.¹⁵

It is clear that there is developing a much closer relationship between test results and the use to which teachers and others put them. An important element in this change is the adaptation of the type of test item to fit the learning situation or the ability of the pupil who is to be tested. In the early development of measuring devices, the new-type test, i. e., the true-false, completion, multiple-choice, and matching, overshadowed the development of other types of items. It is now felt that the type of item incorporated in the test should be governed by the type of situation in which the test is to operate. There are many possible variations of the new-type test items mentioned, as well as many other methods of evaluation which promise to develop into worth-while methods. Behavior rating scales, observation of activities, the case history method, the use of anecdotes, and variations of the essay type of examination offer possibilities.¹⁶

Another development which shows the more intimate adaptation of measurement to the school is just emerging from the experimental stage. This development involves a general evaluation of the school program through rating types of pupil responses, of lesson planning, of class discussion, and of the teacher's administration of classroom activities. It is an extension of the earlier practice of rating teachers, school or class situations by measuring the achievement of the pupils. This method attempts to evaluate the socialization and the initiative of the pupils in the classroom situation more objectively than ever before. The timed schedule for observation is an integral part of this method. Wrightstone¹⁷ has evolved perhaps the best

¹⁵ ——— Prediction of success in college: a handbook for administrators and investigators concerned with the problems of college admittance or guidance of college students. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 1934, No. 15.) 98 p.

¹⁶ Wrightstone, J. W. New tests for new needs. In *Educational Method*, 15:407-411, May 1936.

¹⁷ ——— Appraisal of newer practices in selected public schools. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 117 p.

schedule of items to be observed. He has used, among others, the following items:

1. Pupil responses observed:
 - (a) Initiative shown in preparing voluntary reports or exhibits.
 - (b) Initiative shown in extemporaneous contributions from real experience.
 - (c) Initiative shown in extemporaneous contributions from vicarious experience.
 - (d) Initiative shown in suggesting means, methods, activities, solutions.
 - (e) Responsibility shown in preparing assigned reports or exhibits.
 - (f) Curiosity shown in asking questions on the topic, unit, or problem.
 - (g) Criticism of a contribution.
2. Teacher conduct of class discussions observed:
 - (a) Allowing pupils to make a voluntary contribution.
 - (b) Encouraging pupils to make a contribution.
 - (c) Proposing questions or theses for pupils or class.
 - (d) Referring pupils to sources of data or information.
 - (e) Suggesting means, methods, activities, or solutions.
 - (f) Discouraging or prohibiting a pupil from making a contribution.
 - (g) Recalling a pupil's attention by direct word, look, or gesture.

NEW AREAS FOR MEASUREMENT

One general extension of testing at the present time has its origin in the newer administrative units that are now a part of the expanding school system. The kindergarten and nursery school at one end and the junior college and college at the other have created new demands of testing service. Similarly, CCC camps, the National Youth Administration,¹⁸ school placement agencies for educational guidance, and other extensions of educational and guidance facilities require appropriate tests for directing the development of their programs. This extension of the school system downward and upward, as well as the inclusion of newer types of activity, demands that more attention be paid to the grade placement of subject matter and to the individual pupil's abilities and interests so that he may be guided into those educational experiences which will be of most benefit to him. For this reason there is a special need for pupil appraisal. The next paragraphs present some of the modifications and extensions of measurement which are designed to meet current need.

Consider first the new program of socializing children. When objective measurement was first conceived and executed, no measures of social attitudes and interests were thought necessary. Today

¹⁸ Cherniss, Lillian. Psychological tests applicable to personnel and vocational counseling. Springfield, Ill. National Youth Administration of Illinois, 1936. 90 p.

schools almost universally claim socialization as one of their objectives. They are experimenting to identify social traits and to determine methods of measuring them. The most common method has been to have teachers rate the pupils on various social traits. In a recent survey by the Office of Education it was found that there was little unanimity of opinion regarding any common name or description of the social or character traits desired in pupils. Almost every school system had a different set of such traits. This state of indecision or confusion in the identification of desirable social traits indicates the point at which any advancement in evaluating must begin. Until the school is united as to what these traits are, any attempts at measurement will lack validity. The Haggerty-Olson-Wickham behavior rating schedules have been found valuable in helping to make uniform the recording of actual events of significance to an understanding of problem pupils and the rating of intellectual, physical, social, and emotional traits.

Other methods of evaluating social traits include observation of behavior and, to a smaller extent, performance tests of character and tests of knowledge of social usage. It has been found difficult to conceal the real purpose of these tests from the pupils and the findings have, therefore, been open to question. A method which obviates most of this difficulty is the word association test.¹⁹ The large number of response words incorporated in this type of test reduces the significance which a given response may hold for the pupil, and consequently increases its validity. Performance tests of character traits which have been most successful are those developed by Hartshorne, May, Maller, and Shuttleworth in connection with their intensive work on such traits as honesty and cooperativeness.

Colleges have extended their use of tests into a new field through comprehensive examinations.²⁰ These are examinations characterized by (a) a large area of subject matter and (b) by test items which depend more upon understanding and appreciation of the subject matter than upon a knowledge of specific items of information. They are a result of recent emphasis in college on broad, comprehensive programs of education which put a premium upon independent study of students and which recognize their varying interests in attaining the goals of education set up by universities.

Growth in the use of measurement in pupil personnel work and in the evaluation of the curriculum and instruction in regular schools is attested first, by the increase in the use of tests and other instru-

¹⁹ Kelley, T. L. and Krey, A. C. *Tests and measurements in the social sciences*. New York, Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1934. 685 p.

²⁰ Jones, E. S. *Comprehensive examinations in American colleges*. New York, Macmillan Co., 1933. 486 p.

ments of evaluation and, second, by the increase in the number of school officials bearing the title of Director of Research, Director of Research and Guidance, or Director of Guidance. A plan just approved for New York City²¹ enlarges the research bureau from one director to a director and three assistant directors, one of whom will be in direct charge of "tests and measurements." This is fairly typical of recent enlargements of administrative staffs to provide guidance services.

STATE-WIDE TESTING PROGRAMS

State-wide testing in both the elementary and the high-school fields is receiving more attention than ever before. The administration of testing programs is changing in many instances from a glorified competition where only a portion of the pupils in each school are tested, to serious programs involving all the pupils in the schools. This is a very important development, because it means that testing is becoming a technique which may influence for good or bad the educational and guidance programs of large areas. If the tests used contain items geared to the barest necessities of the educational program, then such a testing program becomes a millstone which holds down effective educational development. On the other hand, a testing program fully alive to the importance of varying educational objectives and to the need of data for pupil guidance will be a program which tends to lead educational progress in its participant schools.

PUPIL-PERSONNEL RECORDS

There are two important types of pupil records now used in schools. Both types are undergoing changes. One type is the periodic report to parents, and the other is the permanent record of the individual pupil kept by the school for its use and for other schools to which the pupil may go. The report to parents is now undergoing considerable change in many schools. These changes are not, however, all in the same direction. The tendencies in report card construction show four significant trends: (1) There is a strong tendency to eliminate percentage marks, or even marks in groups of 4 or 5, such as A, B, C, D, F, or 70, 80, 90, etc. This tendency is more marked in elementary schools than in secondary schools. In place of letters or numerals, the ratings are usually simply S and U

²¹ Experimental Schools in New York City. *In School and Society*, 43:287, February 20, 1936.

for satisfactory and unsatisfactory. In some cases there is no symbol if the work in the subject is satisfactory, but a check if the work is unsatisfactory.

(2) Another important tendency in report-card development is that of reporting on social and character traits. The ratings asked for on the report card recommended by the Alabama Education Association used by many schools in Alabama (grades 7-12) are as follows:

CHARACTER TRAITS (suggest these ratings be made every second time reports are made on attendance and scholarship)	Reporting periods					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to plan—Plans efficient ways of working						
Ambition—Eager to make progress						
Companionability—Is friendly and helpful to others						
Concentration—Directs attention to task at hand						
Cooperation—Works well with others for common good						
Leadership—Leads successfully in things worth while						
Perseverance—Sticks to important tasks in spite of difficulties						
Resourcefulness—Meets new situations successfully						
Respect for property—Public and private						
Self-control—Controls emotions, judgment, and actions						
Self-reliance—Reasonable dependence upon self						
Spontaneity—Responds readily to desirable situations						
Study habits—Prepares work regularly and efficiently						
Thrift—Uses time, energy, and materials effectively						

KEY TO MARKING SYSTEM (use these letters for ratings on scholarship and character traits):

A = Excellent.

C = Fair.

F = Failure.

B = Good.

D = Poor.

I = Incomplete.

(3) The tendency to report to the parents on the achievement in the specific goals of the schools. The Bronxville schools provide an outstanding illustration in this practice. For example, in the Bronxville primary grades the report on oral English includes the follow-

ing as part of the goals the attainment of which is to be reported to parents:

- Takes part in class discussion.....
- (a) Talks willingly.....
- (b) Talks loudly and distinctly enough to be heard
by group.....
- (c) Gives courteous attention to others.....
- Tells simple story or experience so that it is interesting
to others.....
- Makes helpful contributions to class plans, reports, accounts,
or plays.....
- Listens to stories or messages carefully enough to repro-
duce important elements.....
- Has taken several parts in impromptu dramatizations.....

