

Vol. XII

No. 5

October, 1957

Educator

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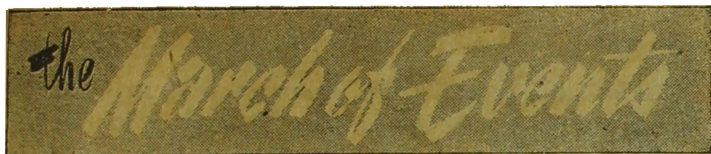
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A Little Matter of Dollars

By Benito Mencias

WITH the presidential race in its final lap, Senator Jose P. Laurel felt he should be more articulate about the Nacionalista Party. Forthwith he issued a press statement saying that the problem was economic, not political. The sooner the Filipinos did away with political bickering, why, of course, the sooner they could concentrate on working out their economic future! This was a left-handed way of exhorting the voters to get behind the Nacionalista Party, whose vice presidential candidate is Laurel Jr., but it was understandable to many people. The trouble is that he also talked about dollars.

Laurel was convinced that the peso was weakening. This was unsettling him, and what Filipino, indeed, wouldn't be disturbed? Filipinos use nothing but pesos, and they want their money's worth. Now a respected elder statesman was telling them something was wrong with it. But, thanks heavens, he had a plan: he was ready to negotiate for a \$500 million loan with an international banking organization to prop up the peso and make it strong again.

It was President Garcia's turn to be unsettled. All this time he was telling voters all over the country what great economic advances the Philippines was making under the Nacionalista administration. But here was Senator Laurel implying — well, *almost*, at any rate — that this just ain't so. President Garcia issued a strong denial, saying the peso remained in the "hard currency" group, and hoped that was the end of that.

But politics kept the thing alive. The Liberal Party's presidential candidate, Jose Yulo, picked it up during his Visayas stump. Laurel, insinuated Yulo, had a point there. An adequate dollar loan really was needed. He was, of course, the man to get it.

That put the fatt on the fire. The boys who write the editorials were soon ventilating their pet theories about dollars in relation to the Philippine economic position. Filipinos who claim familiarity with the economic situation insisted on having their say about

it. The feelings expressed one way or another were often so strongly put that they confused those who are content merely to listen.

But what about the dollar loan? Do we really need it?

The answer of this armchair economist is yes and no. If the Filipinos are the strong people they think they are, if they can sacrifice for their country and their unborn children and do it gladly, then they have no compelling need for dollars. Otherwise, they do.

First, however, let's do a little review on the connection of dollars with the Philippine economy.

Mainly, we need dollars for two things. The first of these is to buy consumer items such as rice and other primary goods which we don't produce in volumes matching the requirements of our expanding population. Secondly, we need dollars to buy capital equipment — the common word for this is machinery — with which we can develop factories and thus create employment for our increasing labor force. These are the reasons why the Philippine dollar reserve is so important to the economy: it is the pivot around which our economic development effort moves.

The point is that the Philippine dollar reserve had, by September this year, dipped to a low of \$180 million, which some Filipino economists consider too near the cut-off level. No wonder Senator Laurel was so disturbed!

Where do we get dollars? From our export products, such as copra and sugar, which we sell mainly to the United States. In 1956 we got nearly \$180 million out of copra alone. This represented about 39 per cent of the Philippines' total export trade. We can earn more dollars if we produce more.

It is, however, not only a question of earning but also of saving dollars. If we produce more rice and primary goods, for example, we wouldn't have to import them and thus save dollars. We can then divert our savings to the requirements of our industrialization program and achieve a balanced economy.

Considering the difficulties we had to go through in reconstructing our economy, we are, production-wise, getting ahead. The National Economic Council in a proposed Five-Year Economic and Social Development Program submitted to President Magsaysay in January 1957, reported an aggregate production increase of 9.6 per cent per year during the period 1950-55.

Consider agriculture. An average yearly production increase of 8.5 per cent was reported although performance in this field was spotty. Specifically, hectareage per unit of population devoted to a dollar-saving industry, rice, and to three dollar-earning industries — sugar, hemp and tobacco — was below prewar levels. Production volume per unit of population told substantially the same story. While three dollar-saving industries — corn, fish and root crops — and one export product, copra, rose to production levels above prewar, two consumption products — rice and meat and poultry — and four export commodities — hemp, coconut oil, tobacco and sugar — were produced below prewar volumes.

Now take mining. This looks like peanuts — mining contributed only 2 per cent of the national income during the 1950-55 period, compared to agriculture's 42 per cent — but this industry is potentially one of the Philippines' biggest. The production pattern was substantially the same. Two export metals — copper and chromite — were produced in increasing amounts since 1950, but output of three other export items — iron ore, manganese and gold — was below prewar levels.

Stimulated by such incentives as a preferential credit policy and tax exemptions, the manufacturing industries registered an overall production increase of 10.5 per cent. As a result, they contributed a sizeable chunk — from 14 to 15 per cent — of the national income. The disturbing factor is that "many of the new industries depended on imported raw materials which, together with the still insufficient rate of import substitution in the face of practically static export receipts, did not sufficiently relieve the continuous pressure on the foreign exchange reserves."

These figures dramatize the necessity of increasing production to earn more dollars. The matter of increasing production ramifies into a multiplicity of lesser problems — the dissemination of skills, for example — but the point is that we must produce more and quickly. The reasons for this are outlined in the projected five-year development plan in blunt words:

"Per capita income for 1955 was still at the low estimated level of P360, placing the Philippines among the underdeveloped countries, even though not among the poorest of these.

"(This) seems indicative of the conditions of poverty and want characteristic of the rural areas, where a majority of the people live and are engaged in ag-

ricultural pursuits marked by primitive methods and practices which have not often been touched by technological progress for centuries...

"Available information indicates that in 1953 the per capita cash incomes in selected barrios in Central Luzon, in areas where the tenancy system predominates, ranged from P96 to P107 per farmer. (From the) apparent disparity between tenant farmer per capita income of about P100 and the national average of about P360, (it may be assumed) that the rate of increase in the national income, if true, represents on the whole gains made by the Manila area and outside it by the higher income groups and that similar gains in the other sectors of the economy have not materialized. For the country as a whole, this represents a lopsided development."

But this is not the entire story. Listen:

"The current level of unemployment is nearly 1.2 billion or about 13 per cent of the labor force. It is possible that actual unemployment may be as high as 1.9 million or even higher if the various forms of disguised unemployment and underemployment are taken into account.

"Considering the age distribution of the population, in which about 44 per cent is below 15 years of age, it could be expected that the labor force will increase in the next few years at an even faster rate than the total population, or by nearly 3 per cent per year.

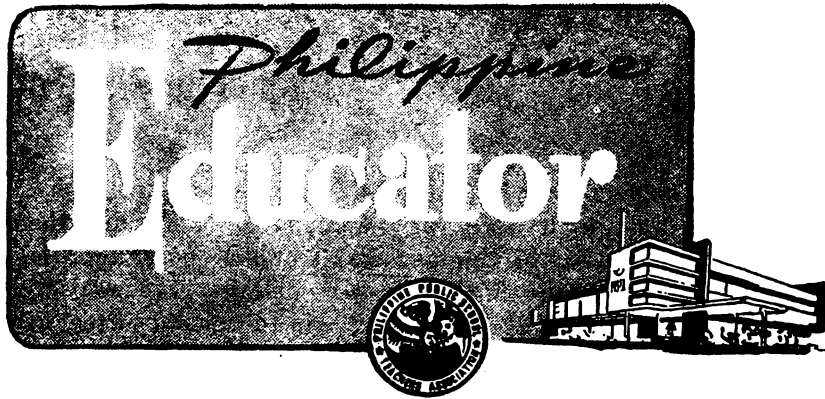
"The labor force may, therefore, increase by almost 275,000 annually...

"(To absorb these new additions to the labor force), it would be necessary to provide new employment opportunities in the neighborhood of at least 300,000 new jobs per year. The investment volume and level of activity in the recent past have apparently been either too small or otherwise not been of a kind or composition to generate sufficient employment opportunities."

The future, as you can see, is dark. The only way soften the black spots is to earn more dollars, and the easiest way to do this is to get a loan. But what if it is not obtained? Then we'll have to tighten our belts. The period of austerity before us will be no joke — it is bound to be long and full of sacrifice.

If we have fortitude and purpose, you can be sure we will win. We are a rich country. Our natural resources have an actual worth, at this very moment, of nearly P35 billion. The potential value of our natural wealth — made up of land and mineral resources, livestock, timber stands and fishing grounds — is nearly P80 billion. You'll agree that this is fabulous.

There is no question about our potential economic worth. The point that needs proving is whether we, as a people, deserve these riches.



Official Organ
of the
Philippine Public School Teachers Association
"Voice of 100,000 Teachers"

Ricardo Castro, *Editor*
Quirico A. Cruz, *Managing Editor*

Vol. XII OCTOBER, 1957 No. 5

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Subscription Rates

The Philippine Educator is the official organ of the Philippine Public School Teachers Association, published monthly for ten months during the year. Approved by the Director of Public Schools.

Rates of subscription: ₱8.00 a year (ten issues), ₱.90 per copy. Foreign countries—₱16.00 (\$8.00) a year (ten issues).

Entered as second class mail matter in the Manila Post Office.

Office of publication — 27 Banawe, corner Quezon Blvd. extension, Quezon City. Tel. 6-51-73.

Let Us Make Haste Slowly

By Benigno Aldana

OF all public services, education is nearest the hearts of the people. It is also the largest single enterprise undertaken by the National Government, judging from the appropriation provided for it annually. For the fiscal year 1957-1958, the amount of ₱206,768,230 was appropriated for the Department of Education, exceeding that appropriated for the Department of National Defense by ₱37,000,000. For the school year 1956-1957, both public and private schools had an enrollment of 4,478,611¹, or 20% of the total population of the country.² In view of such circumstances, thousands of teachers are employed every year, hundreds of school buildings are constructed or repaired, and considerable equipment and supplies are acquired. All these represent an enormous investment of the people's money.

With so much at stake, therefore, it is imperative that a responsible and representative body should be entrusted with the formulation and implementation of educational policies and objectives. For this purpose, Congress passed Republic Act No. 1124 creating the Board of National Education. Section 5 of said Act provides that, subject to the constitutional authority of the President over the executive departments, bureaus, and offices, the Board should be the sole agency of the National Government for the implementation of educational policies and the direction and control of the educational interests of the nation. The Board is thus the supreme educational policy-making body of the land. But recent events tend to prove that it is not. Educational measures have been passed in Congress without their having been referred to the Board.

I wish to make still another observation in this connection. Education is an evolutionary process and, as such, changes concerning it should be sparingly made. No changes should be effected until after adequate provisions are made for their full and effective implementation. If I may cite the experience of other countries, educational changes are being contemplated at present in the French educational system and discussions in regard to them have been going on for some time. These discussions will continue before final voting in the Parliament is taken.

Then, too, the implementation will not be made at

¹ Enrollment in all schools, excepting the U.P. and the Philippine College of Commerce during the school year 1956-57. No data available for these college and university. No data available for all schools, colleges, and universities for the school year 1957-58.

² The population of the country as of July 1, 1957, was estimated to be 22,689,700.

once but after a number of years so as to prepare the ground, as it were, for the changes. The Educational Act of 1944 of England was similarly considered long before it was finally enacted, and its implementation was delayed several years in order to effect the training of teaching personnel and to enable the preparation of the necessary instructional materials and other matters.

In the Philippines, unfortunately, this is not always the case. Changes are made and effected almost at once, without considering whether conditions are favorable for such immediate implementation. I refer particularly to Republic Act No. 1425, commonly known as the Rizal law, which requires the Board of National Education to promulgate a set of rules and regulations to implement said Act within a period of 60 days from its approval. That this is easier said than done is attested by the fact that until now the details of such implementation are being discussed by the Board.

There is also Republic Act No. 1881 which made obligatory the teaching of Spanish in all courses of public and private colleges and universities. It was approved on June 22, 1957, but made effective beginning with the school year 1957-1958. Are the original Spanish versions mentioned in Section 1 as amended ready and available? Would it not have been better too if the law had been made effective at a later date so that the institutions concerned would be ready to implement it? I understand that the details of its implementation are also still under consideration by the Board of National Education.

The Revised Philippine Educational Program provides, among other things, for the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in Grades I and II in all public and private schools, and enjoins the school authorities to take practicable steps toward its implementation. Are the schools ready for this? Are materials of instruction available? Do we have the teachers to teach the native languages? What problems of administration, if any, should be considered? Again, would it not have been better if this matter had been postponed for some time in order to enable the school and other authorities concerned to study its effects upon the development of the Filipino National Language?

In making educational changes or modifications, sound educational statesmanship demands that they be made sparingly and only after deliberate study. Let us make haste slowly.

Should Public High Schools be Closed for Lack of Funds?

By Pedro T. Orata

1. Latest Trend: Secondary Education for All

THE latest educational trend today is the effort being exerted in many countries to make secondary education universal. In the 1955 **International Yearbook of Education**, it is noted that the increase in enrollments in secondary schools (from 1953-54 to 1954-55) in some 70 countries, ranged from 3% to 32%, which is very much higher than the increase in primary school enrollment (5%), and higher than it was in the preceding year (8%). Scattered figures are as follows: Chile's secondary enrollments increased by 8,129 to a total of 103,865; Columbia's independent secondary schools increased by 79 to a total of 664; Egypt's enrollments increased by 16,387 to a total of 108,449; Ireland's increase averages 1,000 per annum, to a total of 55,000 in a population of 3,000,000; Japan's, by 9% in lower and 8% in upper secondary schools; etc.

Then, too, in many countries, there is increasing percentage of elementary school graduates continuing to the secondary level; for example, 65.7% of pupils completing their 7th year in Bulgaria enrolled in the 8th year; in the U.S.S.R., the corresponding figure is 76%, and in Byelorussia, it is 85%. In the United Kingdom, the effect of the Education Act of 1944, which makes school attendance up to the age of 15 years is unprecedented. The enrollment at the secondary level continues to rise by leaps and bounds, disregarding social distinctions, and by 1955, it reached 1,822,000 (compared with 4,554,000 in the primary). In the United States, of a total of 20,074,000 children of 7 to 13 years of age, 99.4% are enrolled in school. Furthermore, of the 1,672,920 students who enrolled in the 9th grade of the public high schools during 1947-48, 1,045,588 (62.5%) remained to graduate in 1951.

While, the goal of secondary education for all is still very far in the majority of countries, nevertheless the trend is for the "public high school enrollment becoming increasingly non-selective." In France, as I have once indicated, there is a pending legislation, known as the Biller's Bill, which requires amongst

others to raise the school-leaving age to 16 by 1964. In the Scandinavian countries, in Switzerland, in Belgium, there is a wholesome trend towards universalizing secondary education. The same may be said of Egypt, where in 1954-55 there were more than 470,000 pupils in the secondary schools, compared with less than 1.5 millions in the primary, a ratio of more than 1 to 3.

The reasons for this trend are not difficult to understand. First, the obliteration of class distinctions in most countries is resulting in all children of school age having equal opportunity for education (theoretically at first and gradually in actual fact as facilities are increased to meet the pressing demand of the masses).

But more than a matter of right on the part of the people and duty on the part of the government, in the second place, secondary education for all is a necessity from the economic, social, and political points of view. Education for mere literacy is outmoded, as it is now considered wasteful unless it is continued further; to enable the young people to acquire work and thinking habits which would enable them to become productive and creative citizens. The millions of dollars used to provide literacy in the elementary grades is half wasted because by the time the pupils are old enough to marry they will have forgotten much of what they learned in the elementary school, including in many cases the ability to read and write and to do simple arithmetic.

But this is not all. What can elementary graduates do to help on the farm to raise more crops, when they are still too young to use the plow or drive a tractor? What happens usually is that the millions of young people, for want of work to do, dissipate their time and efforts and become social and economic liabilities to their communities and homes. During the time of the so-called "reading centers" in the Philippines three or four years ago, the youth found a convenient place to go, to while away their useless time, but what did they do in the reading centers? Since there was nothing to read that was of much interest — and besides, the reading habit was not yet developed far enough anyway — the young people played dama, gossiped, or merely sat. In some cases they developed even worse habits, hence the teen-ager problem.

Imagine, on the other hand, the potentialities for good that could result from universal secondary education. As was pointed out in the open forums in the barrios and poblacion of Urdaneta, where an effort was made to encourage the parents of Grade VI pupils to send their children to high school — which

effort resulted in more than 25% increase in the first-year enrollment in the Urdaneta Community High School in 1957-58 as compared with the previous school year — the young people may be needed at home to help on the farm for only a few weeks during the year. So, except for those few weeks during the planting and harvest seasons, the young people stay home to sleep, play bingo, or become a social menace.

In many high schools in the United States, particularly in the rural areas, high school students engage in production of food, furniture, clothes, etc. on a commercial basis. With little capital, they go to work to produce things to sell, which would give them profit far above their expenses. Thus, they start earning while still learning. In Berlin, in an island in a river, there has been going on a very interesting experiment called education for communal living. Secondary school youth engage in all kinds of crafts — at first to learn and afterwards to earn their living and other expenses. In a school in Papua, in the Pacific, there is a school where the day is divided into two equal parts — one for classroom work and the other for practical-activities. Dr. Canto, principal of the Bayambang High School, saw the school in operation last year on a Unesco fellowship, where the students not only supported themselves but also paid the teachers' salaries from the income from their farm and poultry projects, where they raised pedigree crops and pigs and chickens. In this way, they combined the good features of a community school and an experimental farm — they earned their way through, they improved their homes and community, and they developed better varieties of coffee, pigs and chickens.

Increasingly, the world is becoming industrialized, the Philippines included, where according to the latest information more than 800 new industries have been established since the last war. To man these new industries requires more education than is provided in our six-year elementary schools. More mathematics and science are required than are taught in these schools. The fact is that there is now a tendency in the Philippines to require high school education as the minimum qualification for the job of school janitor or to join the Army.