In some cases this tendency is expressed through recording on the report cards scores obtained on standardized tests. Sometimes these scores are arranged graphically so that they may be readily compared with the pupil's standing in his class, with his standing from month to month, and with the standardized norm. (4) The tendency to do away with reporting on any set form. No report cards are used, and teachers are asked to write a letter to the parents of each child in the class presenting problems, if any, of mutual interest and possible aid. In some cases the parents are asked to write a letter in return.

Although these four different types of changes are going on with respect to report cards, it is probable that all these attempts to improve the report card come from a common feeling that the simple subjective rating by teachers on achievement alone was an inadequate report for modern education. It will be interesting to watch this movement develop. The cooperation of school with parents is needed. Just what type of report will bring this about best is apparently a matter of experiment.

The records kept of individual pupils in school are designated as permanent or cumulative records. Schools differ immensely in their recording of information about pupils. Some keep a bare minimum—enough to identify the grade classification of a pupil in the elementary school and the credit classification (for purpose of grade placement) in the secondary school. Others are attempting to keep a fairly full record of the achievement of the pupils, their attendance and progress through the grades, social attitudes, extracurricular accomplishment, test results, vocational plans, brief family history, and other data. Since research in some of the fields covered by cumulative records is still in its infancy, it is too early to be dogmatic about all the items which should go into these cumulative records. Research concerning the value of series of records over a period of time is especially needed.

The more individual guidance and adjustment given to pupils by teachers, counselors, and principals, and the less formal our curriculum becomes, the more cumulative records are needed to carry the information about individual pupils. When entrance and progression were fairly mechanical procedures adapted to an iron-bound curriculum which every child had to conform to, there was little need for records of individual pupils. The more flexible the progression of pupils becomes, and the more choices there are in the curriculum, the greater becomes the need for knowledge about the individual child. The need for better appraisal of pupil traits and abilities, better cumulative records, and better procedures of integrating these records is apparent.

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

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The present widespread interest in education for character development may be attributed to two influences. There is, first, a tradition that certain qualities of thinking and behaving are responsible for building our Nation and should, therefore, be deeply embedded in the character of our people. In the second place, the World War brought changes in home and community life which the recent depression has intensified. Mounting records of juvenile delinquency and a growing recognition of serious social maladjustments of adults are proof that many influences formerly guiding and protecting boys and girls no longer function. There is also evidence that incidence of both juvenile delinquency and adult maladjustments might have been avoided by adequate guidance during early childhood and school life. As a result, educational and social leaders are manifesting increased interest in providing guidance adapted to home and community problems.

The following report describes various evidences of interest in character development and reviews school activities, research in character education, and programs of nonschool organizations. This may help to answer the question repeated so frequently "What is character education?" and to indicate what this emphasis upon thinking and behaving means in terms of citizenship objectives of the school program.

IMPORTANCE OF CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

A review of the history of character education summarizes some of the goals maintained by different peoples for the education of their youth—"The American Indian educated for alertness, bravery, and honor; the early Hebrew for an understanding and application of the 'way of life' commanded by Yahwah; the ancient Chinese for veneration, justice, and benevolence; the Spartan Greek for fortitude, courage, and patriotism; the Athenian for refinement of personality and appreciation of beauty; the colonial Puritan for frugality, sobriety, and religious devotion."²² To the traditional traits of the

²² Meredith, Howard V. and Manry, James C. A brief history of character education. University of Iowa, Extension Bulletin, No. 290. April 15, 1932. 31 p.

colonial settlers in our country others have been added during the experience of founding a democracy, of developing frontiers, and of evolving from an agricultural to an industrial Nation. Some of these traits have been socially constructive while others have been negative in nature. Courage, honesty, self-reliance, respect for the rights of others, and neighborliness are among the long list of traits desired of citizens in a democracy, while such negative qualities as selfishness, dishonesty, greed, trickery, and an antisocial desire for power are among those which defeat the ideals of democracy.

But in the present time of social and economic change certain difficulties in developing constructive and desirable traits in the oncoming generations seem of large proportion. There are controversies between adults and youth about standards of conduct suited to "yesterday" contrasted with standards for "today." Research indicates that children have no one uniform code of morals. Rather they adapt codes to meet the insistent demands of the home, the school, Sunday school, or the playground. Adults are faced with the need of discriminating between essentials and trivialities in their own behavior and in the activities of youth. They also find it essential to base their own thinking and their guidance of boys and girls upon principle rather than on expediency, fears, and prejudices.

The President's Commission on Social Trends points to the necessity for beginning guidance in early childhood by stating that "Many of the adults who are involved today in serious social difficulties were the neglected, dependent, poorly nurtured, or otherwise maladjusted children of yesterday." Other reports emphasize the influence of environment upon the standards of personal and social conduct. "Research . . . is pointing definitely to the conclusion that the attitude of persons in the home, and others in close contact with children, is far more significant as an environmental factor affecting the future conduct of children than any physical or economic limitation of the environment. Not even chronic physical ill health itself has more serious effect upon the conduct of youth than does the environment factor of attitude in the home, the church, and school."²⁸ Programs of mental hygiene which have centered constructively upon the detection, correction, and prevention of conduct disorders direct attention to the need for changes in school practices and for additions to both school and community services to aid all ages within the community from the preschool child through the periods of youth and adult life.

Much of the professional literature has emphasized social behavior and personality development as basic educational objectives implying

²⁸ Copeland, Royal S. Health, character, and education. *In* Health and Physical Education, 7: 8, January 1936.

an integration of education for character with the generally accepted school activities. This philosophy of integration is expressed in the definitions of character education given in the Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence and in the February 1935 bulletin of the American Educational Research Association.

It is the thesis of our study of character education that character education is not an additional subject in the curriculum, that it is not an extra-curriculum activity, rather it is the goal toward which all education is directed. It is not separate and apart from the commonly accepted objectives in education, it is rather inherent in all of them.

* * * It should be said that in the broadest sense all the work of the school, the home, the church, and other organizations which assist the individual to adjust his behavior to the demands of social living is character education. In the school situation certainly all the work along such lines as educational guidance and classification, diagnostic testing and remedial teaching, mental and physical health, and the work in the socialization of the individual make contributions to character development.

STATE AND LOCAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Leadership has been taken by many State departments of public instruction in defining goals for character development, in constructing curriculums, and in coordinating educational, behavior-corrective, and welfare services. Recently the States of Nebraska and Oregon enacted legislation calling for programs of character education. Other States have guided character education through special curricula, manuals, and handbooks, sections of general courses of study, supplementary curriculum materials, and statements of cardinal principles of education. Among the States which have issued such publications since 1930 are Idaho, Indiana, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, and Rhode Island. Virginia has published a Bible study curriculum for secondary schools. One of Nebraska's publications is addressed primarily to adults and emphasizes the necessity of cooperation on the part of the home, the child, the school, and the community if the program of character education and citizenship training is to be effective.

In at least two States, New Jersey and Michigan, there has been a direct attack upon character development. In the fall of 1934 the New Jersey State Commissioner of Education appointed a character education committee representing superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers in the city and rural schools, the faculties of colleges, and the staff of the State Department of Education. The committee conceded that character education takes place in all life activities but centered its work upon the limitations, responsibilities, and opportunities of the school in providing for growth in character,

as well as in intellectual and physical development. The first report²⁴ issued in 1935, outlined the committee's tentative plans, presented guiding principles for the program, defined character, questioned the ability of the public schools to change character, and described the case study method of analyzing character traits and social maladjustments. The committee then solicited State-wide cooperation in assembling reports of individual and group case studies, reports of school procedures, and of research contributing to character objectives.

In the winter of 1933-34 the superintendent of public instruction for the State of Michigan sought a frank appraisal of educational objectives and accomplishments as they relate to other governmental problems. He delegated this appraisal to the Michigan Educational Planning Commission, representing organized taxpaying groups throughout the State, as well as other interested organizations, such as the American Association of University Women and the Parent-Teachers Association. From the commission's program there developed a series of pointed questions relating to an overemphasis upon academic formalism in the school curriculums. It was pointed out that "the virtues that are peculiarly essential to successful living in a democracy—honesty and cooperation—seem to be buried in the growing consciousness of crime, selfishness in business practice, faithlessness in public office, narrow and ill-founded thinking, and general apathy to social evils." It was also pointed out that "to build a more effective and humanitarian, economic, social, and political structure, it is necessary to produce a type of citizen who recognizes his social responsibilities and who is willing to make a contribution to the improvement of the social group * * *. Many believe this end can be accomplished by giving greater emphasis in the school program to character values and by evaluating all instruction and activities in terms of character outcome."²⁵

There followed the formation of committees to carry a long-time project within the State: (1) To coordinate forces already at work in the field of character development; (2) to give greater stress to personality development in the curriculum; (3) to shape extracurricular influences to contribute more directly to the pupil's ability to meet the experiences of daily life; (4) to provide more individual guidance by teachers and specialists for both normal and maladjusted children; (5) to adjust teacher-training programs to character education objectives; and (6) to promote parent education.