Above all these considerations is the waste in manpower and in people as a result of failure to provide facilities for further education for the millions of elementary school graduates all over the world and in the Philippines, in particular. After the elementary, the boys and girls are at their height of ambition, energy and health. Consider the potentialities of one million young people between the ages of twelve and eighteen to twenty for good or for evil, if not used properly. At three hours a day of useful employment through work projects, there could

be 600,000,000 work hours in 200 school days a year; in four years, that could mean 2.5 billion work hours! What is the equivalent of that in bulldozers and tractors?

And, as shown in many public and a number of private high schools during the last twelve years, the students at those ages are willing to work to earn money doing any kind of job for pay including building toilets, draining pagbabasaans, and making or repairing furniture. It seems altogether unfair to these youth and unwise on the part of the government to fail to utilize this huge manpower for the economic and social development of the Philippines. It would be much better not only for the young people but also for the country as a whole to open the door of the secondary school wide open to all comers and, at the same time, to mobilize them for the much needed and talked about economic development of the country.

2. Closing Public High Schools Is Not Wise

This trend to make secondary education a universal institution to enable all youth between the ages of twelve and sixteen to twenty to continue their education beyond the elementary grades, most fortunately, has been going on in the Philippines especially since the last war when, in fact, the increase in enrollment in the high schools far exceeded that in the elementary grades. As I said, secondary schooling is more than a human right on the part of the young people, but a social, economic and political necessity for the nation and people as a whole. If wisely employed the potentialities for economic and social good that are inherent in our more than one million population of secondary school age could contribute immeasurably towards the development of our growing industries and the improvement of our standards of living which, as everybody knows, are still below the subsistence level especially in the rural communities.

I wish now to comment upon recent suggestions emanating from high and low places to close public high schools that cannot maintain high standards, especially the municipal high schools that have been established since 1945, of which there are close to 300, enrolling close to 200,000 students. The argument in favor of closing such schools is very simple. The tuition fees are too high for the families of the students to pay, and so, every year and increasingly so, enrollments go down and standards decline. And presto, so the argument goes: "Closing of such schools seems to be the only solution." (*Manila Daily Bulletin*, 20 June 1957)

Let's follow the argument a bit. In the *Bulletin* article, which is obviously a write-up of an interview with the Director of Public Schools, Dr. Benigno Al-dana, the reasoning is as follows:

Reports received from division superintendents of schools showed that practically all provincial and municipal high schools, with the exception of those in Rizal province, have been incurring yearly deficits. Sometimes, it was reported, a number of high school teachers were deprived of their vacation pay because the tuition fees were sufficient only to pay them for ten months. All efforts to get funds from the province and/or municipality failed, as did all representations with the Congress of the Philippines to put up the funds or to include financial aid to high schools in the annual school budget of ₱120,000,000. As a result, the standards of instruction have been declining, and in some cases, enrollments declined too. In the meanwhile, it has been suggested that the high schools be converted into vocational schools, but the change in name would not resolve the financial problem — it will only aggravate it. More money will be needed for equipment for such schools.

In view of these considerations, the Bureau of Public Schools was "contemplating closure of provincial and municipal high schools all over the country" rather than continue to maintain them with tuition fees alone. This is also the conclusion by a writer in the *Weekly Women's Magazine*, Mr. Neilo T. Altre, who presented a number of alternatives — government subsidy through a more effective school financing system, closing all public high schools that cannot meet standards, etc. ("The Crisis in the Public High Schools," 25 January 1957)

I feel, considering all the factors involved, that closing the public high schools that cannot meet the standards is not the solution, indeed if it can be said to be a solution at all. It is like arguing that the only solution to the problem of cancer is to kill all cancer patients, on the premise that there would be no problem if there were no cancer patients.

Right away, after the public high schools are closed, the students will go to private high schools, where they will pay more fees for much less education. Let us look at the facts. During the open forums in Urdaneta with parents in all the barrios and poblacion, it was shown by the testimony of the parents, themselves, who had some children in the

private high schools in the town, that while it might appear on the surface that the private schools charged as little or even less than the Urdaneta Community High School, because the initial tuition fee is as low or lower, in the end they charged very much more. In addition to the tuition fees, they charged other fees — matriculation, athletic, examination, diploma, and several others. The fact is that they charge about 25% more than the public high school.

But, this is not the only consideration. What about the quality of the courses offered in private high schools, most of which are purely academic to distinguish them from those in the general public high schools, which include from 25 to 40 per cent vocational courses?

Consider, furthermore, the student-teacher ratio, which is nearly twice as high in the private high schools as in the public high schools. Based on figures furnished by the Bureaus of Public and Private schools, the facts are as follows:

	Public High Schools (1952-53)	Private High Schools (1953-54)
Number of schools	353	1,228
Number of Teachers	8,014	8,248
Enrollment	216,875	365,702

So, for more than three and a half times as many schools and nearly twice as many students, the private high schools employed only as many teachers — just very slightly more as the public high schools with only half as many students. The only result is inferior instruction in the private high schools, which everybody knows. There are a few exceptions, to be sure, but generally speaking, for the reasons indicated, instruction in the private schools is inferior to that of the public high schools.

So, as I said, closing the public high schools will have only one effect: the students will go to the private high schools where they will pay more and get less education. Which is no solution at all. The only ones to benefit from it would be the private school owners who are in the business for profit.

(To be concluded in the next issue)



Teaching of Cooperation*

By Isabelo Tupas

IN discussing this subject, I would like to make reference to Bureau of Public Schools Memorandum 130, s. 1956 entitled **Outline Guide on the Teaching of Cooperation in the Elementary and Secondary Schools**. This memorandum is significant for two reasons. First, it makes official the teaching of cooperation in the elementary and secondary schools; second, it makes tacit recognition that the development and promotion of business cooperatives cannot truly prosper without the complementary assistance of education through the medium of public schools. It will not be an idle talk to mention in passing that this idea is the newest slant in the cooperatives program in the Philippines which may be found to be the missing factor for its successful prosecution.

The Objectives

With this introduction I would like to go over with you the objectives on the teaching of cooperation in the elementary and secondary schools in their synthesized form from the memorandum mentioned above. Briefly they are the following:

1. To understand how we live by cooperation and the importance of cooperation in human relations.
2. To acquire some elementary knowledge or ideas of the beginning, principles, practices and benefits of cooperatives.
3. To learn general techniques of organizing and managing cooperatives.

These three-fold objectives are my own extraction from the three specific objectives of cooperation on the elementary level, and the five specific objectives on the secondary level. It should be noted that the first objective deals with cooperation as a way of human relations which means in the home, in the school and in the community. This is the social

aspect of cooperation education — the aspect which serves as the base of all other aspects of cooperation. The last two objectives bring us to the beginning or immediate threshold of business cooperatives, their values and their techniques. This is the economic aspect of cooperation education which has to do with making life fuller and more satisfying economically.

For the purpose of this seminar, I would like to call attention to my simplification of the objectives of cooperation education. By reducing 8 specific objectives to three, I wish to establish and promote the way of thinking that underscores the concept that economic cooperation or business cooperatives have to begin at the grassroots of cooperation education as a way of life and the cornerstone of human relations. This concept is equally important in establishing the principle that cooperatives cannot be successfully established and made a part of the democratic way of life without education in cooperation.

Having laid down this concept and principle, we may now proceed to the presentation of what I consider the preparatory phases that have to be undertaken by the academic supervisors and cooperation leaders, for the proper launching and implementation of the program. They are:

1. Preparation of resource, or teaching units following the outline guide under Memorandum No. 130 s. 1956.
2. Preparation of suggestive teaching techniques or approaches in cooperation education.
3. Establishment of an organization or a machinery for the preparation of these materials and the implementation of the program.

In the following discussion, I shall describe briefly the nature and scope of these three preparatory phases.

Materials of Instruction

The preparation of needed materials of instruction will have to begin with the examination of the

*Lecture delivered by the author, chief instruction division, Bureau of Public Schools, at the National Seminar on "Cooperation Through Education" sponsored by the Bureau of Public Schools, Manila, August 29, 1957.

graded objectives from grade I through 4th year high school. The idea is to minimize their duplication or overlapping. Then also their sequence will reveal the whole idea of cooperation education in stages of conceptual development from the elementary through high school. This whole view is necessary for a proper orientation on cooperation education. An illustration of this procedure is my extraction of the specific objectives which I reduced to three out of the eight from both the elementary and secondary levels. However, since the examination of the objectives will be done for all grades and years and not by school levels, the evaluation of the sequence of the grade objectives will take much more time than what I required in evaluating those for the school levels. Once the values and sequence of the objectives by grades are determined, the next step to take is to list the cooperation activities which again need careful screening as to values and sequence. These activities should be suggestively concrete by reducing them to projects. Each project should be described briefly so as to determine its nature and scope. Each should be followed by suggestive directions to carry it out and a listing of references to textbooks and supplementary readers now in use and available including those in the library. This study may be simplified by preparing write-ups of a series of activities involving cooperation for each grade level except that in the higher grades where the principles of cooperation and organization of cooperatives and their practices have to be taught directly special resource units have to be prepared. At this juncture, I should like to point out that there is no period for teaching cooperation education in the class schedule. And because of this, any prepared material as suggested above cannot be used in a regular sequence as a teacher would teach subject matter from a book. It is obvious, therefore, that the teacher has to earmark what materials he would need from the resource or teaching units when he considers the lessons or projects in the regular subject fields particularly in the core subject areas of Language Arts, Social Studies, and Work Education. In the case of teaching units, I am afraid that their preparation has to be deferred until the use of the resource materials have been tried out. The implication of teaching units is that the teacher should teach it as is; and even with some modifications, it will mean that the teacher is teaching cooperation instead of any of the regular subject areas. While this may be done for a teaching unit, the practice may be an exception rather than a rule. This is all that may be said about the preparation of instructional materials. Our time is so limited as to permit us only to investigate its general scheme which I believe is sufficient to show the immediate line of action to take with our teachers.

I shall now proceed to the second phase — The preparation of suggestive approaches or teaching techniques in cooperation education. You will note that the nomenclature cooperation education carries with the conotation of action. This means that cooperation education calls for performance and application more than indeterminate assumption and discussion which we know for a fact as in character education, to be ineffective as an approach. The ineffectiveness of verbalism seems to have the corroboration of men and women who have been engaged in the promotion of cooperatives in our country. We also have heard of action research, and so getting the cue from this, I propose that we adopt **action approach** as our general technique in cooperation education. In this connection, I suggest that you consider here the preparation of a general outline of action approach which should serve as the basis of a little pamphlet or series of pamphlets which you may prepare with the assistance of all concerned in your respective divisions. Among the topics to be included in **action approach** are (a) class organization, school clubs, subject clubs, etc., (b) field trips, (c) excursions and picnics, (d) community drives and services campaigns, (e) class stationery store for the elementary, (f) school coop for elementary and high schools for consumer goods, garden products, shop articles, etc., (g) school paper, (h) school government and other group activities. All these isolated activities, valuable as they are in themselves as media of education, are to be integrated and interpreted as approaches to cooperation education. The integration may be achieved by making the following elements run through these activities; cooperation in all group undertakings; cooperation is the way of happy human relations; cooperation is give and take. Besides the recurrent and persistent theme of cooperation expressed in various ways, these activities should serve as devices in teaching the fundamental subjects. Then also, the pupils participation in these activities including their planning and management should receive paramount consideration. There are several standard books that discuss the **action approach** with very good examples of group activities. The Bureau of Public Schools has issued to the field attractive booklets among which are "**Field Trips**" and "**Juan de la Cruz Goes to the Polls**" which though intended for purposes of instruction more than for cooperation education will serve as good examples.

Simultaneously with the determination of the media of **action approach** is the canvas or survey of local cooperation groups. The family is one of these groups which should not be taken for granted. Then there are local associations, clubs or societies of various kinds which need to be catalogued and identified as to their composition and service functions. The cooperation coordinators or school administrators are

to establish relations with these groups for the purpose of using them not only as instruments of practical cooperation education, but as units of community school organization. I wish to advert here that cooperation education, according to this scheme, is to be promoted through two media; the school and the community as represented by its service groups. More will be said about this.

Let us now go to the third phase of the preparatory phase of cooperation education — its organization and administration. There are to be two interesting units in this; the school on one hand and the community or any particular service group on the other. Needless to say the cooperation leaders or school administrator should build the bridge of relationship with the community unit.

There is to be a school cooperation committee of teachers, as representatives from each grade, with the principal as the coordinator. This committee will plan the total cooperation program — its projects, materials, facilities and relations. If the committee has more than ten members, this should be reduced to a smaller group by getting only one representative from each grade level, not section. After the relations with the community unit have been sufficiently well established, representatives from the lay group should be chosen to serve in the committee. I do not find it necessary at this stage to suggest the function of the committee beyond planning, preparation of materials, and establishing relations. The coordinator has to see to the implementation of the projects and related matters through all the teachers, community workers, and participating lay groups.

In the administration as well as in the teaching of cooperation education, the starting point of actual implementation is indeed difficult to locate. Assuming that the three preparatory phases as indicated above have been attended to which may take from 1 to 3 months the bothersome question that may be asked is at what point in the class schedule will the teacher teach cooperation education. We are all aware of what we call incidental teaching and formal teaching which has always proved endless debates as regards their respective merits. We are going to dispense with the debate here — and say that both techniques should be used at every opportunity in cooperation education. The teacher who is properly oriented in cooperation education should not only seize every opportune situation but create opportunities in core subjects to teach it formally. For this latter purpose, there should be available resource and teaching units on some typical cooperation endeavors and cooperative societies in the locality. One of these may be the bayani or community work, the local ACCFA, and FACOMA, the rural bank, the local bus transportation,

consumers' and producers' cooperative, credit union, etc. — and teach these directly as the content of the lessons in social studies, language arts, arithmetic, work education, etc. Tie up with these lessons the pupils' information about the participation of their parents in these services, the benefits received, the contribution to the country, wealth and development — how these services make it possible for the children to be in school. Here we teachers should not be imagining or speaking in generalities. It is common observation that teachers have taught children to say they drink milk or eat breakfast, etc. when in truth they don't. In this down to grassroots program of cooperation education, let us teach and talk about the facts of the cooperation activities as the children know them as are benefited by them with techniques or curriculum devices I have no doubt that cooperatives education will find inclusion in the lessons as if it were listed in the class schedule. Then if at appropriate times you bring in resource persons at either the regular convocations or special days and in the classroom, cooperation education will be a reality.

Before we close let us gather the principal threads of this discussion. We began with the objectives of cooperation education so as to orient ourselves with its concept and goals. Keeping clearly in mind the need for having a working blue print to serve as a frame of reference when you build an action program in your respective divisions, we laid out three preparatory phases. These include the preparation of teaching materials, the establishment of approaches and techniques and the creation of an organization or machinery to implement the program.

I wish to conclude by saying that while all schools in the division may conduct some form or version of cooperation education, I wish to recommend that you establish at least one pilot school in each district. Teachers around may be sent to see this school about November, 1957, for purposes of orientation in concept, materials, organization or techniques. If the pilot schools are well established and the visiting teachers are properly guided, the division, in a year's time, will have been well launched in cooperation education. Then we shall have added a new program which will increase the potency of the Philippine community school as a unique experiment in social living.

Let us plant the seed of cooperation education very carefully. When Filipino specialist in cooperatives outside the Bureau of Public Schools see in the community school the instrument that yet bring about a fuller and more satisfying life to the masses particularly in the rural communities, I feel that their trust is not misplaced and we are committed to live up to that trust.

Further Strengthening the Public School Teaching Personnel

By Marcelino Bautista

THE title of this article implies that there is some strength in the personnel of the public schools; it also implies that there are some weaknesses. The article being what it is, there is a little more emphasis on the weaknesses. An article on the points of strength could be developed just as adequately.

One word of caution is necessary at this point: Unless a weakness mentioned is indicated as generalized, whatever instances are narrated to stress a point need not imply a generalization. The instance merely indicates tendencies, trends, or "signs of the times."

Lack of Funds Has Lowered Personnel Standards

The first weakness of the public school personnel that may be mentioned is the fact that inadequate appropriations have tended to lower the standards required for entrance into the service. Those already in the service inevitably lowered their standards of working efficiency.

The best talents among our young people do not go into teaching, because there is very little attraction in the meager pay. The well-known aphorism needs repeating here: "Those who can't, teach." Mental ability tests administered to college students in the Philippines show that those enrolled in the colleges of education are not anywhere near the top rank. Similar tests administered in the United States placed the teaching group in the fifth rank, below engineers, clergymen, accountants, and physicians (in that order). Moreover, 67.49% of the public school teachers are women (1956 statistics), which shows that men with superior talent do not usually go into the teaching profession.

Lack of funds means low pay, which in turn means lack of incentives for outstanding achievement. "What is the use?" is not an uncommon attitude.

The Political Atmosphere Has Deleterious Effects

There is universal recognition of the fact that politics is the main industry of the Philippines. Politics affects every phase of living. The work of teaching has not been free from its baleful effects.

It is well known that the Secretary of Education is a political appointee. Under the present government set-up, this is necessary. The man at the top of the Department must be influential enough with the party in power to be able to get the needed appropriations. In turn, he must wield his influence upon his subordinates so that they would always support the administration. Since the Secretary owes his position to political influence, he also appoints those under him to please the people who put him there. And so whenever there are vacancies in the lower offices, the logical development is that people who choose the Secretary also select some of the officials down below. Sometimes the right people ("right" by virtue of merit) are selected. Human nature being what it is, there are times when the right people may not be the ones selected.