Under the direction of a committee of schoolmen, a State-wide program was drafted, and this program has had the active support of

²⁴ New Jersey, Department of Public Instruction. Character emphasis in education for elementary and high schools. Bulletin No. 1, June 1935. 59 p.

²⁵ Voelker, Paul F. Educational reconstruction in Michigan. In *The Nations Schools*, 14: 12-16, August 1934.

an organization of school-board members with the Michigan Council on Education, representing 26 State-wide organizations actively engaged in education, serving in a consultative capacity. Throughout the State special projects have been carried on by school systems and by research centers in colleges and universities.²⁶

A study within a city school unit, known as the Congressional Demonstration in Character Education, was developed in 1934 in Washington, D. C. The study was initiated after hearings conducted by the United States Senate Subcommittee on Racketeering and Crime gave evidence to prove that the average age of prison population is 23 years, that the largest age group is found at 19, and that most criminal careers begin in childhood.²⁷ After reviewing the apparent causes for crime and delinquency, Dr. Royal S. Copeland, chairman of the Senate committee conducting the hearings, cited the procedure a physician would follow in diagnosing and treating physical disorders. He then asked educators whether it was not time for those in the educational system who are responsible for the health of character in children to give precedence to prescriptions for moral and social health over academic work.

The goal formulated for the demonstration was to accumulate a body of experiences on which modifications in school organization, administration, supervision, methods of teaching, and materials of instruction could be based to the end that the school gives maximum consideration to the personal and social needs of pupils on the various school levels. Ten schools were designated as experimental centers. The regular staff of each center was supplemented by a counselor and a small corps of research assistants. The director of the whole project was assisted by specialists in the centers studied and an advisory committee guided the development of the demonstration's program.

The fields of study included records, guidance, curriculum, remedial and preventive work, and in-service training of teachers and school administrators. Four essentials accepted for the program of the study were: (1) It must be based upon principles of child growth and development; (2) it must be a demonstration of principles actually functioning in a public-school system; (3) it must so evolve as to become an integral part of the school system as a whole and must result in recommendations for its continuation; (4) its methods and techniques must be worked out cooperatively by teachers and principals, with the help of specialists and must be tested experi-

²⁶ Voelker, Paul F. A program of demonstration and research. *In The Educational Record*, April 1935. Washington, D. C., The American Council on Education. P. 207-210.

²⁷ Charters, W. W. The Copeland experiment in the District of Columbia. *In The Educational Record*, October 1934. Washington, D. C. The American Council on Education. P. 403-418.

mentally before recommendation for inclusion in the whole school system.

With the curtailment of funds the study lost a year of the time originally anticipated for it. While the final report of the 2-year demonstration is not yet prepared, the project director has reported the procedures followed in each field of study and has prepared a manual of the procedures found helpful in the character education experimental centers.

A comparison of character education programs among many different city and county school systems shows a desirable lack of uniformity.²⁸ Some include certain characteristics in common, such as: (1) A gradual development over a period of years with continuing studies of the needs and resources of the community; (2) an ultimate, if gradual, extension of the program to include both elementary and secondary school grades, beginning most frequently with the kindergarten-primary grades; (3) a procedure based upon studies and research bringing teaching and administrative staffs into co-operative working units and encouraging pupils to participate in school government; (4) an expansion of home and community co-operation with the schools and an interchange of services.

Methods of conducting character education in the classroom fall into three general groups: (1) A direct method whereby character traits are thrown into relief at a specified time in the year's program or are given special periods in the weekly or daily program; (2) an indirect method of utilizing vicarious experiences in connection with regular school subjects and with no special class period assigned to character education; and (3) a combination of direct and indirect methods through using all appropriate experiences to emphasize character traits and give specific attention to their development.²⁹ All three methods are expressed in various courses of study, both those dealing specifically with education for character and those dealing with the social studies.

Certain policies of school administration have been directed toward the improvement of children's attitudes and behavior. They include adjustments in the grouping and promoting of pupils to help prevent school failure and its attendant negative effects upon behavior; expansions of cumulative or permanent records to make available information about the personal and home life of the pupils for purposes of guidance; and a reorganization of the periodic reports of

²⁸ Successful living. Seattle, Wash., Public Schools, 1935. 239 p.

The social studies. A course of study for grades one to six. (Ch. II, Character education) State of Indiana, Department of Public Instruction. Bulletin 114. 1935. 247 p.

Character emphasis in education. Bibliography. For elementary and high schools. New Jersey, Department of Public Instruction, October 1935. 49 p. (Mimeographed.)

²⁹ National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. Seventh Year-book. The Classroom teacher and character education, 1932. 272 p.

progress sent to parents to place emphasis upon the pupil's habits of work and social adjustments and the relation of these to progress in school subjects.³⁰ In contributing to the general service of building stable personalities many high schools have added counselors and student advisors to their staffs and many elementary schools have added experts in diagnostic and remedial teaching. Programs protecting the children's physical health have been related more closely to behavior guidance.³¹ In addition, clubs and service societies have been organized for elementary and secondary school pupils under such titles as Safety Patrols, Civic Pride Juniors, and Junior Citizens to entrust the members with definite social responsibilities. Still another aid considered especially vital for character development of school pupils is the poised and socially adjusted teacher. In recognition of the influence which the teacher's personality, her ideals, attitudes, and emotional controls have upon the personal and social adjustments of her pupils, courses in mental hygiene have been added to the curriculum in some teacher-preparation institutions and to the in-service work with experienced teachers.³²

RESEARCH IN CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

Experimental study in character development is a recent addition to research techniques. The delay in introducing scientific techniques into studies of character education has been due in large part to difficulties in establishing and defining character traits to be studied and in securing objective instruments for measuring qualities of growth that seem intangible and yet are recognized as controlling influences upon habit formation and learning abilities. To meet these difficulties many of the recent studies have defined problems of behavior in specific situations, and have refined the technique of studying them. For example, a recent clinical study summarized in a review of current research³³ reports that the best method of character education is one that prevents or reduces the moral and emotional conflicts of the individual. In other words, "if fear of punishment and the desire to surpass another child in school act as motivations for lying and cheating, then the removal of the fear of punishment and the competitive motive in school is the job for character education, not the attack on lying and cheating itself." Another clinical study re-

³⁰ Hartshorne, Hugh. Character education and school administration. In *Educational Progress and School Administration*—a symposium. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1936. 400 p.

³¹ Hughes, William L. Character building and health, the role of physical education. In *Health and Physical Education*, 7: 9, January 1936.

³² Goldrich, Leon W. Influence of teacher personality upon pupil adjustment. In *The Principal*, June 1936. 11 p.

³³ American Educational Research Association. Special methods and psychology of the elementary school subjects. Vol. V, no. 1, February 1935. *Review of educational research*. Ch. III, Character education. P. 31-36.

ports an attack on economic and social problems as a major procedure in character development. It involves the use of a series of lessons prepared to teach children to be open-minded and non-gullible to propaganda about questions involving attitudes toward international, industrial, economic, and racial problems. The result of the study shows that the experimental group improved according to the criteria set up by the investigator.

A recent summary of studies of methods of character education includes both methods used in classroom instruction and those of a less formal nature involved in athletics and other school activities. Two studies may be cited among those in the first group. One showed that growth in character results from social pressure, personal experience, and vicarious experience and concludes that the province of the school is primarily to furnish the vicarious experience. The other assembled and classified such proposed methods of character development for classroom use as: Direct attack through precepts, codes, etc.; teacher's marks and self-ratings; incidental training through regular school subjects; discussions; first-hand experiencing; and a combination of the last two. Among studies bearing on non-classroom instruction three may be cited: One indicated that if special effort is made, improvement in character can be achieved through athletic programs; another study described methods employed through club activities for developing character traits; and a third study emphasized the necessity of considering the cooperation of the home in any plan of character education.

In another summary of research,³⁴ studies are grouped into seven major categories: Moral character, delinquency, personality adjustment, attitudes, opinions and prejudices, sex education, and curriculum construction. These groupings point again to the variety of attacks upon character development.

ORGANIZATIONS AIDING CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

Reports from 40 organizations working directly with youth for purposes of character development indicate a universal interest in the character development of boys and girls.³⁵ Reports of the programs of activities offered by these organizations, show a wide variation and a fortunate lack of regimentation. The variety of interests of youth toward which the organizations' appeal is directed is indicated by the following classifications under which the reports are grouped: Independent societies like the Scouts; junior programs of adult groups such as the Rotary, Kiwanis, and De Molay; plans con-

³⁴ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. Tenth Yearbook. Character education, 1932. 535 p.

³⁵ Pendry, Elizabeth R. and Hartshorne, Hugh. Organizations for youth, leisure time, and character building procedures. New York, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1935. 359 p.

nected with school programs, such as **Knighthood of Youth**; plans pursuing some special interest such as sportsmanship and natural science; and programs developed by interreligious groups of which the **Y. M. C. A.** is an example. These programs are adapted to different ages of boys and girls and fill a drastic need caused chiefly by the lack of family life, crowded living conditions, and those excitements of life which carry no stimulus for contemplation or for calm consideration of individual responsibilities.

Another group of organizations works chiefly to inform its members about the movement of character education and to enlist their cooperation in studies of behavior guidance at both the school and adult age levels. Reports of committee programs and of convention proceedings and the yearbooks of national and local parent-teacher associations and of educational and social welfare organizations published during the past 5 years indicate their active participation in this type of program. A third type of organization, indicated earlier, is working in the field of research to discover the situations and the methods through which character development may best be guided.

MUSEUM SERVICE TO SCHOOLS

Prepared by LEWIS C. EVERARD
Editor, American Association of Museums

The basis of all museum instruction is the material object—the original work of nature or of man. Museum-school cooperation is successful in doing its peculiar part of the educational job insofar as it gives the pupil a chance to see and, if possible, to handle objects. This needs to be emphasized, since material has a way of being inconvenient for one reason or another, and there is always the temptation, even in a museum, to substitute quantity-produced “visual material.” Mass methods of instruction in the classroom are especially conducive of this.

Just as the schools and colleges have been providing laboratories, carpenter shops, and other facilities for handling materials, so they have been making increasing demands on the museums for the opportunity to see and handle objects of many kinds. This demand on the museums is not the result of pedagogical thought alone; it is partly the result of necessity for more and more knowledge of a greater and greater number of materials—new materials as well as old. The value of objects in making otherwise elusive ideas real is also important.

MUSEUM SERVICES

The museum has two ways of giving the school pupil the opportunity to see and handle objects—by bringing him to the museum and by sending museum material to the school. All museums are using to some extent the first of these methods; most of the active museums are using the second.

Visits to the museum are effective according to the proportion of the time at the museum spent in examining exhibits or other material, the skill and methods of the docents in demonstrating the material or in guiding the visitor in its observance, and the previous preparation for the experience. Most museums make some special provision for visiting school classes, but there seems to be no generally accepted procedure. In a great many museums, at least a part of the time of the visiting group is spent in the lecture hall, and unless the group is small, the pupils experience in this the

familiar mass methods of the school auditorium. Lecture hall time may be 15 minutes or more. The remainder of the museum time of the class is spent in exhibition halls, and the use of this time may be directed by museum docents through informal talks, museum games, or group discussions. In some museums the entire period of the museum visit is spent in the exhibition galleries under guidance of the docents, but this method is generally regarded as a concession to the practical difficulty of discussion with large classes.

The program for a year's work may be laid out systematically. In one city a plan worked out by the museum in cooperation with the Board of Education provides for one visit each year for each of the four upper grades in all the public schools, all classes from the same grade studying at the museum one general topic during the year. In another city regular programs and gallery talks correlated with the course of study in the different grades are given in cooperation with the school authorities. In another city classes visit the museum by appointment made with the individual teacher. These examples indicate the range of procedure.

School work is often supplemented in the museum by direct relations with the child during his own time. There are clubs and other groups meeting at the museum after school hours, voluntarily or in fulfillment of requirements set by the school teacher; projects, story hours, hobby clubs, and entertainments of various kinds, sometimes arranged especially for school classes but more often open to all children.

The lending of material from the museum to the teacher for use in the classroom is perhaps the most highly developed, though not the most generally used, of museum services to the schools. In some cities, as St. Louis and Cleveland, the school authorities maintain their own school-system museum, the chief function of which is to prepare and circulate school material. In scores of cities public museums provide the same sort of service as the school-operated museums, studying the needs of the schools in respect to objects and lantern slides, and circulating material in regular or special sets; catalogs and requisition forms are prepared for the use of teachers; motor trucks make regular deliveries. In most cities the funds necessary for really adequate service are not available and the museums do the best they can with what they have.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

The next most serious obstacle after lack of money is the indifference of many teachers with respect to illustrative materials. Two

years ago Laurence Vail Coleman³⁶ described the situation as follows:

Many teachers are not able to take entire advantage of illustrative material because they lack the background which alone can simplify the selecting of objects from a catalog and the using of these objects in the classroom. It is a clear indication of the importance of illustrative material, and not an argument against it, that background is required for its choice and that children make searching demands upon teachers in the presence of such objects. This teacher-training problem is one for the normal school—and also for the museum in cooperation with the normal school. The attention now being given it is not enough.

However, some progress has been made generally in teacher training, and a few museums have made a special point of it. Replies to a questionnaire sent to 240 museums by Mrs. Grace Fisher Ramsey, of the American Museum of Natural History, in 1933, revealed that 52 museums were offering courses of one kind or another for teachers.³⁷ Last year the American Museum of Natural History gave 10 courses for teachers in service or in training and sponsored 2 summer field courses in natural history for teachers; the Metropolitan Museum of Art gave 7 courses for teachers during the year. These courses are calculated not only to familiarize the teachers with the resources of the museums and provide background, but also to include practical demonstrations of how museum material is used in the classroom and how the visit to the exhibition halls may be correlated with the course of study in the schools. The Brooklyn Botanic Garden gave courses for teachers in botany, nature study, horticulture, greenhouse work, plant culture, genetics, and trees and shrubs. Obviously only large museums with well-equipped departments of instruction can conduct such programs; for most institutions a single course intended to acquaint the teachers of the city with the collections and facilities is all that can be expected of the museum. However, with the steady increase in the number of museums and the pressure for expansion of their school service, the training of teachers in the use of this service is certain to become more and more important.

TECHNIQUES FOR MUSEUM VISITS

The technique of the museum visit and the use of lending material have advanced by the method of trial and error for many years. Recently there has appeared an interest in studying procedures peda-

³⁶ Aid from museums to elementary teaching. National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. Thirteenth-Yearbook. June 1934. Pp. 240-243.

³⁷ Museum courses for teachers. The Museum News, December 1, 1933. Pp. 6-8.

gogically. A notable instance is the recently completed experimental study conducted at the Buffalo Museum of Science, under auspices first of the American Association of Museums and later of Yale University.³⁸ Some of the conclusions of this study are that children who visit a museum to learn about a subject not closely integrated with their school studies do not profit materially from specific preparation for the visit, as by a silent reading lesson on the subject; that for sixth, seventh, and eighth grades the children learn as much from 2 hours spent in examining the exhibits with no formal lecture in the auditorium as they do from a combination of a lecture lasting not less than 15 minutes and the remainder of the time in contact with the exhibits; that children of the fifth grade appear to benefit from the 15-minute auditorium lecture; that in none of the grades did the children profit more from a 30-minute lecture than from a 15-minute lecture and a tour of the museum increased by 15 minutes. Conclusions reached in regard to methods of presenting the exhibits to the pupils on tour of the museum are that fifth-grade children learn more if the docent lectures before the cases than if museum game cards or the group discussion method is used; that for the sixth grade the three methods in order of effectiveness are game cards, lectures before the cases, discussion; and that for the seventh- and eighth-grade children the discussion method is most effective. However, difference in teaching ability of the docents were found to be the most important factor of all.

A recent inquiry by the Newark Museum brought out the fact that museums which have regular activities for preschool children follow the general educational practice of separating the children into a special age group. Combining groups of younger and older children has been found generally to drive the older children away or to detract from their enjoyment. Either definite times are set aside for the younger ones, or a separate room and leader is provided. Out of 35 museums that answered the Newark questionnaire, 11 have regular organized activities for children under 7; others admit them to story hours or motion pictures.

With the exception of seven good museums, six art and one general, in preparatory schools, museums in school buildings for the use of the particular schools have been only moderately successful. Their condition and their influence have a tendency to wax and wane, usually with the degree of enthusiasm displayed by one individual teacher who takes responsibility for the work. A particularly successful museum of this sort tends gradually to develop into a separate institution, eventually maintained by the board of education for

³⁸ Melton, Arthur W., Feldman, Nita Goldberg, and Mason, Charles W. Experimental studies of the education of children in a museum of science. Publications of the American Association of Museums, New Series, No. 15. Washington, 1938.

the benefit of all the schools; more of them fall into neglect on the departure or loss of enthusiasm of the particular teacher. In general, it has been found that too much help on the part of the large city museum, especially in the way of supplying material, results in less effectiveness; that school museums built up by teachers and pupils through their own efforts endure longer and exert greater influence. This does not mean that assistance from the city museum is not needed, but that it is most valuable when it takes the direction of guidance rather than direct help in the formation of collections. Such guidance is always available to teachers or school boards desirous of establishing a school system museum or a museum in a particular school.

School system museums, that is, museums maintained by city boards of education for the purpose of serving all the public schools of the community, have a uniform record of success. These museums, of which there are eight in the United States, are essentially magazines of objective material upon which the teacher may draw for the loan of material for use in the schoolroom; exhibit material on view at the museum is usually secondary to the loan service.