The matter of political connections influencing the selection of the lower-category personnel does not hold true, however. Teachers enter the service either by passing civil service examinations or by qualifying in the annual teachers competitive tests. But once the teacher is in, she may be subject to all kinds of political and other outside pressures. School personnel are sometimes transferred for no other reason except that they are related to or closely associated with people who are political enemies of those who are in power. Bureau officials often say to such outside pressure agents: "File your charges; we shall have them investigated." The charges are not usually filed. Cases are known in which school personnel were hounded by such pressure-groups. Where local officials can do anything with the school budgets, positions of those who do not toe the line are sometimes abolished.

Sometimes requests for the transfer of school personnel are made because of some misunderstanding as to the meaning and implementation of a school policy. The attitude of some politicians is often in this form: "If you are not with me, you are against me."

If a school official owes his assignment or promotion to some outside influence other than his own merits, he has to kowtow to the person or persons who obtained the assignment for him. It is not unknown that in some instances the padrinos have had to be consulted in the appointment of high school teachers, in places where no competitive examinations are held to select high school teachers. And these school officials defend their actuations thus: it is these government officials that provide the funds for the high school. Their wishes should be respected in certain respects.

This pernicious influence of political and other pressures dictating upon the administration of the schools may at times be traceable to the school per-

sonnel themselves. Sometimes when one wants a certain position, he works for it through outside influences, even to the extent of "stepping on the back of another in order to reach up." There is a provision in the Teachers Code of Ethics which says, "Do not apply for a vacancy that does not exist." The injunction is sometimes disregarded. The result of all this is that ill feeling is generated between the incumbent and the one who wants his position. The strategy is to get the other fellow transferred to some other place in order to create a vacancy.

The Social Status of Teachers Has Gone Down

The public school personnel have somewhat gone down in social prestige, especially in places like the metropolitan areas where there are many "educated" people. In less developed areas, the teacher is still held in high esteem. In parts of Moroland, for instance, the teacher sits next to the "imam" in social gatherings. In the Mountain Province, the teacher is considered an "apo-apo." Not so in the more sophisticated areas. The reason for the lowered social status is the comparative low income of teachers in places where many people have larger income. The penny-pinching teacher who has many "vales" in the tiendas cannot be highly respected. Moreover, there have been instances when teachers were charged with all kinds of venalities that resulted in general lowering of prestige. While some of these charges have been proven false, the teachers in such places were not entirely "above suspicion." Involvement in such charges has not been confined to lower-category teachers.

The pernicious influence of politics and other outside pressure has also contributed to the lowering of teachers' prestige. For it can easily become known when a promotion or choice assignment has been due to considerations other than merit. Such things cannot be withheld from the knowledge of people. The lowering of prestige is sometimes due to manipulations engendered by the desire to secure permanency of tenure. The well-known cases of teachers who presented falsified credentials of war-service in order to add 5% more to their civil service examination ratings is a case in point.

Much of the Idealism of Teaching Has Disappeared

Many years ago, teaching was considered a high calling. It was regarded as some kind of missionary work. Teachers were pervaded with the high idealism of service. Today that idealism has largely disappeared. The reason for this is not difficult to seek. This is an age of materialism. Teaching is a means of earning a livelihood. We must hasten to say that there are still hundreds of teachers in the rank and file who regard their calling with high idealism, those

especially who have grown gray hair on the job. One instance is now recalled: A teacher out there in Cebu has fishponds which yield for her ten times her salary as teacher. She was asked why she had to continue teaching, and her reply was:—"I love teaching; I love growing children. And if I got out, I would miss the companionship of my colleagues."

By and large, however, the recent arrivals in the public school teaching field look upon teaching as a means of earning a living. "Those who can't, teach." It must be said, however, that perhaps because of this desire to hold on to the job in order to earn a living many of the younger teachers are proving to be good teachers. Since most of them are temporary (they have not qualified in the civil service examination), they must give good service, otherwise they are dropped from the rolls. As of the school year 1955-56, only 44.77% of the teaching force were civil service eligibles. The remaining 57.23% must deliver the goods, or else. And most of them do deliver the goods.

The matter of one's being regular, however, has its good as well as its bad points. The teacher who is regular feels that she no longer needs to grow, to be constructive, to be creative. If she renders "passing" performance, she is safe. There have been very few cases of regular teachers having been eased out of the service due to inefficiency. It is difficult to ease them out even if they render only "borderline" satisfactory service.

In the United States, teachers are still working for regular tenure. American teachers as a whole sign teaching contracts for a definite number of years. Their contracts are renewed if they show good performance. There are no civil service examinations through which regular tenure is acquired. In the American system, the teacher must be constantly growing in the profession, otherwise her contract is not renewed. In the Philippines, the regular teacher is usually the one who has gone to seed, because being regular she knows she cannot be easily ousted. Despite the higher salary provided in the Teachers Salary Law for those with high educational qualifications, some of the oldsters find it inconvenient to go back to school, to increase their educational and professional qualifications. The result of all of this is that the younger teachers are more progressive, more constructive and more creative.

There is one redeeming feature of the regular appointment. The regular teacher knows that her tenure is secure. She is not so easily browbeaten, not only because she is more mature but also because she has learned to get along. She can get along better, not because she is more malleable but because she has acquired all kinds of experiences in dealing with all kinds of bosses. In short, she is wiser. She is more emotionally stable and therefore is less likely to get into trouble.

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"Mice or Men"

The thought about "browbeating" in the preceding paragraph takes us to the question of whether or not teachers as a whole are victims of the haughtiness and arbitrariness of superiors. A local columnist once asked the rhetorical question, "Are teachers mice or men?" The answer to that question cannot be categorical. There are hundreds of teachers that will stand up for their rights. Unfortunately, there have been instances in the past when teachers showed by their actuations that they could be classified as mice. The most glaring evidence of this is the fact that, even if teachers know that it would be to their best interest to become members of the Philippine Public School Teachers Association, they do not become members if there is any indication that their immediate bosses are not interested in the Association or are not in good terms with those who manage the Association's affairs. The records of the Association will reveal the identity of certain administrative officials who are not sympathetic to the objectives and ideals of the Association. In the divisions where these school officials were the top men, the percentages of membership in the Association have been very low.¹ Teachers in those divisions become members only if they are asked to do so by their bosses. If the bosses do not give them the go-signal, they do not become members.

Why are some school officials antagonistic to the interests of the Association? Some of these people believe, rightly or wrongly, that the Association at some time in the past tended to promote cleavage between the upper-category and the lower-category personnel. The Alzate case can be given as an example.² Looking at this matter from the point of view of those who administer the affairs of the Association, the thinking could be as follows: Cleavage obtains now where not enough is done to protect teachers' rights, where school officials are arbitrary and undemocratic. The efforts of the Association exerted toward getting a better deal for the lower-category teachers are an attempt to minimize the cleavage. In other words, the Association's efforts do not create the cleavage into being; the cleavage exists, believe it or not, in places where there are undemocratic practices. To bring this state of affairs into public focus is not creating a cleavage. Those who manage the affairs of the Association hope to minimize or eliminate the cleavage by correcting the sources of cleavage.

It may now be claimed, despite differences of opinion on this matter of cleavage, that the Association

¹ In some of these school divisions, the percentage of membership has seldom reached 10%. As of 1956-57, the national percentage of membership was close to 70%.

² Anacleto B. Alzate, a high school principal, refused to be transferred to another assignment. He won a court case, in which it was ruled that government employees cannot be transferred against their will.

has contributed to no little extent toward the awakening of teachers to the possibility that if they are united there would be less tendency for them to be imposed upon. Have they ever been imposed upon? Not only have there been impositions upon their pocketbooks; there have been impositions upon their minds. Up to recent years, teachers have been insecure. They have been transferred to less desirable assignments upon the slightest provocation.

The usual method of appeasement if one wants to be secure in his position or assignment is not to talk back, not to criticize the bosses or their policies. And when a transfer to a less desirable assignment impends, the "regalo" is the method of appeasement. (By the way, a regalo, in the Filipino value system, is not a bribe *per se*. It is only some kind of "paalaala.") The same is true if one wants to get a promotion.

Up to recent years, many teachers feared their bosses. The records of the PPSTA show many letters received from the field, containing complaints about the arbitrariness of school officials. Invariably, these letters end with a postscript: "Please do not mention my name; I fear reprisals."

Having been for eight years the manager of the affairs of the PPSTA, it might be immodest for the writer to make this claim, but the claim may be taken for what it is worth: the establishment of the PPSTA has contributed to no little extent toward making the rank and file of teachers feel they now have an Association that can voice their sentiments and can stand to protect their rights if this should become necessary. The opposition to teachers' becoming members of the Association on the part of some school officials should now be understandable. If the Association does not and cannot do things for the members, what is the Association for?

One form of imposition upon teachers' minds is that they can seldom depend upon merit to secure promotions for them. Reference has been made earlier in this article to the pernicious influence of politics upon the morale of teachers. But it is not politics alone that interferes with the promotion system based upon merit. Whether true or not, there is a pervasive feeling on the part of teachers that promotion is based upon the whims and caprices of bosses. "It is not what you know or can do; it is the connections that count." The "connections" are oftentimes determined by one's relationship with the bosses. If you are in their good graces, promotions can easily come your way. That is the general feeling.

The result of this is that many a teacher who has rendered many years of service feels that the only thing to do is to mark time, to pile up seniority. The older ones have seen younger people go up, thus bypassing them. It is usually true, however, that the

younger ones who are promoted deserve the promotions. While the older teacher wants a promotion, she may not have done anything to show her worth. The younger ones have been growing in the service; they have done everything to make their work creative and constructive.

There is much that can be said against the present system (or lack thereof) of promotions. The efficiency rating counts a great deal in the matter of promotions. And yet the efficiency rating is based on the estimate of one's work, generally by only one or two persons. Something should be done to work out and enforce a more objective manner of determining efficiency rating so that the true worth of a teacher can be objectively assessed. That the fate and fortune of a teacher should be determined by one's personal relationships with her superior is one of the amazing stupidities of a bureaucratic system.

A subordinate may have been making good efficiency ratings for several years, but let him have a quarrel with the immediate boss just once, and that subordinate is a goner insofar as promotions are concerned. That is how cruel a poorly administered rating system could be.

Complaints about a faulty promotion system can of course stem from a characteristic weakness of human nature. Even among well "educated" people, self-appraisal is at times faulty. One's special qualifications and "achievements" can be grossly exaggerated. In such instances, the thought persists: "I am just as good as the other fellow, perhaps better. What has she got that I haven't got?" It sometimes happens that one's own interpretation of the seniority rule, and especially of the efficiency rating of which the rule is a part, may be unduly favorable to himself. Humility, insofar as promotions are concerned, is not an exclusive virtue of teachers; especially so if they mean so many more additional pesos to the family income.

The question that is really important in this connection is: Can it be worked out so that promotions may be based largely on merit? That can be worked out satisfactorily, provided outside interference does not throw a monkey wrench into the scheme of promotions. Thus, we meet the old evil once more: the Bureau of Public Schools and the people who administer its affairs find themselves almost helpless to do what is right — all because of political or other outside interference.

Wherein Lies the Hope?

We are running around—in a vicious circle. There is political and other outside interference in the affairs of the Bureau of Public Schools, because the very life of the Bureau and of the teachers depends upon that interference. An antagonistic political regime would not make the funds available with which to run the

school system efficiently. Politicians can cut down on appropriations, and they can even abolish items and positions.

The hope for freedom of the Bureau of Public Schools to administer its own affairs lies in three directions:

1. Make the position of Secretary of Education a constitutional position, just like the positions of justices, judges, and the Auditor-General. These officials do not have to submit courtesy resignations upon change of administration. In that way, they are independent and therefore can pursue their work and carry out their functions without interference. All positions in the Department and the Bureau which are filled by political (Presidential) appointments should be made constitutional offices. Can this ever be done? If this should be done, the politicians would lose the big chance of having their fingers in the pie, as it were. Therefore, they will be disinclined to make these positions constitutional. But there is hope that the political mire will clean-up sometime, and there is also hope that a new regime will some time be installed which will make this change possible.

2. Another hope lies in the recruitment and training of a school officialdom and teaching force that will refuse to use politics or other outside influence to secure positions and promotions for them. This will take time, just as any other good thing will come in God's own time. But it is not impossible to build up a school personnel that will stand up on their own merits and shall not use anything but merit to promote their individual and personal interests. There are so many to select from now. (Some 30,000 elementary school teachers are out of job.) By careful screening and thorough "indoctrination" in the ethics of the profession, it is hoped that only men and women of high integrity and idealism will be recruited for teaching.

3. The third hope lies in the education of the parents of our children toward greater solicitude on behalf of the school and the school children. We hope that sometime not very far from now, the parents of our school children will have become educated enough to take a more watchful attitude over the affairs of the schools. When that comes, we hope that they will want their children to be instructed well and to be brought up well, by teachers who have a high sense of integrity and by school officials who will not permit their administration to be balled up by outside interference. That state of affairs will take a long time to come into being, but there is hope that it will come into being. Parent-Teacher Associations are becoming more and more mature in respect to what kind of education they want their children to acquire from schooling. When they become familiar with what kind of education is best for their children they will want to have only the best teachers and the best

school officials. They will then be in a position to demand that the schools themselves must be free from outside interference.

The Teachers We Shall Need

To insure a highly professionalized body of teachers, a group that will bring forth the new freedom for the schools, we should begin training and recruiting those who have the following characteristics, qualities, and qualifications:

1. The good teacher is well educated and cultured. She cannot afford to be ignorant, because she must interest her young charges in the pulsating life of the environment. She is wide awake to the various issues in public life. She must be well cultured, because the uncouth teacher will produce only uncouth citizens. Favorable straws in the wind: the requirements for entrance into the service are becoming more and more rigid. The talented people will have better chances to qualify for teaching. They will work for higher pay, commensurate with their talents. The mediocre people are satisfied with little pay.

2. The good teacher knows what democracy is and practices what she knows. The good teacher is not a sycophant. She knows the importance of the freedom of self-expression. She knows that the desire for self-expression is a psychological urge. She knows that the repression of that urge is not good, for the only chance for it to be corrected is to express it. She knows that an unexpressed opinion cannot contribute anything to common thinking. An unexpressed idea cannot do any good to any one. The good teacher cannot be browbeaten. She knows that if she is right, nothing can touch her, and so she will speak out.

3. The good teacher realizes that she is a living model of high-quality citizenship, and that she will do nothing to jeopardize the teacher's influence and prestige in the eyes of those whom she serves. She knows that the teacher is one public official that is constantly under public scrutiny. She knows that she should not displease her public.

4. The good teacher knows that there is no money in teaching. While there are many materialists among teachers, it is perhaps also true that many young people who prepare themselves for teaching are imbued with high idealism. It has been dinned into their ears time and again, before they take up teaching as a life career, that the work of teaching is poorly paid. That they still want to be teachers in spite of this knowledge documents the fact of their possessing high idealism. After they get in, they are disillusioned. This fact becomes known to others who want to become teachers. Knowing all of these things many still want to become teachers.

5. Good teachers know that erudition is not the same as education. They want to teach their young charges so that these latter may grow into maturity, able to think effectively, communicate thought, make relevant judgments, and discriminate between values. The development of good personalities is their obsession. The good teacher keeps this basic objective in mind.

6. The good teacher loves the company of growing young people. She also loves to work with people. She takes keen interest in the unfolding of wholesome personalities. One of the greatest satisfactions of being a teacher is to realize years later that she has contributed toward making young people what they have become. The greatest tribute a person can pay to a former teacher is this statement: "If it had not been for your patience in teaching me, I would not be what I am now". That is one of the attractions of teaching.

7. The good teacher continuously grows toward competency; she never goes to seed. She is forever curious about things, and her mind always wants to learn something new. She keeps on studying and learning; she is never at a standstill, intellectually speaking.

8. The good teacher is emotionally stable. She is not one that "blows in, blows up, and blows out." She is the person that keeps cool under stress. She is warm in her feelings, and she is deep in her sympathies, but she keeps her temper under control. She has Job's proverbial patience. It is not often realized by the average person that the teacher has, not two or three problems in her hands, but forty and sometimes fifty. The parent who himself maltreats his own child, perhaps the only problem that he has, often forgets that the teacher has many more than he, when the parent complains about how the teacher has treated his child.

9. The good teacher has guts, and she has self-reliance. She tries to solve her own problems and fights for her rights. She does not wait for others to solve her problems for her; as a matter of fact, she knows how to solve them before they break out. In other words, she forestalls the eruption of problems.

10. The good teacher is loyal to principles, not to persons. She has convictions and she stands on them.

She has an open mind, but she has principles to begin with. She has no padrino to run to when she has to fight for her convictions. She has confidence that she is right and knows how to defend herself from outside interference.

11. The good teacher is not very much concerned with promotions; she has confidence that they will come as she deserves them. She is not eager to claim credit for herself; she feels that oftentimes credit belongs to her who needs it.

12. The good teacher is not a saint; she is only a sensible human being. She knows that if she were a saint, she would be some place else and not in the classroom. And so she feels and behaves as a human being.

This list could be lengthened, but it is long enough to indicate what can be expected of the good teacher. A thorough self-examination should be made by one who becomes or wants to become a teacher. Teaching does not pay; almost every one knows that. If a person wants to become a teacher anyhow, it may be presumed that she has the making of a 'good teacher.

The good teacher makes a good school official or administrator; her qualifications, characteristics and qualities are the same. The good teacher matures into and gets promoted to the position of good school official and administrator when the time comes. She does not worry about that.

To Summarize

This article has indicated in what aspects the public school personnel could be strengthened so that better education could be made available to our children and youth. Some suggested remedies have also been indicated, and it is admitted that the proposed remedies are difficult to effect. It behooves all citizens interested in better education to take more positive interest in the common effort to correct the problems. A militant public opinion is oftentimes effective in bringing about socially desirable changes. If we want better schools and more adequate education, the citizens must be more militant in fiscalizing the school system and more assiduous in bringing about much needed reform.