SOME RECENT PUBLICATIONS ON MUSEUM SERVICES TO SCHOOLS

- BRODERSON, GERTRUDE. Our museum. *In The Journal of the National Education Association*, 25: 211, October 1936.
- Classes for school children at the Trailside Museum of Bear Mountain Park, New York. *In School and Society*, November 30, 1935. p. 733.
- HAGIE, C. E. School museums at Federal expense. *In The School Board Journal*, 93: 48, September 1936.
- HIGGINS, JOHN WOODMAN. Industrial education and industrial museums. *In Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, 25: 137-141, May 1936.
- HULL, EDWIN D. The botanical museum. *In School Science and Mathematics*, 35: 825-843, November 1935.
- QUENNELL, C. H. B. A museum for boys and girls. *In The New Era*, 11: 90, April 1930.
- Reports from the art and children's museums in the cities of Milwaukee, Newark, Duluth, Pittsburgh, Boston, and Toledo. *In School Arts*, October 1936. Vol. 36, No. 2.
- SHAW, GEORGE ELEANOR. Their own art museum. *In American Childhood*, 15: 14-16, February 1930.
- THE NEWARK MUSEUM. The young child in the museum. Statements from 35 museums concerning museum activities for children under seven. Newark, N. J. 1936. 27 p.
- THE TOLEDO MUSEUM OF ART—The museum educates. Toledo, Ohio, 1937. 42 p.

RADIO AND MOTION PICTURES IN EDUCATION

Prepared by CLINE M. KOON

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The tensions and torsions accompanying the present rapidly changing social order have greatly complicated the educational process and forced the learner to master and coordinate a bewildering number of facts if he is to lead a happy and socially useful life. The problem of the worthy use of increased leisure time has been of growing significance during the past 5 or 6 years. Radio and motion pictures occupy important places in the educational and recreational life of America, and consequently there has been a gradually growing interest in the influence which they are exerting upon the understandings, habits, and attitudes of the American people. Vividly portrayed impressions from the silver screen and radio undoubtedly influence many of the habit patterns later manifested in personal conduct, community relations, and national ideals. In addition to the educational influence of amusement and information diffused by photoplays and broadcasts, there is a growing awareness of the fact that educational films and broadcasts may be invaluable aids in instruction though the value of supplementary aids such as pupils' work books and teachers' manuals remains to be determined. While definite progress has been made in determining the educational importance of photoplays and entertainment broadcasts, the educational utilization of these media as teaching tools is still in the exploratory stage.

EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE OF RADIO AND PHOTOPPLAYS

The influence of radio and photoplays upon thinking is evident when it is known that 660 radio stations are included in the vast system of broadcasting that has been developed in the United States during the past 16 years, and that 21,000,000 American homes own radio receiving sets, which are operated on an average of 2 to 3 hours daily. There are also 3,000,000 radios in automobiles. In addition to the radio, approximately 500 feature photoplays and many more short subjects are made annually and exhibited in 15,000 theaters to approximately 90,000,000 people weekly.

It is obvious that these vehicles constantly are carrying ideas and information to the public in a vivid and impressive form. Govern-

mental agencies, the industries themselves, many educational and voluntary groups, and the public in general, are exerting their influence to the end that right ideals and proper conceptions will be instilled through countless reiterations. Unfortunately, however, divergent motives and lack of agreement as to the objectives to be sought have led to conflict and duplication of effort, thereby greatly retarding the improvements of the offerings and the raising of standards of taste for entertainment motion pictures and radio fare.

Through the Federal Communications Commission, the Government grants licenses for radio stations to broadcast with the provision that they operate in the public interest, convenience, and necessity.³⁹ In applications for renewal of licenses the stations are expected to give an account of their stewardship for the public service use of the channels which have been assigned to them. By contrast, there is practically no Federal control of the production or distribution of photoplays. Instead, the content of motion pictures is determined by the producers themselves and their trade organization, the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America. Both are susceptible to the reactions of the public through box-office receipts and fan mail. The radio advertiser and the motion-picture exhibitor also exert considerable influence on the nature of broadcasts and films produced.

The most extensive investigation of the influence of motion pictures on children and youth made in the United States was carried on through the Payne fund studies, extending from 1928 to 1933.⁴⁰ Eminent psychologists, sociologists, and research workers in several leading universities studied what children learn from motion pictures and their effects on attitudes, emotions, and conduct. The report was published in nine volumes and showed that:

1. On an average, each child in areas where motion pictures are physically available goes to the movies once a week.
2. Three out of four of the pictures shown were related to sex, crime, or romantic love.
3. The child retains two-thirds as much as the adult from his attendance at the movies.
4. Motion pictures change children's attitudes and these changes have a lasting influence.

Partly as an outgrowth of the Payne Fund studies and partly as a result of other forces working in the same direction, churches and other social service groups started a movement in 1934 and 1935

³⁹ U. S. Congress. Senate. An act to provide for the regulation of interstate and foreign communication by wire or radio, and for other purposes. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1934. 46 p. 73d Cong., Doc. 416.

⁴⁰ Charters, W. W. Motion pictures and youth. A summary. New York, The MacMillan Co., 1933. 66 p. (Payne Fund studies.)

to improve motion pictures. This movement has had two results: First, the industry has learned to produce pictures that were more acceptable to the public by treating more acceptable subjects, such as history and the classics, and by establishing a more rigorous control of the content of films at the point of production. Second, the public has become sensitized as to the influence of motion pictures and a number of groups are working to raise the standards of taste for photoplays. Schools have responded by teaching photoplay appreciation. The wide survey of national visual instruction practices made by the Office of Education revealed that 80 percent of the 9,000 school systems reporting sometimes encouraged their pupils to see selected motion pictures in the local theaters and use the information thus acquired in school activities.¹¹

While no researches comparable to the Payne Fund Studies on motion pictures have been made in the field of radio, the National Committee on Education by Radio, the Women's National Radio Committee, and other agencies such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers have been stressing the influence of radio. Many minor studies and experiments have been carried out, the results of which demonstrate beyond doubt that radio programs have become a powerful force in national life and are exerting a lasting influence upon the habits and attitudes of the American people. It is evident that an incalculable new force has been released in the home circle. Radio programs make a powerful appeal to the imaginations of growing children even though the impressions formed are not as vivid and lasting as those made by motion pictures. What children are gaining in the way of ideas, attitudes, and conduct patterns from the radio is still largely a matter of conjecture. But it is certainly true that radio, as well as the motion picture, looms large in the lives of boys and girls.

Research studies dealing with high-school pupils in Oakland, Calif., and Stamford, Conn., indicate that pupils spend an average of nearly 2½ hours daily listening to the radio. While it is probably true that much of this listening is not attentive, the pupil seems very susceptible to radio salesmanship and is definitely influenced by the sales talk of the advertiser.

Teachers can ill afford to ignore the radio as a potent influence in pupils' lives. It is evident that they can help to develop preferences in radio programs as they can in art, poetry, and music, and that teachers can encourage listening to worth-while programs until a discriminating taste is acquired. Even small children are not too young to be taught the beginnings of appreciation of good radio programs.

¹¹ Koon, Cline M. and Noble, Allen W. National visual education directory. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1936. 270 p.

Realizing that several thousand secondary schools are teaching photoplay appreciation and many more elementary and secondary schools are making some use of information acquired from radio programs, the Commissioner of Education sent an inquiry on April 25, 1936, to all teacher-training institutions in the United States to determine (a) whether teacher-training courses in radio or photoplay appreciation were being offered; (b) whether special instruction along these lines was being included in other teacher-training courses; (c) whether the teacher-training institutions considered establishing courses along these lines.

Replies were received from 809 officials in 702 institutions. The study discloses that 8 of these institutions are offering regular courses in photoplay appreciation, 6 are giving combined courses dealing with both radio and photoplay appreciation. Fifty-three institutions have the offering of regular courses under consideration. Two hundred and seventeen are offering some instruction along these lines, and 23 are planning to do so. Eliminating duplications, 377 teacher-training institutions, or 53.7 percent of the institutions replying, indicate that they are offering or planning to offer some instruction in radio program and/or photoplay appreciation.

INSTRUCTIONAL USE OF RADIO BY SCHOOLS

Radio is a new avenue for aiding classroom instruction and for acquainting the public with the work of the school in such a way as to develop an intelligent and abiding interest in the work being done. Within the past few years there has been a rapid growth in the number of school systems taking advantage of this new means of communication both as a teaching technique and as a means of accounting for the school's stewardship to the stockholders of this great corporation called the public-school system.

The activities of certain national voluntary associations and special committees have given important service in helping to crystallize thinking and diffuse information in regard to the educational potentialities of radio. Among the latter should be mentioned the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, the National Committee on Education by Radio, the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, the Ohio Institute for Education by Radio, the National Association of Educational Broadcasters, and the recently formed Federal Radio Education Committee. The leavening effect of these groups has been felt throughout the country.

The Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, composed of a group of distinguished educators and broadcasters, with the Commissioner of Education as chairman, was appointed in May 1929 by the Hon. Ray Lyman Wilbur, then Secretary of the Interior. The

committee prepared a report of the advantages and limitations of education by radio and was dissolved in 1930.

Partly as a result of the work of the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education and the National Committee on Education by Radio were formed. The former has worked on practical projects to extend the number and improve the quality of educational broadcasts on the air. It has served as a liaison agency between educators and broadcasters in organizing and presenting many educational series over the National networks. It has published a number of informational bulletins. The latter (National Committee on Education by Radio) has concerned itself principally with the protection of the rights of educational broadcasting and in assisting colleges to obtain and renew their licenses to broadcast. They have also promoted research and the exchange of information on radio in education.

The Ohio Institute for Education by Radio holds annual sessions to enable leaders in educational broadcasting to pool existing information, and develop plans for cooperative fact-finding and research. The National Association of Educational Broadcasters has been in existence for approximately 10 years and serves to exchange experiences and cope with problems common to college radio stations. The Federal Radio Education Committee, appointed in December 1935 by the Federal Communications Commission, is composed of about 35 nationally known educators and broadcasters; the Commissioner of Education is chairman. The purpose of this committee is to work out practical plans to reduce conflict and promote cooperation between educators and broadcasters.

Among the better-known broadcasts to schools are the following:

- NBC (Damrosch) Music Appreciation Hour
- American School of the Air.
- Hawaii School of the Air.
- KOAC School of the Air.
- North Carolina School of the Air.
- Ohio School of the Air.
- Puerto Rican School of the Air.
- Rochester School of the Air.
- South Dakota NYA School of the Air.
- WHAT School of the Air.
- Wisconsin School of the Air.
- WMAQ School Broadcasts.
- Standard School Broadcast.
- University of Michigan (Maddy) Music Lessons.
- Cleveland School Broadcasts.
- Providence School Broadcasts.
- Tennessee School Broadcasts.

School broadcasts from some of the college stations such as WOSU at Ohio State University, WILL at the University of Illinois, and WSUI at the University of Iowa.

A recent survey shows there have been 269 series of programs intended primarily for school reception broadcast since the fall of 1934. A list of the subjects treated and the number of series presented, follows:

Classification of programs broadcast for school reception during the school years of 1934-36 (269 stations)

<i>Rank and subject</i>	<i>Number of stations</i>	<i>Rank and subject</i>	<i>Number of stations</i>
1. Music.....	74	10. Vocational guidance.....	7
2. Current events.....	25	11. Spelling bees.....	6
3. Science.....	22	12. French.....	6
4. Drama.....	20	13. Civics.....	5
5. History.....	19	14. Agriculture.....	4
6. Literature.....	18	14. German.....	4
7. English.....	15	14. Spanish.....	4
8. Geography and travel.....	11	17. Stories.....	3
9. Health and safety.....	8	18. All others.....	18

Various estimates have been made of the extent to which these broadcast series have been used in schools. Estimates indicate the number of listeners varies from less than a hundred tuning in for some of the local school broadcasts to several million for the NBC Music Appreciation Hour. Data collected in the National Visual Instruction Survey indicate that approximately 1,500 school systems are using radio programs "often" in connection with their school work, and 4,500 systems "sometimes" use them. Three thousand school systems indicated that they never use radio programs. Eight hundred and forty-five centralized radio-sound systems and 11,132 individual sets were reported as belonging to school systems. About the same percentage of the total number of small and large school systems use radio programs. Intermediate and junior high-school grades make about twice as much use of radio programs as do primary and senior high grades.

Approximately one-fourth of the school systems that make systematic use of broadcasts in instruction indicate that they broadcast some programs for home and/or school reception. These broadcasts are usually sponsored by the school system or an individual school within the system, and deal with a wide variety of subjects, such as the library hour, children's variety programs, the work of the school, public speaking, local history, music, dramatic sketches, school news, and short stories. Some of the programs are arranged in regular series and others are individual programs given from time to time as the occasion arises. More than 200 school systems in various parts of the country broadcast regular series of programs during the past 2 years.

Among the more active school systems that have been broadcasting regular series of programs for school and or home reception are:

Atlanta, Ga.	Erie, Pa.	Phoenix, Ariz.
Bisbee, Ariz.	Indianapolis, Ind.	Providence, R. I.
Chicago, Ill.	Lancaster, Pa.	Rochester, N. Y.
Cleveland, Ohio	Manitowoc, Wis.	Seattle, Wash.
Des Moines, Iowa	New York, N. Y.	Tulsa, Okla.
Detroit, Mich.	Philadelphia, Pa.	

A noteworthy aid for radio in education has been the organization of workshops set up to prepare scripts and to produce educational broadcasts that make a definite appeal to listeners. These workshops, or student production groups, are being formed in colleges and in high schools.

Without doubt the outstanding venture in this field is the Federal radio-education project carried out by the Office of Education during 1936. Based upon his belief that education by radio would become a vital and permanent factor in the dissemination of knowledge and the development of social insight, when educators become as skilled in using broadcasting for educational purposes as the commercial broadcasters use broadcasting for amusement purposes, the Commissioner of Education obtained a WPA grant to prepare and broadcast educational programs as a means of training educational broadcasters and of demonstrating how to build and broadcast educational material.

The project was set up to combine the expert knowledge of professional radio directors and script writers with the instructional material and experiences of educators. The cooperation of the National Broadcasting Co. and the Columbia Broadcasting System was obtained, and for more than a year five weekly programs have been broadcast over coast-to-coast networks. From a broadcasting angle, these programs have been successful, since they draw about 12,000 pieces of mail a week. From an educational angle, satisfactory progress is being made in the art of teaching by radio, and many centers throughout the country are profiting by the techniques being developed and the scripts written in the Federal radio-education project.

INSTRUCTIONAL USE OF MOTION PICTURES BY SCHOOLS

Schools sometimes make use of theatrical films and excerpts from them for instructional purposes. The outstanding efforts along these lines are being made by the Museum of Modern Art Film Library, the Committee on Social Values in Motion Pictures, and the National Cinema Workshop and Appreciation League. Based

upon a grant from the General Education Board, the Museum of Modern Art Film Library has made a collection of prints from the earliest photoplay to the present time. These films have been arranged in a series of exhibitions to show the development of the art of making motion pictures. The Committee on Social Values in Motion Pictures is financed by the General Education Board also, and has for its work a study of the influence of photoplays on youth and the possibility of selecting excerpts from theatrical films to present life problems in a dramatic way as a basis for discussion in character education. The National Cinema Workshop and Appreciation League is a West Coast organization of teachers of photoplay appreciation. Its purpose is to pool information that will enable teachers to make instructional use of wholesome material contained in photoplays like *Pasteur*, *Romeo and Juliet*, and travelogues. Many States and local committees are appraising films with a view to encouraging people to see the better ones.

The National Survey of Educational Films in which the Office of Education collaborated with the American Council on Education, revealed that there are about 6,500 nontheatrical films, most of which are available for school use. Of this total number, however, only about 750 silent films and 75 sound films are up-to-date, easily available, free from objectionable material, and rich in instructional content. *The Educational Film Catalog* contains annotated descriptions of most of the better instructional films.⁴²

The extent of use of films in schools was brought out in the National Visual Instruction Survey, which revealed that out of reports from more than 9,000 school systems with an aggregate enrollment of nearly 17,000,000 pupils, approximately 22 percent of the school systems used motion pictures "often", and 44 percent of the systems "sometimes" used them. A third of the school systems reporting "never" use films.

Since the survey included reports from 95 percent of all school systems in cities of 5,000 population or more, and comparatively few from strictly rural systems, the data should be interpreted as applying to urban areas. The extent of use is much less in elementary than in secondary schools; and large school systems, in the main, make more than twice as much use of motion pictures as do small systems. From the following data it is evident that many projectors are used in schools that are not the property of the school systems.

⁴² Cook, Dorothy E. *Educational film catalog*. New York, the H. W. Wilson Company, 1936. 134 p.

A total of 9,918 motion-picture projectors were reported as being owned by school systems. The different types follow:

Size	Kind of projector	Number of projectors owned by schools
16 mm.....	Silent.....	6,006
16 mm.....	Sound.....	449
35 mm.....	Silent.....	3,154
35 mm.....	Sound.....	309

The survey further reveals that 22 percent of the films being shown in schools deal with science; 17.4 percent with geography and travel; 15 percent with history; 8.7 percent with social studies; 8 percent with English; 8 percent with health; 5.2 percent with nature study; 4.2 percent with commerce and industry; and 11.5 percent deal with various other subjects.

In conclusion, it should be said that responsibility for retardation in the use of these media as teaching tools lies both with the producer and the educator. The one needs to develop better techniques for producing educational films and broadcasts and the other for adapting films and broadcasts to the educational program. It is evident that curriculum specialists on the one hand, and practical broadcasters and film producers on the other, must learn to work together. To accomplish this end in the field of films, the American Council on Education and several other national agencies are interested in establishing an American Film Institute. The most constructive step in this direction in the field of broadcasting is the establishment of the Federal Radio Education Committee. Beyond the realm of formal schooling in the area of informal adult education, both films and broadcasts are generally recognized as potent forces.

SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE

Prepared by EDITH A. LATHROP

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Conceptions of the nature of school library service have changed materially during the past few years. Only a short time ago the library facilities of a school met generally accepted educational standards if the school library consisted of a set of encyclopedias, a limited number of books designed to supplement the material found in the textbooks for certain subjects, particularly English and history, and a few books termed "recreational" in character that were to be read at home or at school when lessons were learned. Very often these books were housed in the principal's office.

Today modern educational programs provide that the school library be housed in space that is planned definitely for library purposes; that it contain an adequate supply of books, periodicals, visual aids, and other teaching materials suited to the needs of all grade levels found in the school; and that it be administered by a professional librarian. For school purposes professional librarianship includes responsibility for the organization of library materials according to modern standards, familiarity with the literature suitable for youth, a knowledge of the curriculum and teaching techniques used in the school, and close cooperation with the activities of children, teachers, and supervisors.

SIGNIFICANT VALUES OF LIBRARY SERVICE

Beginning with the kindergarten and primary grades the use of the library develops a respect for books and an appreciation for good literature. Young children soon learn that they are dependent upon the books, pictures, and other materials found in the library for much of the information needed in developing their school projects. As the difficulties of reading are mastered the opportunities for independent thinking on the part of children are increased through the service of the library, thus forming a basis for adolescent and adult resourcefulness.

Since education is a life process every individual out of school is more or less dependent upon the resources of public libraries, not only for much of the information needed in helping solve the many problems that arise in daily life but also for finding solace from the

cares of a work-a-day world through recreational reading. The school has rendered its greatest service to the child when it has taught him to read intelligently, surrounded him with an abundance of wholesome reading matter, and guided him not only in finding information, but in evaluating it and organizing it for use.

EXTENT OF SERVICE

Very few statistics are available showing the extent of school library service. The Office of Education is now compiling data for both elementary and secondary schools which will give a more comprehensive picture of the library situation in public schools than has hitherto been available.

The latest available report of libraries in public high schools gives information on the number of librarians for all of the secondary schools reporting which includes those housed with elementary schools and those housed separately. It also gives data for the separately housed schools reporting showing the number of schools with libraries and the number of volumes in these libraries.

In 1934 data compiled from approximately 62 percent of all of the high schools reporting show that less than one in every seven schools has a librarian for half time or more. For the same year the separately housed schools, which represent only about one-fourth of all of the high schools reporting, show an increase of 42 percent in the average number of volumes per school for the 8-year period from 1926 to 1934. In 1926, the number was 1,652; in 1930 it was 2,000; and in 1934 it was 2,287.⁴³

In general, library service has reached its fullest development in accredited secondary schools which comply with certain standards relating to library books, library rooms, and the qualifications of persons employed as librarians. The poorest examples of library service in the secondary school field are found in the small high schools, most of which are located in rural areas.⁴⁴

While recognition of the need for library service for elementary schools came much later than that for secondary schools considerable progress has been made. The platoon type of school organization which exists in a more or less modified form in a considerable number of elementary schools has stimulated library service because the library is an inherent feature of this type of school organization. Educational surveys, committees on revision of curricula,

⁴³ Biennial survey of education 1932-34. Ch. 5. Statistics of public high schools, 1932-34, pp. 15-16, 66. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1936. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin, 1935, No. 2.)

⁴⁴ Johnson, B. Lamar. The secondary school library. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1933, p. 94. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National survey of secondary education, Monograph No. 17.)

supervision of instruction, and the existence of strong public libraries in areas served by schools are other factors that have contributed to its development. Generally, the outstanding examples of the modern conception of elementary school library service are found in city schools.

State and local supervision of instruction, State supervision of school libraries, the existence of county libraries, and the traveling library service of State library extension agencies have contributed to the growth of library service for elementary schools in rural areas. While some excellent examples of modern library service can be found in rural elementary schools progress is slow. Surveys show that these schools lack books; that most State library extension agencies are not equipped to meet the demands made upon them by the rural schools; and that of the approximately 3,000 counties in the United States fewer than 300 have county library service and 46 of these are in one State—California. The fact that approximately $4\frac{1}{2}$ million children, representing more than a third of the entire rural elementary school enrollment of the country, are in 1- and 2-teacher schools shows the gravity of this situation. The way to provide better library service for rural schools lies not so much in awakening a consciousness of its need as in improving methods of financing and administering both schools and libraries.

TRENDS AND RESULTS

— Since the last survey of trends in school library service made by the Office of Education covered the decade from 1920 to 1930⁴⁵ this review is confined to the major developments that have occurred from 1930 to 1936. Eight important trends are characteristic of this period as follows:

1. *The integration of the library and the curriculum.*—The activities of the curriculum determine the uses made of available library facilities. The traditional curriculum with its subject-matter compartments requires a library service which is very limited in comparison with that needed to carry out an integrated curriculum such as, for example, the Virginia State course of study, which is organized around 11 major functions of social life. It is in schools using curricula of the latter type that the library becomes the center from which every activity of the school radiates. Since the trend in curriculum revision is toward integration of subjects it follows naturally that there should be increased interest in the relation of the library to the changing curriculum. This interest is manifest in

⁴⁵Lathrop, Edith A. A decade of school library achievement. Biennial survey of education, 1928-1930, vol. 1, ch. 19, pp. 665-694. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. (U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, No. 20.)

the large number of articles which have appeared on the subject; in discussions of the topic at educational and library meetings; in an increase in the number of books and magazine articles of the informational type in school library collections as well as of visual aids; in a closer relationship between the librarian and other members of the school faculty; in demonstrations and investigations; and in an increasing use of libraries by the pupils enrolled.

An investigation of the possibilities of integrating subject matter and library instruction through assignments in the social studies appears to indicate that, certain factors being favorable, the integration method will provide sufficient library use of the right type to make the pupils permanently aware of the value of library service.⁴⁶ A syllabus in English for grades 7 to 12, inclusive, published by the New York State Department of Education, presents suggestions regarding library skills that may be mastered through frequent opportunity for practical application of the work in English classes.⁴⁷

The Mount Auburn Elementary School in Cleveland, Ohio, was established some time ago by the Board of Education as a library-curriculum center. As a result of its program parents are building up home libraries for their children and other schools of the city are adapting the library-curriculum practices to their own situations.

An experiment in Stephens College, a private junior college, may offer suggestions for public high schools. In this instance the librarian of the college is also dean of instruction and teachers are encouraged to work with students in the presence of books. A social science library is being developed with a librarian in charge who cooperates with individual student's projects.⁴⁸

2. *Contributions to the needs of extracurricular activities.*—Notwithstanding the fact that modern curricula are placing increasing emphasis upon life situations, there are certain school activities that fall outside the realm of established courses which are vitally connected with the general welfare of the school. They are the so-called extracurricular activities. The part contributed by the library and the librarian is essential to their success. The library is the informational center for these activities; if it does not have the materials needed the librarian can tell where they may be found.

⁴⁶ Brooks, Alice R. The integration of library instruction with the high school social studies. School library yearbook, no. 5. P. 121-44. Chicago, American Library Association, 1932.

⁴⁷ New York. (State) University. Library instruction. Albany, University of the State of New York Press, 1933. 65 p. (University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 1926, Aug. 15, 1933.)

⁴⁸ Johnson, B. Lamar. The Stevens college library program and its implications for the high school library. North Central Association Quarterly 9: 403-6, April 1935.

Cooperation with student councils, Junior Red Cross organizations, 4-H and other service clubs, as well as with committees of all kinds are some of the ways by which the librarian contributes to extra-curricular activities.

Much is being said about the possibilities of the service that the library can render in supplementing the work of two agencies generally neglected by the schools but used constantly by children—the moving picture and the radio. For some time the Cleveland Public Library has been distributing Motion Picture Bookmarks upon which are printed lists of books in the library which could be read profitably in connection with some of the excellent films being shown. Both school and public libraries are providing books of references for classes participating in the Nation-wide music appreciation programs conducted over the radio by Dr. Walter J. Damrosch and for other broadcasts of interest to school pupils.

3. *Continuance of studies of children's reading interests.*—Attempts to discover the reading interests of children and young people persist as evidenced by the number of studies and investigations which continue to appear upon the subject.

Already these have had a wholesome effect in throwing light upon problems in book selection and reading guidance but the field is in no wise exhausted.

Statements from the findings of a few of these studies are representative of the character of the results. The subcommittee on reading of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection emphasized the significance and present status of children's interests in reading and called attention to the need for more reading materials and better library facilities.⁴⁹ Another study of reading in primary grades shows that there is need for a program that allows children freedom in choosing material according to their personal interests and volition.⁵⁰ There is need also for a greater variety of materials and for teachers who are skillful in guiding the reading tastes and interests of children. One investigator, after a careful consideration of the elements which make reading interesting to children, is led to challenge a great deal of what is found in school readers and what is offered in children's libraries.⁵¹ That the voluntary reading of high-school students represents a higher quality than some are prone to think is revealed in a recent survey of the

⁴⁹ Milam, Carl H., *ch.* Children's reading. A study of the voluntary reading of boys and girls in the United States. Report of the subcommittee on reading. White House Conference on Child Health and Reading. New York, Century Co., 1933.