Rural Teacher Education for Community Schools in the Philippines

By **Miguela M. Solis**

President Ramon Magsaysay in his inaugural address in 1954 set the stage for a nationwide effort to improve the lot of the common man in the Philippines when he said, "... More than ever even we must think, plan and work as one, with only one supreme goal in mind—the promotion of the welfare and happiness of our people . . ."

The challenge has been accepted by the Philippine educational system—particularly teacher education, for in the rural areas of the country the teacher is a key individual in community improvement. In many rural areas the teacher has long been considered the guide and counsellor not only of children and youth but of the common man (taô) as well.

The community school is designed to carry a major role in improving community living. In teacher education the questions arise: What should be the role of rural education in national development? What are the objectives of teacher education for community schools? What should constitute teaching preparedness?

The Role of Education:

The role of rural education in the Philippines as a primary institution responsible for fostering the all-round development of children and youth for democratic living as well as for economic and cultural improvement in general requires schools which:

1. are geared closely to community needs, problems and resources
2. are transmitters and extenders of the desirable aspects of the cultural heritage and generators of economic and social advancement
3. recognize the varying needs, abilities and problems of children and youth and design curricula in recognition thereof
4. embody in the community school concept the utilization of the total community resource, both human and material, thus enlarging the learning resource area far beyond the usual confines of buildings and traditional curricula
5. foster democratic human relationships by pupils, community members and teachers working together for community improvement

6. assume a leadership role for the continuous improvement of the lot of individuals and their society, thus are capable of adapting and adjusting in organization, curricula and relationships as community needs so demand for progressive socio-economic advancement.

The Task for Teacher Education:

The task for teacher education derives from the role of the school. To provide the Philippine community schools with qualified teachers in carrying their roles in helping foster better living and all-round development of the learner in the various aspects of democracy, the education of teachers must be of such scope and quality as to enable them to live fully, happily and richly as educated persons. The general and professional education should be closely geared to the results of studies on community material and human resources with their evolving needs and problems.

The program in general education is designed to prepare the teacher:

1. for sustained physical and mental health
2. for proficiency in knowledge and utilization of language, mathematics, natural and social sciences
3. for aesthetic responsiveness in the fields of arts, literature, music and dance
4. for behavioral skills conducive to harmonious and productive human relationships
5. for development of open-minded and experimental attitudes in meeting teaching-learning situations that evolve from community needs, problems and resources
6. for responsibility as a member of the community in improving and enriching community living in a democracy.

In addition to the purposes to be satisfied through general education, the teacher education program is designed to satisfy these professional education needs necessary for service in the functional community school:

1. Understanding of the growth and developmental characteristics of children and youth, their needs and problems as they grow and learn to live in their homes, community and nation.
2. Understanding of and ability to cope with community problems in such areas as health, sanitation, agriculture, cooperatives, home industries, conservation, government and the like.
3. Understanding of the dynamics of human relationship and is skilled in techniques of group processes and their uses with children and adults.

4. Understanding of learning and the learning process and its applications in promoting educative experiences for youth and adults.

This, in brief, is the backdrop of the design for teacher education for rural education in the Philippines. The eight public normal schools, regional centers for teacher education and curriculum improvement, since 1952 have been undergoing a transition from 2-year traditional curricula institutions with inadequate buildings and facilities to 4-year community-school-centered teacher education curricula. Each school has been rehabilitated to include fully stocked professional library, curriculum laboratory, audio-visual center, science, home economics and industrial arts laboratories. Local and national curriculum committees have been at work designing courses and teaching materials.

Projects on the Go:

With the above pattern of responsibilities and duties of teacher education, unavoidably institutions in this level of education have to play an important role in experimentation and in the demonstration of better and newer teaching-learning procedures. Some of the most important projects designed to achieve competently prepared teachers for community schools are:

1. **Child Study Centers:** One of the weak spots in the Philippines is the teacher's inadequate understanding of the children under her charge as individuals and as group members. To solve this problem, a five-semester-hour course in **Understanding the Learner** is required in the Four-Year General Elementary Teacher Education Curriculum. To make the teaching-learning experiences and situations in this course functional and real, a child study center in each of the Bureau of Public Schools teacher education institutions was organized. In October, 1955, the writer with the approval of the Director of Public Schools, organized the first child study center at the Philippine-UNESCO National Community School Training Center, Bayambang, Pangasinan. The child study center has for its major aim to help classroom teachers develop interests and abilities in understanding children through the use of practical equipment and scientific techniques of assessing children. The centers operate on a cooperative approach in which the teachers (present and previous), parents, student teachers, school physician, school nurse, social worker, and other interested laymen work with the child study technician, who serves as a coordinator in the gathering, organizing, interpreting and evaluating of the data of the various aspects of growth and development of children. These child study centers are giving priority to the study of children in their respective laboratory schools in order to help future

teachers acquire the basic skills and abilities in understanding children and master teachers of the laboratory schools in graduating teacher-learning experiences according to their children's developmental levels. The data, therefore, serve as starting point in determining the universal and unique characteristics and needs of children in the laboratory schools. The first concern of the centers is on the utilization of the data by the classroom teachers and later the data will be used in drawing conclusions on the characteristics and needs of Filipino children on the regional and national scopes.

The child study centers are now operating for the children and students in their respective school campuses. In due time, they will extend the service to all children and youth in the service areas of the normal schools which, when taken together, will cover the whole Philippines. The latter groups of data will be utilized in determining national characteristics and needs.

2. **Opportunity Class:** "Education for all children of all people" is a significant adage in all democratic countries. After making a thorough study of children's needs, experiences, readiness, adjustment, purposes, interests, and abilities, inevitably the children with special talents in arts, sciences, crafts, constructive manipulations and other aspects of creativeness, will be identified as well as children with marked deficiencies intellectually, emotionally, socially, and physically. These various groups of children call for special attention for the provision of the necessary experiences and learning-teaching situations to foster the development of their talents or eliminate their difficulties as the case may be. The first opportunity class was organized in December, 1956, by the writer with the approval of Dr. Benigno Aldana, Director of Public Schools. It is located at the Pangasinan Normal School. It is an essential part of the Child Study Center.

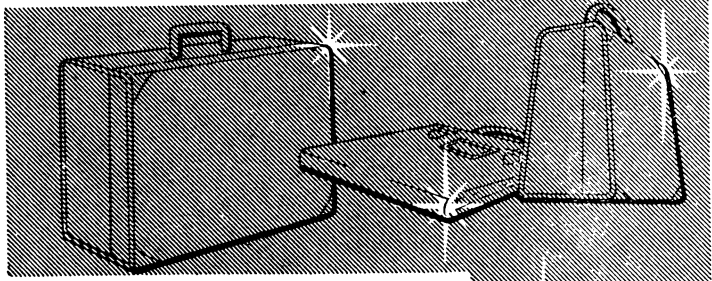
3. **Pre-School Education Classes:** The significance of pre-school education for the development of growth and development of pre-school children cannot be over-emphasized. It is accepted that the first impressions are most lasting and early experiences are carried on in the life development of the individual. Results of studies and researches have shown that education in early age has measurable effects on the learning process of children in the next higher grades. Desirable social-emotional behaviors, if developed in the right manner in early childhood, persist to operate in the life of a growing child. These are a few of the supporting reasons why pre-school education has to be organized in the school system.

The first kindergarten class under the leadership of the writer was organized in October, 1955 at Zamboanga Normal School, with the cooperation of Mrs.

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Ignacia Olasso, Supervisor of Laboratory School. All the normal schools have organized their respective pre-school education classes as an important phase of their course in child understanding (child growth and development) and of their child study programs.

4. Balanced Approach to Community Education: The ultimate goal of community education is **better life and life condition**. With this goal in view, necessarily the approach to effective teaching-learning experiences and situations should be evolved from the children's needs, interests, experiences, capacities, and values in the light of community needs, problems and resources. This approach gives a balance to the importance of the child and his community or society. This is the balanced approach—giving very close ties between the child and the community (cultural and environmental factors).

The first leadership class in **balanced teaching-learning approach** was organized in the 1953 Baguio Vacation Normal School. In the 1956 Baguio Vacation Normal School this leadership class was revived. Seventeen school divisions were represented in this class. These representatives have shown good start in evolving units of work from community needs, problems, and resources in the light of results of studies of children in their respective schools. This approach in teaching is an evidence in vitalizing teaching conformably with the demands of community education with particular stress in the rural areas.

5. Special Teacher-Education Program: To meet the expanding needs and responsibilities of the Bureau of Public Schools, **special teacher-education programs** for exceptional children—blind, deaf, partially hearing and seeing, mentally gifted, mentally retarded, socially maladjusted, and crippled as well as for **pre-school education** have been initiated in 1957 at the Baguio Vacation Normal School. Although these special teacher-education curricula are in their infancy stage, in due time all the normal schools and big central schools will have their own special classes for exceptional children.

Besides, the special teacher education curricula above, there are now being evolved to meet the demand for special teachers in music, arts, home economics and practical arts (crafts, elementary agriculture, elementary shop and cottage industries) developed within the framework of the Four-Year General Elementary Teacher-Education Curriculum. Without unduly lengthening this Curriculum, few well selected future teachers are enrolled in these special teacher education curricula. The enrolment is determined by the data on supply and demand in each special field.

Role of the School Administrator

By Fabian V. Abitona

GUIDANCE is more or less a generic term involving the child, the teacher, the school administrator, the parents and the other adult members of the school community. Every man, woman, or child that comes in contact with another child influences the latter one way or another. Guidance however, connotes a planned course of action designed to mould the growing child according to a pattern accepted by society. It is not however within the purview of this article to discuss the operating principle of guidance. Suffice it to say that for our purpose we look upon it as an educative process which is part and parcel of the learning situation.

The Importance of Early Home Influences:

As we said, the growing child is influenced by the people around him. The child is the greatest imitator alive. He talks the language spoken around him. He sees what others see in something; thinks and acts as they do; learns to love this and to hate that; building a pattern of behavior reflecting the conduct of those whom he loves and admires most as well as builds a framework of prejudice against an object, idea, or belief as they influence him negatively the most. He acquires the attitude that prevails around his social circle, builds ideals as he sees them built by others and forms an opinion very much colored by the opinion of others. As the child grows however, he learns to form ideas, attitudes, and ideals of his own. But the early influences he obtained in childhood remain substantially unchanged throughout his life.

The adult influences in childhood are therefore so crucial that nothing should be spared to get the right conditions early enough in life. In school the need for setting up this right conditions cannot be taken for granted. It is here where the role of the administrator in guidance comes in. It is the job of the Superintendent, the Principal or the Supervisor to so plan the school activities that optimum conditions for growth are formed. To do these there are however

a few things that should concern him first if he were to be able to make a working plan for maximal pupil growth and development.

A Sound Educational Policy

The school operates on carefully laid out policies that have been selected for certain specific purposes. In our educational system which is highly centralized school policies are formulated by the General Office in the forms of directives, circulars, memorandums, and the like. These directives more or less lay down the structural framework of the whole system. But the implementation of these directives are left to the field—meaning the smaller branches of the school system such as, the division, the district, the school, and the heads thereof. Whatever policy is therefore locally adapted must be in consonance with the basic framework.

The administrator is however free to act on his own. He has the power of discretion. Being closest to the local setting, the Principal knows best his own problems and therefore should be in a position to solve them as he sees fit his actions limited only by the more fundamental principles of law and good government.

In the determination of what course of action to take the administrator has a number of things to bear in mind. First, he should possess a philosophy of education and be able to translate this into worthy goals that are achievable. The school cannot operate on a vacuum. It has to have a reason to exist and a reason to justify the course of action taken. Philosophy states our ideals into workable plans and translate our dreams of tomorrow into realities of today. Second, he should know which goals he wants to achieve considering the factors of time, place and relative experience and maturity of those under him. Third, he should know operational principles found out to be effective in connection with certain types of problems and situations. Fourth, he should be able to evaluate continuously the work done and the activities engaged in to see wherein further improvements could be made in the total learning effort.

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN GUIDANCE

While the administrator may not be actually engaged in guidance work, it does not mean that his own guiding hand is not there. The general of the army does not have to be in the front lines although this does not mean that he does not go there himself at all. He is the brain of the army in battle. Under the same token the Principal's presence may not be necessary in the classroom but it does not mean his influence there is totally absent. There are however, definite aspects of the guidance program wherein the Principal is actually involved.

1) **Planning the Guidance Program.** — It is the job of the Principal to set down the blueprint of the guidance program. To do this he makes consultation with his staff as well as with parents and possibly with the cooperation of other educative agencies. Two heads are better than one, so runs the oft-repeated dictum — Better still, many heads are better than two. The guidance program therefore should reflect the combined opinions of the teacher, the school administrator, the parents, the church and other social and civic agencies.

2) **Setting the Guidance Service.** — Having planned what to do, he next sees to it that the right teacher with the right temperament and training takes charge of the program. It cannot be gainsaid that much depend upon the right selection of the guidance teacher. The whole framework depends so much upon the way he manages the guidance services. No teacher should be assigned to do guidance work who needs guidance herself. This means that the guidance teacher should be one who has no problems of personal adjustment. She must have a pleasant personality, must love children, and must love the work above all.

3) **Supervising the Guidance Activities.** — The Principal, cannot, by any means, dissociate himself from the Guidance Program. Having planned it, his

next job would be to see to it that it serves the purpose for which it was created. His continued close supervision over the activities of the whole school cannot fail to notice if there is anything amiss in it.

4) **Research in Guidance.** — Guidance is a rich field for investigation and study. The Principal should be in a position to develop a climate for research work in his school. Through his experience and maturity of judgment coupled with his peculiar position to set up special services in school, he should be able to make needed research in guidance.

5) **Cooperation With Other Educative Agencies.** — Guidance work is a cooperative undertaking. It involves the school, the home, the church, other social and civic organizations. The more people cooperating in the task of guiding children and youth the better it is for the child. The Principal should be in a position to get the cooperation and interest of those agencies.

Aside from the purely administrative aspects of the Program the Principal performs other services that are actually involving guidance work, to wit:

1. **Consultative Service.** — The Principal is the consultant. Teachers engaged in the guidance activities, get his advice, and ask for his opinions on moot questions.

2. **Personal Interview.** — The Principal interviews other members of the non-teaching personnel to see wherein they could fit in the common task of educating children.

3. **Student or Pupil Interview.** — Often pupils see the Principal rather than the guidance teacher for advice. The Principal cannot but satisfy the child's craving for his attention and avail himself of his mature judgment.

4. **Conference with Parents.** — Guiding the child is a common job of both parents and teachers. The closer relation there is between the parent and the teacher, the better it is for the child.

Secondary Schools

Guidance and Counselling

By Gaudencio V. Aquino

EDUCATIONAL authorities are agreed that guidance is a function of the secondary school. Like any other of the school's major functions guidance of youth should be accorded due attention. In the minds of secondary people — the principal, the special guidance worker, the teacher — guidance must have meaning, and in their efforts to provide this vital service — guidance for all youth — they must

allow concepts of guidance, the modern ones especially, to find expression.

PURPOSES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Probably the most widely quoted purposes of secondary education are those enumerated by the U.S. Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The Commission, after considerable study

and deliberation, set forth the following seven purposes which have been referred to as "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education": (1) Health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.

Inglis has suggested three fundamental aims of secondary education: (1) the social-civic aim, (2) the economic-vocational aim, and (3) the individualistic-vocational aim.

Briggs has delegated ten special functions to secondary education and presented them in the following order: (1) integration, (2) satisfaction of needs, (3) revelation of the racial heritage, (4) exploration of interests, attitudes, and capacities, (5) systematization and application of knowledge, (6) establishment and direction of interests, (7) guidance, (8) differentiation, (9) methods of teaching and learning, (10) retention and direction of pupils.

Briggs elaborates on number 7 above as follows: "The school should determine to guide students, on the basis of results of personnel studies, as widely as possible into advanced study or vocations in which they are most likely to be successful and happy."

The over-all purpose of secondary education may be assumed to be the guidance of the adolescent in the achievement of an intelligent and satisfying adjustment to his immediate environment. This statement implies two things: (1) an awareness of the nature of the cultural, social, political, and economic environment in which young people of today live, and (2) knowledge of individual students — their strengths and their weaknesses, their aims and ideals, their personal and social needs — thus bringing to light bases for reanalyzing the school's services in order to help young people adjust to their immediate environment.

Other sets of purposes of secondary education could be presented but essentially, there is general agreement on the purposes of secondary education. It is also clear that in every set of purposes of secondary education the function of guidance is either specifically mentioned or strongly implied, and that guidance is not conceived as a service to be set apart as an autonomous appendage to the already existing school program, but is rather accepted as an integral part of all the functions performed by the secondary school.

Needs of Youth

What are the needs of in-school youth? The following is a list of "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age" as defined by adult authorities in Secondary Education:

(1) All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experiences as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupation.

(2) All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

(3) All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen in a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

(4) All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

(5) All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

(6) All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world of man.

(7) All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

(8) All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

(9) All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

(10) All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

What Guidance is About

There are indications that the meaning of guidance is not clear to a great many people. There is a need therefore to know what guidance is all about.

Jones gives the following definition of guidance:

Guidance involves personal help given someone, it is designed to assist a person to decide where he wants to go, what he wants to do, or how he can best accomplish his purpose; it assists him to solve problems that arise in life. It does not solve problems for the individual but helps him to solve them. The focus of guidance is the individual, not the problem; its purpose is to promote the growth of the individual in self-direction. This guidance may be given in

groups or individuals, but it always is designed to help individuals even though they be in a group.

Wrinkle and Gilchrist declare that:

Guidance... means to stimulate and help the student to set up worthwhile, achievable purposes and to develop abilities which will make it possible for him to achieve his purposes. The essential elements are (1) the setting up of purposes, (2) the provision of experiences, (3) the development of abilities, and (4) the achievement of purposes... Teaching without intelligent guidance cannot be good teaching, and guidance without good teaching is incomplete. Teaching and guidance are inseparable.

Spears gives another noteworthy statement about guidance in this fashion:

A really good guidance or personnel program in a school depends not so much upon the tests and the techniques employed, but rather upon a whole-staff consciousness of, and participation in, effective personnel work. The program is to be judged by neither the thickness of the cumulative record folder nor the number of standardized test scores therein. None of these trippings — not even a staff of trained counsellors — can make up for the absence of a soft spot in the heart of the classroom teacher for her pupils as individuals, all different, all important. This close feeling of the teacher for individual pupils is the keystone of school guidance.

Spears states further that "an effective guidance program helps a youth to see clearly four things: (1) Where he has been; (2) Where he is now; (3) Where he is going; and (4) What he has with which to get there."

Harrin and Erichson believe that:

Guidance in the secondary school refers to that aspect of educational program which is concerned especially with helping the pupil to become adjusted to his present situation and to plan his future in line with his interests, abilities, and social needs...

One more author, Davis, opines that:

Guidance (1) is merely individualized education, (2) includes the diagnosis of a pupil's difficulties and cooperation between teacher and pupil in their correction, and (3) is a service which should be involved in any teaching situation.

A careful consideration of the meaning of guidance as described in the preceding paragraphs will yield the following summary, given in the form of key ideas.

1. Guidance is personal service.
2. It is the full responsible development of the individual pupil that counts.
3. The inseparability of guidance and education is acknowledged.

4. Guidance is continuous.

It must be borne in mind that just as learning or education cannot be precisely defined, it is impossible to give guidance a definition that is perfect and forever satisfactory. The above definitions are presented in the conviction that guidance is more than a work; it is a big idea, composed of many ideas and concepts, replete with purpose and form.

Areas of Guidance

In the secondary school guidance services are usually designed for application in three large areas of life. These areas are conveniently identified as educational, vocational, and personal and social. They are not discrete areas. They are intimately related. They are, in fact, inseparable. For example, in a certain school where emphasis is placed upon vocational guidance the vocational counselor works intimately with all other school personnel on matters of guidance, curriculum, evaluation, testing and measuring, supervision, and all other phases of a school that is a going concern. It is impossible to guide pupils properly without knowing everything possible about their home and family backgrounds, their health records since early childhood, their progress through school since the beginning, their work accomplishments outside of school their personal social habits, their purposes, and so on.

Of the three areas of guidance just mentioned, vocational guidance has enjoyed the greatest emphasis in the past. In more recent years, however, increased attention has been given to educational guidance as it relates to the personal and social adjustment of young people, and the latter has rapidly come into prominence as an obligation of the secondary school.

The Problem of Youth

In order for secondary school people to have bases for functional guidance services there is an imperative need on their part to identify and establish the problems about which boys and girls in secondary school worry most.

Sometime in 1942 Little and Chapman began a research into the nature of the problems of most concern to secondary school youth. The study was conducted for almost ten years. The utmost care with which the research was undertaken insured a valid and pertinent body of information. Upon final classification and arrangement of data, the following problem areas, named in order of rank, were found to define in a general way the nature of youth's major problems: (1) social adjustment, (2) family relations, (3) the use of time, (4) the future, (5) personality (6) part-time jobs and money, and (7) health.

The different types of problems under each problem area were classified as follows:

1. Social Adjustment
 - How best to get along with boy or girl friends
 - How to feel socially accepted
 - How best to entertain
 - How best to choose friends
 - How best to get information and make decisions about love and marriage
 - How to secure facilities for recreation
 - How to dress
 - How to acquire social ease
 - How often to have dates; when to get home
 - How best to meet people
2. Family Relations
 - Disagreement between child and parents or matters of standards
 - Lack of understanding between parents and child
 - Conflicts between brothers and sisters
 - Incompatibility, broken home, neglect
 - Too little time with parents
 - Inability to get along with relatives
3. The Use of Time
 - How to budget time wisely
 - How to study
 - How best to spend leisure time
 - How to deal with the time-consuming nature of school subjects
4. The Future
 - Deciding on a vocation
 - Continuing formal education
 - Succeeding academically
 - Succeeding vocationally
5. Personality
 - How to develop a good memory
 - How to overcome lack of interest
 - How to develop tolerance, tact, and broad-mindedness
 - How to attract friends
 - How to develop physical attractiveness
 - How to develop taste in the selection and wearing of clothes
 - How to develop character and poise and to overcome selfconsciousness and timidity
6. Part-time Jobs and Money
 - How to get enough money to do things that have to be done
 - How to get a part-time job
 - How to earn money and go to school
 - How to get along on a part-time job
 - How to spend money wisely
 - How to save money
 - How to find suitable part-time work
7. Health
 - Sufficient sleep

Abnormal weight
 Teeth, eye, ear, nose, throat trouble
 Physical fitness
 Proper diet for good health
 Effect of smoking and drinking upon health; nervousness; nail biting

Organizing the School for Guidance

The success of the guidance function in the secondary school depends in large measure upon organization, administration and supervision. Little and Chapman define each as follows:

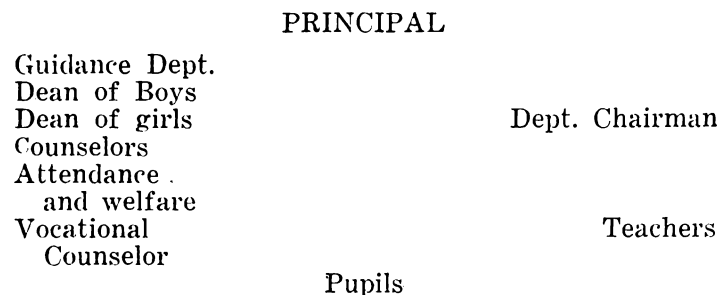
1. Organization. — It involves getting the right people into proper places at appropriate times, with sufficient materials with which to work effectively.

2. Administration — It involves keeping controls and lines of communication clear and flexible so that the right people continue to have less and less difficulty in becoming situated in areas where their efforts will be most fruitful, of resource materials to be used at given times and in given places.

3. Supervision — It is that phase of educational administration which has as its greatest concern providing professional leadership in the attainment of educational objectives. It seeks to draw out the best qualities of each personality among faculty and pupils alike, and it stimulates and assists each person to increase his own powers to the maximum. It seeks to establish unity of purpose and action among school personnel to the end that the satisfactory achievement of agreed-upon objectives is practically assured, and it inspires people constantly to rise to still greater heights.

Supervision aids in the collection, the assimilation, and to interpretation of pertinent data and information, and it assists each individual to become increasingly proficient in the use of these. It aims toward effecting needed changes in the nature of the school's service to pupils; in curriculum content and organization, and in methods, by helping each professional worker understand basic reasons for changes and by riding each person in the mastery of new techniques which he must possess if desirable changes are to be effected, thus preserving his individual integrity. Such responsibilities are primarily those of the secondary school principal.

An example of organization for guidance is shown in the following chart:



The Role of the Principal

The principal is a key official upon whose leadership the success of the school's program depends. If the principal is to provide leadership in effecting the dynamics of guidance and instruction in his school, he must:

1. Have a deep conviction that "There are no misfit children. There are misfit courses of study, misfit textbooks, misfit teachers... The child is what education is for."

2. Realize that guidance is only one of the major functions of secondary education.

3. See the secondary school and its several functions in proper relationship to one another and to another and to the total education of young people.

4. Devote himself seriously to an examination of modern concepts of guidance. This should give him more substantial bases for planning his own leadership activities which are directed toward improved guidance in his school.

The major concepts of guidance may be summarized as follows:

1. Guidance is inclusive. It is based upon the assumption that all pupils need guidance.

2. Guidance is flexible. Its method changes with individual and group needs for guidance.

3. It is democratic. Guidance cannot be imposed upon anyone with assurance that it will be effective.

4. Guidance is scientific. It can be effective only to the degree that pertinent scientifically gathered information and data are utilized to help pupils in the solution of their problems.

5. It is preventive. Guidance aims to prevent maladjustment. To be sure, maladjustment is treated; but to delay the application of guidance until the child is obviously out of harmony with himself and with his group would be to defeat its very purpose.

6. It is continuous. Guidance is a service to children which begins when they enter school and ends when they have found their places in their chosen fields after leaving school.

7. Guidance is an integral part of the total program of education. Guidance is a whole-school enterprise, and it functions best when principal, special guidance workers, teachers, and pupils accept and work to achieve essentially the same major goals.

Because of his position of leadership, the principal should take some steps that are essential if guidance is to be a reality in the secondary school. Spears

suggests the following as those that must be done by the schools:

1. See to it that every guidance counselor is one who places the worth of personalities before the worth of subjects.

2. Provide the means whereby guidance workers who see the inadequacies of the curriculum can also serve in helping to change it.

3. Establish a whole-staff consciousness of, and participation in, effective personnel work.

4. Establish the classroom as the basic guidance unit, rather than the special counselor's office.

5. Let half of the guidance staff's time be spent in helping teachers to improve their ways of working with and appreciating youth.

6. Rather than growing it as a separate plant graft guidance onto the already existing curriculum where necessary to accommodate this emphasis upon individual differences and personal worth.

The Homeroom

The homeroom as it is known today is a new device and it came into being as a result of demands made upon the schools to offer guidance services. Although many administrators have seized upon the homeroom period as a convenient time for expediting administrative routine, it is now rapidly coming to be thought of as an appropriate place for guidance in the school second only to the classroom.

Current use of the homeroom may be conveniently classified into two categories: (1) as an administrative device and (2) as a center for educational guidance. Certain administrative functions that are commonly performed in the homeroom are checking attendance, collecting data for the administration, distributing report cards, reading announcements issued from the principal's office, promoting fund-raising campaigns, and distributing supplies.

Certain educational-guidance functions of the homeroom will fall in to the following groups: (1) registering and classifying pupils; (2) acquainting pupils with the various course plans; (3) interpreting school rules and regulations; (4) instructing pupils in the use and care of the school plant; (5) correlating the homeroom with the broader educational-guidance services carried on in the schools as a whole; and (6) teaching school and community citizenship.

It is said that the most satisfactory way for an individual to solve his personal and social problems is to work as a member of a group. The homeroom accommodates the ideal group. Through the homeroom group guidance is made possible. And when students meet in a group where each is familiar with

the others, a pupil even without participating in discussions or raising a question frequently receives invaluable help.

The Homeroom Teacher

The homeroom teacher is a key guidance worker. She has the deep conviction that guidance services are needed to meet the needs of the students. Because she understands the unique nature of personality, she rules out formularized, rule-of-thumb techniques of counselling. She makes each individual pupil a subject of intensive and continuous study. She studies the pupil, and she comes to know the pupil's habits and ways of thinking, his ideas, his aims, his problems. The effective homeroom teacher is understanding, sympathetic, resourceful. She does not need to know all the problems of each student. She tries to know some of the problems as sound bases for planning homeroom activities, for she feels almost certain that most of the pupils have the same or very similar difficulties. As time goes on, she will be able to identify many of the most pressing worries of her group. The homeroom teacher employs techniques suitable to the occasion for guidance. She may use the group discussion, the panel, or the report as the case may be. She and her students may invite someone from outside the school to meet with the group. She and her students may go on excursions as means of gathering facts and developing understanding. She uses the demonstration technique.

The homeroom teacher-counselor views the business of gathering information and data about each of her pupils as an important on-going process, and acts accordingly. She utilizes tests of various kinds, observes each pupil in her homeroom systematically, records her observations, and compares her findings with those of other homeroom teachers.

Forever Harnessed

*God set this up with purpose cons since;
With quake and deluge scooped the sandy waste;
With glacial wedges split a mountain's heart
And poured a river where His finger traced.
The desert had its way with all things green
And man, grown desperate, scamed the tortured whole
And pl'ed his skills to curb the water's rush...
Behold the placid lake in its blue bowl!*

*So God and man contrived. Once thunder-strong,
Once lightning-swift, now beggared and resigned,
The river, like some aging serpent crawls
Leaving its pulsate power far behind
Forever harnessed to cement and steel
And docile to a hand upon a wheel.*

—F. H. W.

FEVER-REDUCING INGREDIENT IN

NEW FORMULA

TRIPLE-ACTION

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"WONDER DRUGS"



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Clinical tests conducted at an Air Force Base in the U.S.A. on 150 aviators suffering from influenza, bronchitis and colds proved conclusively that the principal ingredient in new Cafiaspirina lowered accompanying fever faster than so-called antibiotic "wonder drugs." The findings, published in the Journal of the American Medical Association, also reported none of the adverse side effects which occasionally accompany use of wonder drugs.

And Cafiaspirina gives you not one but TWO instant-acting pain relievers — plus a third ingredient that gives you an immediate lift from that depressed "let-down" feeling that often accompanies pain, fever and colds. All three of these "pain-fighters" work together synergistically, like a doctor's prescription, to bring you the fastest and gentlest relief possible. Before you know it your pains and aches are gone — and so is that miserable depressed feeling that accompanies a cold, headache or fever.



To stop cold or fever... and feel fine all over...

Always Take

NEW FORMULA

TRIPLE-ACTION

CAFIASPIRINA

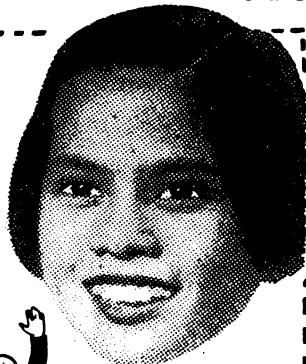
3 MARVELOUS "PAIN FIGHTERS" IN EVERY WONDER TABLET!



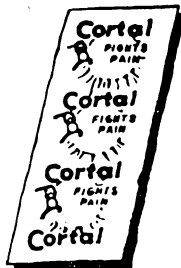
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United Nations

(An Acrostic)

- U — is for UNDERSTANDING fundamental to eternal world peace.
- N — is for NATIONALISM people everywhere love to claim.
- I — is for INTEGRITY each member nation should respect.
- T — is for TIME, the cradle of hope, but the grave of ambition.
- E — is for ETERNAL peace of the world, the UN's primordial objective.
- D — is for DEMOCRACY, the show window of personal liberty.
- N — is for NOBILITY, the graceful ornament to civil order.
- A — is for AMBITION that makes nations struggle with destiny.
- T — is for TRUTH, like beauty, varies in its fashions.
- I — is for INDUSTRY, the foundation of pleasure and prosperity.
- O — is for OBEDIENCE, the first and greatest requisite of a state.
- N — is for NATURE, the living and visible garment of God.
- S — is for SCIENCES that are maps of universal laws and the channels of universal powers.

Victor C. Malot



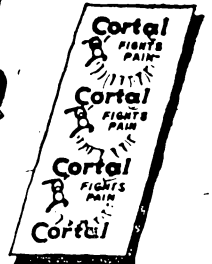
FEVERISH?



Here's Fast
RELIEF!



**SPEEDY
SAFE**

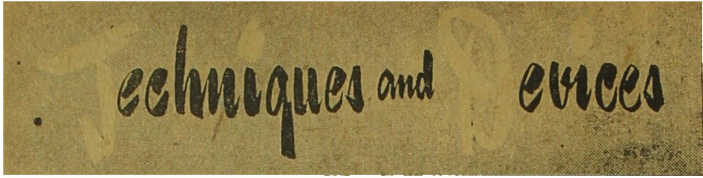


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Language Materials for UN Week

By Tarciana I. Reyes

THESE exercises are suggestive exercises which may be used in Language in connection with Social Studies.

I. Arranging words in alphabetical order

Direction: Here are some new words you will meet in your study of the United Nations organization. Try to arrange them in the correct alphabetical order.

- | | | |
|---------------|------------------|-------------|
| organs | judicial | specialized |
| international | council | universal |
| charter | disputes | fundamental |
| preamble | non-self govern- | maternal |
| tolerance | ing | trusteeship |
| security | recommendation | bodies |
| assistance | emblazoned | advisory |
| languages | | |

II. Dividing words with syllables

Direction: This time, try to find into how many syllables each word is divided. (When you are not sure of how to divide it, look it up in the dictionary.)

- | | | |
|--------------|-------------|-----------------|
| permanent | assembly | maintain |
| generations | ideals | representatives |
| humanitarian | equality | elected |
| refrain | necessary | accordance |
| committees | provide | technical |
| disasters | inhabitants | territories |
| opinion | conference | organization |

III. Reorganizing sentences

Direction: Rewrite each paragraph. Put a period after every group of words which you think is a sentence. Capitalize every first word of the sentence, too.

A. The Red Cross is the symbol of service through the years of its existence it has worked for peace and security it takes care of refugees and helps families of prisoners of war to find where they are and get packages it inspects prison camps to see that they meet certain standards in peacetime it helps to fight epidemics and famine and comes to the assistance of people who are homeless or hurt because of floods earthquakes and other disasters in wartime it is a source of relief and comfort to unfortunate human beings wherever they are there is almost no limit to the services the Red Cross performs.

B. The United Nations is an organization of nations for the maintenance of world peace the name was devised by the late President Roosevelt it was first used in the Declaration by United Nations of January 1, 1942 when representatives of 26 nations pledged their Governments to continue fighting against the Axis.

IV. Spotting the correct spelling

Directions: A—In this paragraph are some words that are not spelled correctly. Underline each. Then get a piece of paper and try to write the correct spelling of each word. When you are not sure of the right spelling, always use the dictionary.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was established by the General Assembly on December 11, 1946. It aims to bring aid to child victims of war and for child health purposes generally. It is now helping with child care programs in 75 countries and territories of Asia, Africa, Europe, Latin America and the Eastern Mediterranean Area. This aid is mainly for control of such diseases as malaria, tuberculosis, and yaws; for setting up maternal and child welfare centers and training midwives and nurses' aides particularly in rural areas.