⁵⁰ Boney, C. De Witt. A study of library reading in the primary grades. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to education, no. 578, 1933.

⁵¹ Coxe, Warren H. Scientific literature on the reading interests of school children. *Library Journal*, 57 : 9-15, Jan. 1, 1935.

periodical literature read by high-school students. Findings indicate that although the reading of the group studied was strongly influenced by newsstand, drug store, and other commercial agencies,⁵² it was also influenced, to a lesser degree, by the school library.

4. *Interest in acquainting teachers and librarians with reliable book lists.*—Keen interest in book selection has been manifested recently by many agencies and much effort has been expended by Federal, National, and State agencies in acquainting school librarians and teachers with reliable book lists. The scientific procedures used in Terman and Lima's *Children's Reading* and in the *Winnetka Graded Book List* have been continued. One result is the publication of the *Right Book for the Right Child*.⁵³

Some State departments of education are recommending the adoption of standard lists rather than preparing lists of their own, or are suggesting that such lists supplement their own. Kentucky, Louisiana, and New York are examples of States which have recommended that The Standard Catalogue for High School Libraries be used in the selection of books for high-school libraries. The State Library and the State Department of Public Instruction in Michigan, which are required by law to cooperate in the preparation of book lists for schools, have recommended that their Preferred List of Books, published in 1930, be supplemented by certain other well-known lists that have been designated.⁵⁴

5. *Attempts to discover desirable courses of instruction for school librarians.*—Since 1930 considerable attention has been centered upon preparation for school library work.⁵⁵ During the school year 1934-35 a library science curriculum for teachers and teacher-librarians was given in the School of Library Service, Columbia University, as a project of the Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association.⁵⁶

Because of wide differences of opinions concerning the training of school librarians expressed at a conference of southern library workers called at Atlanta, Ga., in the fall of 1935, a committee was ap-

⁵² Lewis, Elizabeth. Magazine reading interests of high-school students: A survey of the periodical literature read in the Roslyn High School and a comparison with other studies of similar character made elsewhere. Master's thesis, 1932. New York University. Mimeographed.

⁵³ *Right Book for the Right Child: A graded buying list of children's books.* New York. John C. Day Co., 1933. 357 p.

⁵⁴ *Book lists for primary and graded school districts: Aids to book buying for elementary and secondary schools.* Lansing, Mich., State Department of Education and State Library, 1934.

⁵⁵ Fargo, Lucile F. *Preparation for school library work.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1936. 190 p.

⁵⁶ *Joint committee of the American association of teachers colleges and the American Library Association. How shall we educate teachers and librarians for library service in the school.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1936. 74 p.

pointed by the chairman of the School Librarians Section of the American Library Association for the purpose of testing opinions on the subject in various sections of the country. The returns indicate that some dissatisfaction appears on the part of both school librarians and administrators regarding courses of instruction for school librarians, because the library school curriculum is not related closely enough to the actual practices of the school library.⁵⁷ The American Library Association reports that the District of Columbia and 17 States require school librarians to hold certificates.⁵⁸

6. *Increase in the number of State school library supervisors.*—Since 1930 supervisors of school libraries have been added to departments of education in three Southern States—Alabama, Kentucky, and Tennessee. These supervisors are being maintained by subventions of the General Education Board with the hope that after they have demonstrated their usefulness their work will be taken over by the States. Louisiana and North Carolina have recently provided for such supervision following demonstrations. Ten States now have school library supervisors, one State, Michigan, having discontinued the practice as an economy measure. Those, in addition to the five named, are Indiana, Minnesota, New York, Virginia, and Wisconsin. In all of the 10 States except Indiana these supervisors are placed in departments of education. In that State the supervisor is a member of the staff of the State library.

7. *Stimulation of school library service through cooperation between school and library groups.*—State and national undertakings created for the purpose of working out projects in which both school and library groups are vitally interested are exerting a wholesome influence on school library service.

In New Jersey, a joint committee composed of representatives of the State library association and the State teachers association has been created for the purpose of curbing theft and mutilation of library books.

One of the most extensive efforts in cooperation is reported from California. In that State, studies in the school library field are being carried on through the cooperation of educational and library groups and the results are being published as bulletins of the State department of education. Four bulletins relating to library service in the elementary school⁵⁹ have been published and others are in progress.

⁵⁷ Parks, Martha M., ch. Training of school librarians. Bulletin of the American Library Association, 30: 680-81, August 1936.

⁵⁸ American Library Association. Board of education for librarianship. Chicago, July 1936. Mimeographed.

⁵⁹ Selection and distribution of supplementary and library books in California counties (Bulletin No. 10, May 15, 1934); Effective use of library facilities (Bulletin No. 11, June 1, 1934); Pleasure reading for boys and girls (Bulletin No. 17, Sept. 1, 1935); and The library in the elementary school (Bulletin No. 18, Sept. 15, 1935).

In the field of the secondary school a comprehensive State-wide survey of conditions in secondary school libraries has been planned by a committee of the California School Library Association and is sponsored and supported by the State department of education. The results of this study will be published by the Department.

Reference has been made in this section to a school library project sponsored by the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association. Another national joint committee—that of the National Education Association and the American Library Association—held conferences in connection with the 1936 annual meetings of the two organizations at which the library standards that are being developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary Schools were discussed.

8. *Contributions of civic and educational organizations to the field of school libraries.*—The contributions made by civic, educational, and philanthropic organizations to school libraries include donations of books and funds, the preparation and publication of studies pertaining to school libraries, and active cooperation with interested agencies.

The American Association of University Women is fostering library service as a communal project through its State divisions and local branches. Books and magazines have been donated for schools, funds have been collected for the purchase of books, and interest in school libraries has been stimulated. The Jonesboro, Ark., branch has established a county library which is used by schools. The Nebraska Division is engaged in a State-wide rural school library project. The chairman reports that 6,500 books and magazines have been put into circulation chiefly through offices of county superintendents of schools and that a library-museum room has been opened in the public library at McCook for the use of out-lying rural schools. Branches in Kansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, and some other States are carrying on similar projects.

The American Junior Red Cross assists school libraries by three continuing projects as follows: First, it replaces books destroyed by floods and tornadoes in cases where parents or school authorities are unable to replace them. Since 1930 several thousand dollars have been expended for this purpose by the National Children's Fund which is contributed by members of local chapters. Second, it provides small library collections for schools remotely located from centers of population. Thirty-five hundred dollars was spent during each of the school years 1934-35 and 1935-36 for this purpose. Third, it donates books to schools that are in need of help. Information concerning schools needing assistance is obtained through the

field representative of the national organization. In addition to these continuing projects, the organization carries on a number of special projects. One example is the establishment of a community library at Palmer, Alaska, the Federal Government's newly developed rehabilitation center for settlers from four northwestern States.

The American Library Association is vitally interested in the improvement of library service for schools. In 1936 it established at its headquarters a school and children's division which included the employment of a school library specialist. The work of this division is concerned primarily with the collection of information on all phases of library service for children and young people in this country and in Canada. In addition to these services the Association helps schools through its publications on school libraries and through its cooperation with other educational agencies. Mention has been made of the work of its joint committees with the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the National Education Association. Another example of cooperative effort is the publication in 1934 of *A Study of Rural School Library Practices and Services* which was made by the specialist in school libraries of the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, with the help of a grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

Local and State units of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers are doing much to stimulate reading among school children, to improve school library conditions, and to sponsor surveys of local library facilities. Many schools would be without library books and magazines except for their help. In Connecticut, more than a thousand dollars was spent for school library books. In Georgia, efforts have been concentrated upon the improvement of high-school libraries and upon the employment of a State school library supervisor. In Youngstown, Ohio, a mothers' room has been placed in the public library for the purpose of helping mothers instill a love of books in their children from babyhood on. A report from the State of California shows that 125 local units of the "Congress" participated in a survey of methods for financing city and county libraries. This resulted in the improvement of housing facilities for libraries and in an increase in their revenues. This is significant from the point of view of the school because county libraries are used extensively by the public schools in California.

Two departments of the National Education Association have published yearbooks on the subject of school libraries: *Elementary School Libraries*, published in 1933 by the Department of Elementary School Principals; and *Rural School Libraries*, in 1936, by the Department of Rural Education. The Joint Committee of the

National Education Association and the American Library Association which has been mentioned previously, began to function in 1931 with the following objectives: To facilitate and promote joint studies and other cooperative activities by the two associations in the field of school library service.

This report indicates how much the concept of the school library has grown since its inception as merely a collection of school books. Today the school library is the center of curriculum activities. Teachers and pupils turn to the library for reference material and to the librarian for guidance in its use. Continual use of these services beginning in the nursery school and kindergarten and carried on through the elementary and secondary schools should do much to produce citizens who will be able to participate intelligently in the development of modern democratic living.



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