B—In these exercises, underline the word in parenthesis that is correctly spelled.

1. The United Nations Day is celebrated on (October, October, October) 24, the birthday of the UN.

2. A United Nations flag was adopted by the General Assembly at (Flashing Meadow, Flushing Medow, Flushing Meadow.)

3. The UNO is financed by (contributions, cun-trebutions, contrivusions) from Member states.

4. The United Nations charter was drawn up by the (repreisentatives, representatives, representatives) of 50 countries at the Conference in International Organization which met at San Francisco from April 25 to June 26, 1946.

5. One of the purposes of the UNO is to develop (frindly, friendly, freindly) relations among nations.

6. Almost all (business, busines, bussiness) done by the United Nations passes through the Secretariat.

7. The UNO has specialized (agincies, agencies, agencies) to help it carry out its policies.

9. The FAO tries to combat (ipidemics, epidemics, epidimics) of animal diseases such as rinderpest in many countries.

10. The United Nations symbol is a (folar, pular, polar) map of the world embraced in twin olive branches.

V. Punctuating sentences

Direction: Put the correct punctuation marks where they are needed.

A. I am War Wherever I am fought there is suffering destruction and death I have fought for many reasons for religion for loot to gain more territory to acquire land and raw materials Have I not worked for Peace After a War there follows some sort of Peace until I am around again

B. Wait Do not leave in despair Look They have applauded you What does that mean That means they recognize an important work you have done League of Nations

VI. Rearranging words to make a complete thought.

Direction: These words are not put in their proper order so there is thought expressed. Rearrange them so there will be a complete thought or idea expressed.

1. composed members is five the Council permanent Security of.

2. the System encourages human respect Trusteeship and rights interdependence recognition peoples of the world of the.

3. the Court judges cannot international during of Justice term their engage if office other occupation any.

4. present Dag Hammarskjold of Secretary-General United Nations the organization the is.

5. United Nations freely the and gives thought

without of returns.

6. rights the man all are for of distinction without.

7. everyone right has of religion freedom to the.

8. General Assembly the town world of the is meeting.

9. international United the is Nations organization an.

10. the health Organization helps World improve teaching to health.

VII. Correct Usage

Direction: Underline the word in parenthesis that will make the sentence correct.

1. The charter of the UNO (was, is) signed on June 26, 1945.

2. The Security Council (is, are) composed of 5 permanent members and 6 non-permanent members.

3. The International Labor Organization is (help, helping) organize the training of skilled labor.

4. The fight against illiteracy is an important (work, works) of UNESCO.

5. The FAO gives technical assistance to peoples throughout the world to (raised, raise) more and better food.

6. (Many, Much) milk is given to undernourished children by the UNICEF.

7. There are more than sixty nation (member, members) of the UN.

8. The judges of the International Court of Justice (serve, serves) for a term of nine years.

9. The Secretary-General submits a (reports, report) every year to the General Assembly about the work of the UNO.

10. (Much, Many) lives are usually lost during the war.

K E Y

I.

1. advisory
2. assistance
3. bodies
4. charter
5. council
6. disputes
7. emblazoned
8. fundamental
9. international
10. judicial
11. languages
12. maternal
13. non-self governing
14. organs
15. preamble
16. recommendation
17. specialized
18. security

II.

1. per-ma-nent
2. ge-ne-ra-tions
3. hu-man-i-ta-rian
4. re-frain
5. com-mit-tees
6. dis-as-ters
7. o-pin-ion
8. as-sem-bly
9. i-deals
10. e-qual-i-ty
11. nec-es-sary
12. pro-vide
13. in-hab-it-ants
14. con-fer-ence
15. main-tain
16. rep-re-sen-ta-tives
17. e-lect-ed
18. ac-cor-dance

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| 19. tolerance | 19. tech-ni-cal |
| 20. trusteeship | 20. ter-ri-to-ries |
| 21. universal | 21. or-gan-i-za-tion |

III. A—The Red Cross is the symbol of services. Through the years of its existence it has worked for peace and security. It takes care of refugees and helps families of prisoners of war to find where they are and get packages. It inspects prison camps to see that they meet certain standards. In peacetime it helps to fight epidemics and famine and comes to the assistance of people who are homeless or hurt because of floods, earthquakes and other disasters. In wartime it is a source of relief and comfort to unfortunate human beings wherever they are. There is almost no limit to the services the Red Cross performs.

B. The United Nations is an organization of nations for the maintenance of world peace. The name was devised by the late President Roosevelt. It was first used in the Declaration by United Nations of January 1, 1942, when representatives of 26 nations pledged their government to continue fighting against the Axis.

IV. A.

established	Latin	diseases
victims	territories	tuberculosis
purposes	countries	welfare
programs	Mediterranean	midwives
Europe	control	nurses

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------|
| B. 1. October | 6. business |
| 2. Flushing Meadow | 7. agencies |
| 3. contributions | 8. knowledge |
| 4. representatives | 9. epidemics |
| 5. friendly | 10. polar |

V. A. I am War. Wherever I am fought, there is suffering, destruction and death. I have fought for

many reasons: for loot, to gain more territory, to acquire land and raw materials. Have I not worked for Peace? After a War there follows some sort of Peace—until I am around again.

B. Wait! Do not leave in despair. Look! They have applauded you. What does that mean? That means they recognize an important work you have done, League of Nations.

VI. 1. The Security Council is composed of five permanent members.

2. The Trusteeship system encourages respect of human rights and recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world.

3. The judges of the International Court of Justice cannot engage in any other occupation during their term of office.

4. The present Secretary-General of the United Nations is Dag Hammarskjold.

5. The United Nations gives freely and without thought of return.

6. The rights of man are for all without distinction.

7. Everyone has the right of the freedom of religion.

8. The General Assembly is the town meeting of the world.

9. The United Nations is an international organization.

10. The World Health Organization helps improve the teaching of health.

- | | |
|-------------|------------|
| VII. 1. was | 6. much |
| 2. is | 7. members |
| 3. is | 8. serve |
| 4. helping | 9. report |
| 5. work | 10. many |

A Long Range Plan

Integrated Unit in Social Studies

By Rosario I. Cruz

UNIT: Our Changing Ways of Life and Customs About Courtship, Marriage, Burial and Health

I. Objectives

A. Knowledge and Information:

1. To know who the early inhabitants of the Philippines were — their characteristics, ways of living,

(dress, shelter, food), and customs about courtship, marriage burial and health.

2. To learn how other countries like China, India, Spain and the United States have influenced our ways of life and customs (as mentioned in No. 1).

B. Attitudes and Appreciations:

1. To appreciate the early culture of our ancestors.

2. To realize how much changes brought about by China, India, Spain and the United States have affected our ways of living and customs about courtship, marriage, burial and health.

3. To be interested in the historical background of our great, great ancestors.

C. Habits and Skills:

1. To further form the habit of

a. using reference materials, carefully and accurately as much as possible in getting the necessary information that will lead in the solution of their problems of study;

b. organizing one's report in an orderly sequence; and

c. neatness in all kinds of work whether writing out reports, making projects, etc.

2. To work cooperatively with one's group or other members of the class in all activities concerning the unit.

3. To try to be a good listener or to give one's report clearly and accurately.

II. Suggested Contents

A. Early inhabitants

1. Who were they and their characteristics

a. Aetas

b. Indonesians

c. Malays — primitive, semi-civilized, civilized

2. Locating on the map where the early inhabitants settled.

B. Ways of living of the early Filipinos

1. How they lived

....

2. What foods they ate and how they obtained their food

3. How they dressed

4. Other ways to distinguish one wave of immigrants from the other. Example: industries

C. Customs of the early Filipinos

1. Courtship

2. Marriage

3. Burial

4. Health

D. The influence of other countries on our ways of life and customs

1. Countries — China, India, Spain, United States

2. Evolution of the Filipino custom — men and women

E. Other present customs as compared to the old ones

1. Which should be preserved

2. Which should be discouraged

III. Suggested Activities

A. Initiation of the unit

1. Displaying pictures in the classroom (a week or so) as preparatory step in having the children get an idea of the unit they will undertake. (Before actual class period begins, children may go around to look at the pictures.)

2. Story-telling by the teacher (How The Early Inhabitants Came to the Philippines) NOTE: The Story was taken from the **Philippine Saga** by Prof. H. Otley Beyer and simplified by the writer of this plan to suit the understanding of her pupils.

B. Raising problems

1. How do we compare with our ancestors as to:

a. dress

b. food

c. shelter

d. customs on courtship, marriage, burial, health.

2. How did other countries influence our ways of living and the above named customs?

C. Suggested Activities concerning:

1. Research

a. Looking in textbook in history, magazines, newspapers, encyclopedias or other available supplementary texts the answers to the problems raised.

b. Asking elders some of our old-time customs.

2. Reports

a. Members of different groups will report on what they have researched on problems in which they are interested in.

3. Discussion

a. Who were the early inhabitants of the Philippines?

b. How do they differ from one another in characteristics? Ways of living?

c. What are some of the things we see around us now that show some of the early inhabitants of the Philippines are advanced in their ways of living?

d. Tell us some of our customs that can be traced from China, India, Spain, and the United States.

e. How did these countries affect our ways of living?

4. Construction and Creative activities

a. Dressing little dolls to trace the evolution of the Filipino costume.

b. Dramatizing informally some of the old and new customs.

c. Collecting pictures to show traces of influence of the different countries on our ways of

d. Making scrapbooks on each of these cus-

living. toms: Courtship, Marriage, Burial and Health.

D. Culminating Activity

1. Exhibits of things made by the children.
2. A movie based on the unit (pictures for the film to be drawn by children and short commentaries written by them, too, for each picture). The show box will be used.

E. Evaluation

1. Test on whole unit.
2. Children should by the time the unit is finished show signs of:
 - a. appreciation for the culture of the early Filipinos.
 - b. interest in his own report or piece of work and that of his co-members of the group.
 - c. further developments of the habit of cooperation and willingness to work; starting work on time; having a clean piece of work; and of listening with understanding.

IV. A. References for Teachers and Pupils

1. Agorilla, Amado. *Stories of Our Country*. Manila: Manlapaz Publishing Co., c 1951
2. Alip, Eufonio. *Philippine History (Political Social, Economic)*. Manila: Alip and Brion Publications, Inc., c 1940
3. Benitez, Conrado. *Philippine History In Stories*.
4. Beyer, H. Otley. *The Philippine Saga*. Manila; Evening News Publications, c 1947
5. Fernandez, Leandro. *A Brief History of the Philippines*. Boston: Ginn and Company, c 1917
6. Galang, Zoilo M. *Encyclopedia of the Philip-*

ines. Volume X. Manila: P. Vera and Sons Co., c 1936

B. Additional Materials

Magazines and newspapers for pictorial collections: Sunday Times, Women's Magazine, Evening News, Daily Mirror, Pilipino Komiks, Tagalog Klasiks, Liwayway.

(Story as simplified by the writer)

Nearly 250,000 years ago, to be exact, in the last glacial period, the waters of the ocean surrounding the Philippines dropped at least 150 feet below present levels. Vast, wide bodies of land formerly under water were exposed. These bodies of land connected our islands with the mainland of Southeast Asia. Even as far back to that time, men were always looking for better life. They were not contented in staying in the place where they lived. So when these vast bodies of land rose, these men used them as bridges to go from the mainland of Southeast Asia to the Philippines. These land bridges later became known as the "highway of history." (The shaded areas shown on the map were dry land in that period of man's first migration.)

The first wave of immigrants was followed by another wave who came about 25,000 to 30,000 years ago. Gradually, as time went on, the ice melted over the world. Little by little the land bridges were submerged and water was all around the Philippines again but not until Restless Man had found his way to our country. Then about 5,000 to 6,000 years ago, a third wave of immigrants came to the Philippines from the North. The land bridges were already water, but these brave people sailed through the great seas to reach our shores.

Very much, much later, people from neighboring and faraway countries like China, India, Spain, and the United States came to our country either to visit, to trade, or make their homes.

Teaching Unit

Our Struggle for Independence, Grade VI

By William A. Faculo

UNIT: The Philippine Struggle for Independence

PROBLEM: How did the Filipinos eventually gain their independence?

I. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

A. Knowledge and Understanding

1. To know that even the early Filipinos desired to be free.
2. To understand the general causes of the different revolts in the Philippines during the Spanish time.
3. To understand why the revolts failed.
4. To know what is nationalism.

5. To understand what events led in the development of Philippine nationalism.
6. To understand why the Katipunan was organized.
7. To know the leaders of the Katipunan.
8. To know the significance of the "Cry of Balintawak."
9. To know the causes of the Philippine Revolution.
10. To understand the causes of the Philippine-American War.
11. To understand the American policy with regards to the grant of Philippine independence.
12. To understand why the Filipinos fought side by side with American against Japan during the second world war.
13. To understand the kind of independence granted to the Philippines by Japan.
14. To realize that the Philippines gained her independence from America on July 4, 1946.
15. To know how we may help preserve our independence.

B. Attitudes and Appreciations

1. To appreciate the gallantry and work of those who died for the sake of Filipino freedom.
2. To develop nationalistic attitude.
3. To appreciate the help of Spain in helping indirectly to unify the Filipinos.
4. To appreciate the help given by America in preparing the Filipinos to be independent.

C. Habits and Skills

1. To develop: —
 - a. The ability to follow instructions.
 - b. The ability to research.
 - c. The ability to interview.
 - d. The ability to outline.
 - e. The habits of working cooperatively.
 - f. The habit of planning before executing.

II. POSSIBLE APPROACH

A. Initiation of the Unit

1. Field trips to —
 - a. Nearby local battlefields
 - b. Army cemetery
 - c. Nearby army camps
 - d. Other historical places.
2. Structuring the room
 - a. Posting on the bulletin board pictures and clippings related to the development of the unit.

B. Possible Problems

1. What is meant by independence?
2. Why did Lapulapu kill Magellan?
3. What were the causes of the different revolts?
4. Why did the different revolts fail?

5. What is meant by Nationalism?
6. What events brought about Philippine nationalism?
7. Why was the Katipunan organized?
8. What steps were taken by the United States in preparing the Filipinos to be independent?
9. Why was the independence granted by Japan not a sincere one.
10. When was the Philippine granted independence by United States?

III. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

A. Gather data activities

1. Taking notes from lectures and observations.
2. Reading from resource materials —
 - a. Philippine History
 - b. Philippine Government
 - c. Magazines and news papers, etc.
3. Interviewing resource persons —
 - a. The Provincial Secretary
 - b. The Justice of the peace.
 - c. World War II veterans
 - d. Other resource persons.
4. Field trips to —
 - a. The Rizal Monument
 - b. Army Camps
 - c. National Library
5. Doing research work on the development of the unit.
6. Making studies on the problems of national unity and other problems affecting our Independence.
7. Inviting resource persons and conducting open forums in school.
8. Listening to reports:
 - a. On fields trips made
 - b. On interviews made.
 - c. On researches made.

B. Construction and Collection Activities

1. Making projects in connection with the unit:
 - a. movie rolls
 - b. picture albums of national heroes and local heroes.
 - c. Making scrap books.

C. Expressional Activities

1. Reciting poems and rhymes on nationalism
2. Singing national songs and hymns.
3. Writing simple stories about
 - a. Battle of Mactan
 - b. The Fall of Bataan
 - c. What independence means to me
 - d. Why the early Filipino revolts failed.
4. Making oral and written reports based on —
 - a. research
 - b. Field trips

- c. Interviews
- d. Observations made
- 5. Writing letters to:
 - a. resource persons
 - b. parents and friends.
- 6. Writing compositions
- 7. Reading stories about the lives of our great national heroes.

V. Expected Outcome in terms of school subjects.

A. Social Studies

- 1. Ability to make comparative study on the grants of independence.
- 2. Knowledge of national heroes and their achievements.
- 3. Habits of sharing with others what one has.
- 4. Appreciation of character traits of national heroes.
- 5. Nationalistic attitude
- 6. Knowing the different resources in the community.

B. Language Arts

- 1. Increase on one's vocabulary.
- 2. Ability to interview.
- 3. Ability to outline.
- 4. Ability to research.
- 5. Ability to take notes.
- 6. Ability to express one's ideas.

C. Arithmetic

- 1. Ability to estimate and compute.
- 2. Ability to solve problems related to the unit.

D. Music

- 1. Ability to sing new and old national hymns and songs.
- 2. Ability to interpret moods.
- 3. Ability to compose simple rhymes and songs.
- 4. Appreciation of Filipino and foreign national songs.

E. Health and Science

- 1. Causes of Epidemics in Capas concentration camp.
- 2. Prevention of diseases such as:
 - a. Beriberi
 - b. Dysentery
 - c. Typhoid
 - d. Malaria

VI. Bibliography

- 1. Benitez, Conrado — Philippine History
- 2. Tolentino, M. Arturo — Philippine Government
- 4. Journal of Education — July Issue
- 5. Manila Times — July 4 issue
- 6. Philippines Free Press — July and December issues

Long Range Plan in Arithmetic Grade V

By Pedro P. Hernandez

UNIT: FOOD PRODUCTION

Introduction: In the past, Arithmetic has been taught in isolation with other subjects in the curriculum. The teachers become the slaves of textbooks and courses of study. At present, there is a felt need to arouse keener interest among the children in arithmetic lessons. It should provide the learners with rich variety of experiences so that the pupils could apply the quantitative procedures effectively in social and economic situations in life outside the school. In this connection functional unit based on community activities should be well thought-out. It is hoped that the following unit will in some way some how help in making arithmetic lessons interesting and meaningful to children.

I. OBJECTIVES:

A. General

- 1. To develop in children the basic skills which will need in meeting life situations and solving problems involving number facts and processes.
- 2. To develop in children familiarity with the concept of number and its function in civilized society.
- 3. To develop in children the character traits which the study of the unit engenders.
- 4. To be able to read and listen understandingly, talk and write intelligently, and think and act wisely in solving the problems of daily life.
- 5. To be efficient in earning an honest living and

thereby contribute through productive labor and wise use and conservation of the Nation's resources to the economic well-being of the Philippines.

6. To carry healthful living in a wholesome environment so as to be physically strong and mentally fit to meet the requirements of a useful life.

B. Specific

1. To acquire a high degree of accuracy in the fundamental operations involving integers.

2. To be able to understand and use correctly arithmetical terms met in food production.

3. To be able to construct and read bar graphs illustrating food production.

4. To be able to know the linear measures and its relation to each other.

5. To be able to know the different plane figures.

6. To be able to find the perimeter and area of surfaces.

7. To secure a working knowledge and thorough understanding of the measures of time.

8. To be able to know the different arithmetical terms involving fractions.

9. To be able to know and understand the kinds of fractions.

10. To know the proper method of changing common fraction to its lowest terms, and vice versa.

11. To know how to change mixed number to improper fraction and vice versa.

12. To gain skill in determining Least Common Denominator before teaching the fundamental processes involving fraction.

13. To be able to add, subtract and multiply fractions with accuracy and speed.

14. To understand further and be able to apply the logical steps in solving problems of daily life.

15. To be able to solve two-or three-step problems in food production involving integers and fractions.

II. SUGGESTED CONTENTS:

1. Reading Bar Graphs
2. Finding the Perimeter
3. Exercises in Column Addition
4. Plane Figures
5. Linear Measures
6. Fractions
7. Measuring Time
8. Terms in Fraction
9. Exercises in Adding Large Number
10. Reduction of Fractions
11. The Least Common Denominator
12. Adding Similar Fractions
13. Miscellaneous Problems in Food Production
14. Exercises in Subtraction
15. More Practices in Interpreting Problems
16. Adding Mixed Numbers
17. Practice in Multiplying

18. Adding Unlike Fractions
19. Short Method in Multiplication & Division
20. Exercises in Addition of Fractions
21. Subtracting Fractions
22. Practice in Short Division
23. Miscellaneous Problems About Poultry
24. Multiplying Fractions
25. Finding Areas
26. Problems in Areas of Plane Figures

III. Suggested Activities:

A. Readiness

1. Discussion to realize the importance of the unit and to create a desire for food production projects.

2. Field trips to food production projects found in the locality, school and home garden, poultry house, piggery, etc.

3. Presentation of the arithmetical terms that will be met in the study of the unit.

B. Developmental

1. Questions to be presented by the teacher

a. Concerning graphs, plane figures, standard units of measure, and area and perimeter of surfaces.

1. What is a graph?

2. What are the kinds of graphs?

3. What should be remembered in constructing a bar graph?

4. What are the different plane figures?

5. What are the linear measures?

6. How can we change a higher unit to a lower unit of measures and vice-versa?

7. How can we find the area of surfaces?

8. How can we find the perimeter of surfaces?

9. What are the measures of time and its relation to each other?

10. How can we find the difference between two dates?

b. Concerning fraction:

1. What is a fraction?

2. What are the terms of a fraction?

3. What are the kinds of fraction? Identify each.

4. What should be remembered in changing the form of a fraction?

5. What should be remembered in making a good problem?

2. Discussion, interpretation, and illustration of knowledge gained and principles acquired!

C. Mastery

1. Constructing bar graphs concerning food production.

2. Measuring and finding the perimeter and area of garden plots, poultry house site, orchard, home garden, etc.

3. Mastery in the four fundamental operations with integers.

4. Performing exercises involving fraction.

5. Solving and making problems regarding food production.

D. Maintenance

1. Oral and written test of the pupils knowledge about the unit.

2. Finding out from the results, the weaknesses encountered by the pupils in the performance of the test.

3. Further development of the items and principles pupils have difficulty with.

E. Integration

1. Actual measurement of the garden plots, school garden site, orchard, etc.

2. Solving problems concerning the raising and selling of products raised from the different food production projects found in the locality.

3. Observing and finding out the length of time needed in raising certain crops.

F. Evaluation:

1. Observation of proper behavior:

- a. honesty of doing their own work
- b. neatness of their work
- c. initiative in performing their work

2. Testing on:

- a. Arithmetical terms and symbols learned in the study of the unit.
- b. fundamental operations.
- c. problem solving concerning food production.

IV. Expected Outcomes in terms of:

A. Attitudes and Appreciations

1. Appreciation of:

- a. the value of food production.
- b. the works of junior citizens in promoting food production.

2. Attitude:

- a. willingness to perform manual labor.
- b. promptness and thoroughness in the performance of assigned task.

B. Knowledge and Information:

1. Knowledge of:

- a. the economic importance of food production.
- b. the essential information regarding the size of the site of poultry, piggery, and crop raising.
- c. the proper procedure in making food production projects.
- d. chemical solution to be used for plant pest.

2. Information of:

- a. the different ways of getting rid of plant pests and animal diseases.
- b. the planting calendar.
- c. the different units of measure—linear measure and measure of time.

C. Abilities, Habits, and Skills

1. Abilities to:

- a. construct, read and interpret bar graph.
- b. measure surfaces.
- c. in the manipulation of the fundamental processes of a fraction.
- d. interpret and solve problems regarding food production.
- e. make original problems involving daily processes that are used at home, in the school, in the market, etc.

2. Habits of:

- a. acquiring at all times valuable and up-to-date information.
- b. accuracy, speed, neatness and cleanliness of their daily work.

3. Skills in:

- a. manipulation of the fundamental processes involving integers.
- b. the construction of vegetable garden and poultry house.

V. References:

1. Philippine Life Arithmetic—Grade V
2. Course of Study in Arithmetic for the Intermediate Grades.
3. Stone Winkle—Intermediate Arithmetic Grade V
4. Baguio Curriculum — 1956
5. Polley and Miller Intermediate Geography



Visual Hearing

By Francisco C. Tan

Visual Hearing or Lip-Reading is one of the most important special subjects that provides the most important means by which the deaf children can intercommunicate with the social world. The sense of hearing is closely associated with human relations and lack of it presents the greatest difficulty in social adjustments. So the deaf children should seek compensation through other channels of reception—"VISUAL CHANNELS." Instead of hearing speech, he must read, not only written, but oral speech. The reading of oral speech involves the ability to derive meaning from the movements of the lips and facial expressions of the speaker. Such an ability is an art and very difficult to master. It needs special guidance and technical training. It calls for the full harmonious coordination of the physical, mental, personal, and social powers of the learner.

Lip reading or speech reading or visual hearing is defined by Bulwer as a subtle art which enables an individual with observant eyes to hear what any man says by the movements of his lips. Porter, a successful educator of deaf children, employing the "Oral Method," (a modern method of demutizing the deaf-mutes) defined lip reading as "watching the mouth of a person who is speaking and understanding the thought so conveyed." He emphasized the understanding of the thought and not the seeing of sounds, nor seeing the words.

Similarly, Nitchie, another famous educator of the deaf, defined lip reading as the art of understanding spoken language through the observation of the speaker's lips and facial expressions.

From the aforementioned definitions, it is apparent that lip reading is a psycho-physical process which involves the coordinated functioning of the eyes and the mind in order to get a good comprehension of the speaker's speech.

Before the commencement of instruction in any field of education, a cooperative and sympathetic

* "Visual Hearing" means comprehending speech through the visual receptors — the eyes, which take the place of hearing among the deaf individuals.

relationship between the pupil and the teacher is imperative. This is much more needed in dealing with children with aural infirmity or deficiency for these children are more emotionally sensitive and easily discouraged. Brunshwig in her extensive research of the personality and emotionality of the deaf arrived at these conclusions:

"The deaf are inclined to have an unstable emotional development due to two main causes. First, many of our finer emotions are developed through hearing, which is affected by the modulation of the human voice, by music, and by the melodies of nature. Second, authorities on mental hygiene are agreed that emotional upsets and confusions are caused by a child's attempting to learn two languages at the same time, attempting to think and express himself in two distinct ways. It is more trying when a child has no language with which to express his emotions as in the case with deaf children before they come to school."

The next step is optical sensory training which is a preparatory step toward lip reading, from which attention, interest, memory, concentration, and critical observation are developed. Listed are some suggested ways of training sight:

1. Sight may be trained through motion.
 - a. The children make movements in unison, imitating and following the teacher.
 - b. The children practice gymnastics of hands, arms, fingers, lips, tongue, etc.
2. Sight may be trained through color.
 - a. The children match colored balls, blocks, ribbons, paper, etc.
 - b. The children match colored objects with the colors in the charts; or they match colored squares, circles, rectangles, triangles, etc.
3. Sight may be trained through form.
 - a. Children recognize geometric forms solids.
 - b. They match geometric tablets.

- c. They reconstruct outlines on the slate or with sticks.
 - d. They trace forms of subjects, geometric outlines on the slate or on papers.
4. Sight may be trained through number. The child can learn to recognize different numbers of similar objects, marks on the slate, etc.: common objects in the locality may be used. The selection depends upon the resourcefulness and ingenuity of the teacher.

As soon as the children are able to match different forms and different colors, charts which contain illustrations of animals, and other familiar objects may be used. All charts should be hung where everybody can see them. Duplicate pictures should be provided on flash cards. From these materials, a matching game can be given. After giving a simple direction of the game, show a card to the class. Give a card to a child, ask him to match it (picture) with one on the chart. If the child fails, ask another child until everybody in the class understands the game very well. It is suggested that those who fail should be given one or more times to learn the game.

Lip reading should start on the very first day of school and carried on at all times. This special pedagogy should permeate all school activities. All oral communications should be done in speech and lip reading though how meager and clumsy these may be. Teachers, parents, administrators, and all those who come in contact with the child should never, never sign to the young growing deaf child because once sign language is learned, it is very hard to teach him to speak for the simple reason that sign language is very easy to learn. To enhance the learning of speech and lip reading, every deaf child should be treated as a individual learner and should be given ample opportunities to participate in all activities in the school and in the homes. All communications with the deaf should be expressed in complete and natural conversations, for one of our primary aims in educating them is to teach them to speak and lip read normal speech. Pupils should be called by their own names — by the teachers, parents, classmates, etc.

The first formal lesson in lip reading may start with action words as young children are energetic and love to play. These are some suggested action commands:

Bow.	Open the box.	Comb your hair.
Cry.	Clap your hands.	Pull the chair.
Dance.	Sit down.	Pull the table.
Yawn.	Stand up.	Pull your hair.
Frown.	Fall.	Nave your hand.
Laugh.	Cough.	Wave a flag.
March.	Sneeze.	Wash your face.
Open the door.	Run.	Wash your hands.
Shut the door.	Hop.	ash your feet.
Shut your eyes.	Roll the ball.	Fold your hands.

Spin a top. Brush your teeth. Brush your hair.
 Take off your shoes. Put on your shoes. Put on your socks.
 Go the window. Go to the door. Go to the table.

Then, the teacher should start with two objects which are familiar to the children, easy to recognize, and easy to differentiate on the lips such as: "top" and "basket." The first word, "top," has an initial letter that is revealed by the tongue and a final letter that is revealed by the lips, and its general configuration is different from the second word, for it is much shorter. The second word, "basket," has an initial letter that is revealed by the lips and a final letter that is revealed by the tongue. These contrasting features are excellent guide posts in lip reading for the deaf beginners.

Each child progresses in accordance with his ability and needs. Below are some common nouns which may be added to the lip reading vocabulary of children from time to time:

face	ball	dog	table	mother	orange
mouth	top	cat	chair	father	corn
teeth	table	fish	paper	sister	cake
tongue	shoe	cow	pencil	brother	soap
lips	knife	goat	book	boy	glass
ears	fork	duck	eraser	girl	water
eyes	spoon	horse	ruler	teacher	toothbrush
head	cup	bird	blackboard	rice	milk
hair	bag	carabao	desk	papaya	tree
nose	comb	hen	chalk	coconut	comb
hands	plate	rooster	chalk-ledge	mango	mirror
feet	glass	plg	crayons	lanzones	ice-cream

(Other nouns should be added from time to time upon the needs of each child in the class.)

Upon mastery of the different nouns given above, these should be incorporated into simple commands or used when ever feasible in other subjects or in any social activity in the school and at home. To illustrate this, for example, the nouns learned in concept and lip reading are: ball, top, and fish. Commands like these may be given:

Give me a ball.	Show me a ball.
Give me a top.	Throw a ball.
Give me a fish.	Roll a ball.
Show me a ball.	Spin a top.
Show me a top.	Etc.

As soon as the children can lip read the commands with ease and facility, the teacher should write these commands on the blackboard and print them on flash cards, from which incidental reading from printed forms may begin. In presenting the written commands on the blackboard, the teacher should first read each sentence with correct phrasing, inflection, and pronunciation. It is best to do it this way in spite of the obvious fact that the deaf pupils cannot hear the speaker, because a correct and natural speech carries and conveys subtle elements of naturalness and spontaneity of expression. The true movements of the organs of phonation together with the expression of the face of the speaker help give vital clues to synthe-

is: understanding a unit of thought observed in speech through contextual process and not by part or parts or by word or by words. The teacher should be very careful not to exaggerate the movements of the lips, the tongue, etc., because by doing so the objective of lip reading is defeated. Lip reading should be learned in a natural setting and anything unnatural in our everyday speech such as speaking very slowly for fear that the deaf child may not understand us or speaking too fast or speaking while we face the blackboard are pitfalls in teaching lip reading.

It is through imitation and proper conditioning of sight that the beginning lip reader learns to recognize and differentiate one command or statement from another on the lips of the speaker or as written on the blackboard and flash cards.

All the phrases and sentences taken up in lip reading should always be followed in oral and silent reading drills and exercises. These should be written on the blackboard and printed on the flash cards for speech practice and incidental reading. There are no hard and fast rules in teaching lip reading; neither is there a single method because there are so many variable factors that are intricately involved in this process.

There are some important principles to observe in teaching the art of lip reading for young beginners. They are:

1. Good lighting is important. The teacher should sit in a good light, with the light on the teacher's face and not in the eyes of the children. At the same time, the room itself should be well lighted. Such precaution should be taken, for lip reading is twice as difficult in a poor light.

2. The teacher or whoever is the speaker should face the deaf children, because their only means of understanding speech is by watching the various movements of the organs of phonation of the speaker and if the speaker faces the opposite direction, it is impossible for the deaf individuals to comprehend him.

3. Care should be taken that movements of the head, hands, or eyes of the teacher, do not indicate what the answer should be.

4. There should be no mouth exaggeration or the like; speech should always be as natural as possible; to do otherwise, defeats the purpose of teaching lip reading. The deaf children are being trained to live in a normal speaking world wherein they are supposed to read lips, lips in their natural speaking movements and shapes, and not labored or exaggerated to convey thoughts and meanings. If the deaf children learn their lip reading lessons in an unnatural manner, they will find difficulty in understanding common everyday conversation, a major objective in teaching lip reading.

5. For beginning lessons, objects and actions which appeal to the interests of the children and which are in the realm of their experience, should be selected.

6. Also, words that are easily seen on the lips should be selected.

7. When two or more words are presented together, they should be words of marked contrast to each other in their formation, for example:

ball automobile fish apple etc.

8. All words should be spoken with expression and meaning.

9. Care should be taken that the class does not form the habit of requiring repetition, but should be trained to expect to understand what is spoken the first time.

10. Natural speech should be emphasized with voice and using words phrased or grouped in their natural order

11. All words learned should be used in sentences within the experience and comprehension of each particular child in the classroom.

12. Lip reading principles are not only observed during class hours in lip reading but in all subjects and in the homes and in the community where they live. Lip reading as a special art of comprehending spoken language by observing the lips and the facial expression of the speaker, finds its usefulness and importance only when the deaf child gains experience through it, learns through it, laughs and feels through it, and gain further happiness and adjustment through it.



Physical Education in the Elem. Grades

by Pedro T. Magadia

ONE of the most neglected subjects in the curriculum is Physical Education. In many schools it is placed as the last subject in the classroom program and in DPC Form 138. At the start of the school year, the pupils are assigned in the school ground improvement and this is often done during Physical Education period. Some portion of this time is used in cleaning the rooms. During inclement weather the pupils are required to review or to finish the next day's assignment instead of being provided with indoor activities intended for Physical Education.

This article is prepared so that teachers in both public and private schools will not be at a loss in the selection of subject matter and plans in the teaching of Physical Education in the Elementary Grades. There should be a good selection of different types of activities so that they may be distributed throughout the week, the month, and the year. In this way the pupils will not be tired of only one, two, or three activities repeated for a long period of time.

SUGGESTIONS

1. If the activities included in the program can not be carried out due to lack of equipment, similar activities may be substituted for them.

2. To increase proficiency and to keep interests in stunts undertaken, the same should be taken with variations.

3. Rhythmics should include leg, arm, and trunk movements in standing, kneeling, and sitting positions, and progress with varied slow and fast movements. Free hand, bakya, coconut shells, bamboo castanets, bells, and stick rhythmics may be given in Grades V and VI.

4. Teaching aids, such as hoops, bean bags, sticks, wands, bao, bakya, etc. may be prepared in the shop or by the pupils with the help of the parents.

5. In order to provide for continuity and mastery of activities, review lesson or lessons after the warming up exercises of marching and performing fancy steps, and practicing certain skills or rhythmics.

6. On rainy days classes in Physical Education should be given inside the classrooms, using indoor activities.

7. Pupils who are members of the school band, or those assigned as monitors, servers at the lunch counters, and gardeners are not excused from their Physical Education classes.

8. School ground improvement or gardening cannot be a substitute for Physical Education.

9. Teachers must wear an appropriate costume and low rubber or low-heeled shoes as a requirement in the Physical Education classes.

10. Teachers should provide themselves with whistles.

11. On free-play period the children choose their own activities. It is a period devoted to various forms of activities chosen by the pupils according to their desires, aptitudes, and interests.

12. Assign group leaders as often as possible. Leadership and followership should be maintained.

13. Provide activities to develop the ability to create simple rhythmic movements and patterns.

14. The Physical Education class should start with warming up activities and end with quieting activities.

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES

I. M i m e t i c s

- A. Animal Imitation
- B. Story Plays
- C. Industrial Imitation
- D. Athletic and Game Imitation

II. Rhythms and Dances

- A. Fundamental Rhythms
- B. Singing Games
- C. Folk Dancing
- D. Athletic or Gymnastic Dancing
- E. Character Dancing
- F. Natural Dancing
- G. Rhythmics (bao, bells, bakya, sticks)
- H. Rope Skipping
- I. Ball Bouncing

- III. Games
 - A. Group Games
 - B. Relay Games
 - C. Team Games
- IV. Fundamentals
 - A. Free hand exercises
 - B. Wand and Flag exercises
- V. Athletics
 - A. Running
 - B. Jumping
 - C. Throwing or Kicking
 - D. Climbing
- VI. Stunts, Tumbling, etc.
 - A. Stunts (individual)
 - B. Stunts (couple)
 - C. Tumbling
 - D. Pyramid Building
- VII. Marching (Gymnastics)
 - A. Marching fundamentals
 - B. Fancy steps
 - C. Figure marching
 - D. Simple marching tactics
- VIII. Swimming (if there are facilities)
- IX. Projects
 - A. Posture week drive
 - B. Intramural meets
 - C. Play days
 - D. Student Leaders' club
 - E. Hiking and Visits to Historical places

SAMPLE OF DAILY LESSON PLANS
Primary (Boys & Girls)

- I. Objectives
 - A. To promote good posture, poise, gracefulness, and control.
 - B. To develop ease, erectness, and grace in carriage and in all bodily movements.
 - C. To develop organic power through repeated participation in a variety of games.
- II. Activities
 - A. Marching
 - 1. Forward marching
 - 2. Single spiral marching (walking steps)
 - B. Rhythmic Activities
 - 1. Pointing with the feet (forward, backward, sideward)
 - 2. Change step
 - C. Games
 - 1. Baka-Bakahan
 - 2. Puss in a Circle
- III. Outcomes
 - A. Natural walking posture
 - B. Natural and graceful movements
 - C. Alertness

Intermediate (Boys)

- I. Objectives
 - A. To develop the ability to move from one place to another with the greatest degree of safety and speed.
 - B. To develop coordination of mind and muscle.
 - C. To express in games in the fundamental instinctive tendencies, such as, throwing, catching and running.
- II. Activities
 - A. Gymnastic marching
 - 1. Forward marching
 - 2. Backward marching
 - 3. Opening and Closing ranks
 - B. Stunts
 - 1. Head stand
 - 2. Monkey walk
 - 3. Camel walk
 - C. Games
 - 1. Newcomb
- III. Outcomes
 - A. Knowledge of marching forward, backward, and opening and closing ranks.
 - B. Knowledge of doing stunts with correct timing and coordination.
 - C. Ability in running, catching, and throwing a ball.

Intermediate (Girls)

- I. Objectives
 - A. To learn some exercises that can be of use throughout life as conditioning or "keeping fit" exercises.
 - B. To teach the steps necessary in a dance.
 - C. To develop coordination by continuous repetition of the movements in a game.
- II. Activities
 - A. Free hand exercises
 - B. Dance steps
 - 1. Close step
 - 2. Change step
 - 3. Slide step
 - C. Games
 - 1. Blackboard relay
 - 2. Over-Under relay
- III. Outcomes
 - A. Knowledge of exercises that are good for the development of mind and body.
 - B. Knowledge of some dance steps
 - C. Coordination
- References:
 - 1. Program of Activities in Physical Education in the Elementary Grades.
 - 2. Outline of Conduct and Practice of Group Games.

The Relationship of Skills in Reading and in Spelling*

By W. Kottmeyer¹

ALL teachers realize that reading skills and spelling skills are related. Most good readers are good spellers and most good spellers are good readers. So, if we keep in mind how people learn to read words, we can better understand how they learn to spell words. If we see the relationships between reading words and spelling words, we can build spelling skill when we teach reading and we can build and strengthen reading skills when we teach spelling.

'Look-and-say' method

If a teacher shows a non-reading child a word and tells him what it is, he may remember it and be able to say it whenever he sees it again. He does not, in this case, need to know the names or the sounds of the letters. If he sees another word which looks much like the one the teacher showed him, he may mistake it for the one he knows. He has learned, rather uncertainly, to recognize a word by its shape, or pattern, or configuration. We say the teacher has taught him by a look-and-say method.

Now we know that this is a useful method to introduce children to the skills of reading. We know, too, that some children seem to learn very well in this way. These children seem, with little instruction, to look carefully, not only at the total word configuration, but at the word parts. They note likenesses and differences in word forms. They seem to be able to visualize or to form clear images of some words. Because of these abilities they can often write many of the words they have learned to read. Later, when words become longer and look much like other words, such children may often misspell words which they can read easily. So, although the common look-and-

say method of teaching word-recognition in reading is useful, and although it carries over into spelling when a child's writing needs are limited to relatively few words of simple patterns, nobody can long depend entirely upon this word recognition skill to serve his spelling needs.

Conversely, when children have to learn to spell certain words and do so by memorizing the sequence of the letters, they do not materially strengthen their word recognition skills in reading. Obviously, they can already recognize many more words than they can spell. Their early spelling experiences deal with words which have long ceased to be recognition problems to them. If they do not, they have no business trying to spell them.

The use of context is also a useful and familiar device for unlocking some words in reading but has no direct relationship with spelling.

Sound blending and structural analysis

The two other groups of word recognition skills taught in reading are the sound blending techniques and the syllabication, or structural analysis skills. Sound blending means any system of associating a visual symbol, such as a letter or combination of letters, with a sound.

There is a little point here to review the various arguments about whether we shall teach children phonics. If phonics means a system of associating visual symbols with sound, the position is arbitrarily taken here that no human being can become competently literate in the English language unless he can use such a body of skills. At any rate, every basal reading series which is currently used in this country includes suggestions for the teaching of sound blending skills in reading. How are the sound blending skills as taught in reading related to the spelling skills?

When a child sees a word which he does not recognize by its total configuration or which he cannot guess precisely from the context, he may do several things. He may, if he knows consonant sounds, think the consonant sound to get suggestion as to what the word might be. He may combine context clue with beginning consonant sound and guess what the word is. He may note that the word is like one he knows except for the beginning or final consonant and substitute the consonant sound he sees. Or he may — audibly or silently — blend the sound values of the visual symbols individually and approximate a pronunciation of the word.

Now it is obvious that these skills will be useful to him in spelling as well as in reading. When he comes to an unfamiliar word in reading, the visual symbols — the letters — are before his eyes and he

¹ Dr. Kottmeyer, formerly director of the remedial reading clinic in St. Louis, Missouri Schools, is now assistant superintendent of schools. Books by this author are published by the Webster Publishing Company of St. Louis and are handled in Canada by Longmans, Green & Company, Toronto.

* Reprinted from *The ATA Magazine*, June 1957, Volume 37: Number 10; (Alberta Teachers Association. Publication and editorial office. Barnett House, 9929-103 Street, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada).

needs to supply the sound — or 'think' the sounds. When he needs to spell a word the auditory symbols — the sounds — are known, and he needs to supply the visual symbols — the letters.

Although all the sound blending skills in reading will help the child in spelling, some will be more useful than others. A knowledge of beginning and final consonant sounds, for example, will enable a child to begin or to end a word correctly when he spells it. Thus when teachers teach children to spell, they will often ask the child to say and listen to the beginning and ending sounds of the word. We can readily see, then, that the commonly used word recognition device of substituting a beginning or final consonant will help build spelling power.

But when we spell, we need more than the beginning and final consonant sounds. We know that we can utter no syllable without a vowel sound. Hence, to get effective power in spelling a child needs to know the vowel sounds. As a matter of fact, he needs them in reading also to develop his word recognition skills to a point of real usefulness. We must remember too that when we refer to sounds we mean the short vowel sounds, the long vowel sounds, the "a" followed by "r" or "ll," the au-aw, oi-oy, ow-ou, and other combinations.

Auditory-visual relationships important

The need for accurate and precise association between visual forms and sounds is, of course, more pressing in spelling than in reading. In recognizing words in reading we can use configuration and context clues and use them in combination with more rudimentary sound blending skills. In spelling these devices or combinations do not apply. In reading we can approximate the pronunciation of a word and guess the word if we come close enough. In spelling, an approximation is not enough. If we err but once we are wrong. Therefore, if children are taught in spelling to listen for the sound elements in words and if they are taught the common visual representations which stand for those sounds, they develop a useful power beyond visual memory to guide their spelling. If they learn these auditory-visual relationships in spelling, where the need for precision is greater, their application in reading is a relatively simple reversal of the process. As a matter of fact, word recognition skills can be taught more appropriately and effectively during spelling instruction than during reading activity. In studying spelling, minute scrutiny of word parts is desirable; in reading we are after meaning — not word analysis.

Look at words discriminately

At this point the objection is commonly made that, as many English words are not phonetic, the learning

of auditory-visual relationships is not only useless, but is confusing and leads to spelling errors. It should, however, be obvious that deviations from regular phonetic patterns do not limit the usefulness of the device. Thus when a child scrutinizes a word he wishes to learn to spell, he may observe that it is spelled phonetically — that is, it is spelled as he expects it to be spelled. He notes this fact and tries to remember to spell it phonetically when the need arises. If, on the other hand, the word deviates from regular phonetic pattern — that is, it is not spelled as he expects it to be spelled, he notes the nature of the deviation. In other words, he looks discriminately at the word. Looking at a word discriminately means that we observe agreement with or deviation from our body of phonetic generalizations.

Thus as children encounter unfamiliar word in reading and as they apply sound blending techniques competently to unlock them, they are obliged to look at the words discriminately. And that is what we really mean when we say we study spelling — to look discriminately. When a child has been taught the basic body of auditory-visual relationships he quite naturally learns to spell most words which are word recognition problems for him in reading. If teachers teach effective word recognition skills beyond the level of the beginning and final consonant substitution technique, they are tooling them with the body of generalizations which are indispensable to the discriminating scrutiny which is the basis of spelling power. Conversely, when children learn to analyze words they need to spell, they strengthen and refine their word perception skills for reading.

The mastery of the structural analysis skills in reading — recognizing compounds, seeing common prefixes and suffixes as units, detecting root words, dividing words into syllables — clearly contributes to the growth of the analytical skill which is required in learning to spell multisyllabic words for spelling purposes when, again, we observe agreement with or deviation from expected multisyllabic patterns.

Similar skill clusters

If these observations are valid, we may explore more thoroughly the possibilities of using the teaching time we have for spelling to teach the sound blending and structural analysis skills for reading. There is still some confusion as to just when and how we shall teach word perception skills during the typical reading period. If we teach children to look discriminately at words, as here defined, they will strengthen spelling skills whenever they look at print symbols for any purpose. At any rate, there is some evidence to show that we can give children greater competence in both spelling and reading when we make the relationships of these similar skill clusters more apparent.

Movies in our Classrooms

By Cosme S. Quinto

ABOUT a century after Magellan came to the Philippines, Comenius published a volume called *Orbis Pictus* which incidentally became the first specimen of an illustrated printed book. Heretofore manuscripts were decorated with artistic designs mainly for ornamental purposes. But much later *Orbis Pictus* became associated with audio-visual education by modern educational writers and philosophers.

The earliest forms of audio-visual materials in education were said to be the tools and implements of the primitive man, and these were naturally the forerunners of modern audio-visual devices. Some archeologists have imagined that the cavemen played hand-shadow silhouettes on the walls of his cave so that filmstrips and slides must have existed many thousands of years ago in their crudest forms.

The most recent development of audio-visual education in the Philippines, however, is the use of motion pictures as a means of teaching children in the classrooms. The efficacy of learning by watching films is so apparent that today many schools in the country are equipped with projectors and movie screens. At least some people have started looking forward to a near future when going to school and going to the movies are the same thing. According to not a few teachers, teaching a lesson by means of films is interesting to children because of its being a novelty among other instructional media.

Thomas Alva Edison was the pioneer in using movies as a device in audio-visual education, since he was the inventor of the movie camera that now produces many educational films. It is apparent that Edison was aware of the information that more sensory nerve fibers come to the brain from the eyes than from any other receptor when he made known that his invention was a mass-educational device. Edison's educational insight is further manifested by his claim that of all the five human senses sight is the most versatile in acquiring information from the world about us.

The dream of a tool for "painless education" in the form of motion pictures is, however, still remote from realization. Besides, psychologists scorn the idea of minimizing efforts in learning because researches have shown that the brighter the learner is, and the harder he is made to work, the better he learns—from books just as from movies. Actually, learning from motion pictures is not a passive experience and

it is evident that physical and mental exertion takes place when watching films; otherwise such a learning situation is a veritable vacuum.

One reason why learning from the movies is preferred by many educators is the fact that sight and sound stimuli create the response in the individual, making the impression more defined by the dual reaction of his eyes and ears. This learning process is an example of the principle of "multi-sensory activity" which advocates the use of more than one of the five senses to make learning more permanent. It follows that a blind man is very much more difficult to teach, limiting learning through audio-visual factors alone.

Literature is one of the subjects now being taught efficiently through movies in some schools and on account of the fact that it takes one to read a novel two or more days but it can be shown for only one or two hours on the screen it is claimed that the motion picture is also a time-saving educational device. By some obvious psychological effects, the motion picture may tend to reduce opportunities for greater use of the imagination, but to children with less imaginative capacities it is a perfect aid to comprehension. However, except for some few occasions where it is physically impossible to reproduce certain scenes and actions on film, the movie is a complete narration of any story or novel. And one reason why the movie is increasingly being employed in literature classes is that it brings to near reality the fantastic side of fiction.

Such lessons in civics as politeness, courtesy, honesty, and industry could very well be dramatized in a movie which may easily and effectively be used to develop desirable attitudes in children. Since by nature children are great mimics, it is believed that they are influenced in more instances by factors that they see than by what they are told, so that the movies in this case become a very suitable tool for inculcating in the young the virtues mentioned. The fact that even adults are likely to pattern their outlook on life after their favorite movies makes it easy to believe that school children's discipline is no problem if good movies are shown to them.

About the most amazing feature of the movie as an instructional device in the classroom is its capability to show in almost actual happening such phenomena as the life history of the butterfly. A film

called "The Monarch Butterfly" tells in detailed action the story of a butterfly from parent to egg to caterpillar to parent again. Willian A. Anderson, an American educator, made 14 trips within a period of 18 months to make the picture. It is not so much the thrill of seeing the picture on the screen as knowing how all the minute motions were recorded on film, considering that the butterfly squirts out an egg so fast that there is no time left to focus a camera.

The BSEE curriculum in the Philippine Normal College includes audio-visual education which, aside from its other phases of study, gives training in the different methods of film projection, like opaque projection, micro-projection, and overhead projection. Students of Education 8 (Audio-Visual Education) believe that the knowledge and skills they get in their course is enough to land them a job as movie technicians. Their apparent deficiency in our modern movie technology, however, lies in the fact that they are not given instruction in how to operate the movie novelties such as the cinemascope, stereophonic sound, and viŝta-vision, which for financial reasons have not yet found their way into the classrooms.

Among the new features that motion pictures in the schools may bring about to our educational system is the creation of what may be called a board of censors to process all films for use in the classrooms. Likewise, the system of our present library management may be made to include classification and carding of films. Already some of the so-called progressive schools in the Philippines have remodeled their classrooms to show films.

Currently, the Curriculum Division, Bureau of Public Schools, has as one of its services the showing of educational films to teachers and pupils who make arrangement with Dr. Oseas del Rosario, in charge of the Audio-Visual Center. With the end in view of propagating the use of motion pictures for instruction, the Bureau's Audio-Visual Center also lends educational films for showing in the public schools on

condition that no fees should be charged from pupils seeing them. It may be mentioned that the Center is one of the most essential facilities of the Bureau of Public Schools notwithstanding the short space of time it has been existing. The benefit it has been giving the schools which is evaluated in terms of improved instruction cannot be gainsaid.

Financing the school movie program in the Philippines is a big problem which the school administrators should approach with ingenuity and resourcefulness. Comparatively, the production of school movies is expensive, not to mention the fact that, unlike Hollywood movies, school-produced films are not for commercial purposes. In the United States, according to a school movie catalog, a reel of educational film is listed at from \$50 to \$100 depending on color effects. One sound projector costs \$300, which means that movie as a means of teaching children in the classroom is a large investment.

Lack of technicians and experts in the making of educational films is another roadblock in the school movie program. In line with the policies and objectives of the community school program, improvement of Philippine rural life should be outstanding among the themes and features of Philippine school movies which Filipino experts could very well accomplish with maximum effects. Our local educators will thus find new lines of specialization, such as script writing, film editing, acting, and directing.

With the present trend of technological revolution, conjectures are that TV sets will find their way into the classrooms after the movies have become outmoded. In fact TV could be a remedy for the immense costs of producing educational films for the schools since only one projection center is needed for several TV receiving sets installed in each classroom. It is not hard to imagine the future teacher and her pupils dialing a movie into the classroom TV screen to start the day's recitation.

"Public Relations: Pro and Con"

By Carlos G. Beltran

PUBLIC relations has become a byword in our present day community schools, a dynamic force that denotes all the influences that bring about group interaction and crystalize its deliberations into a tangible reality. The endeavor to win the sympathy, interest, and goodwill of the community or to align its forces in gaining support of or in upholding certain ethical principles rests on a sound public relations.

The success of our educational program depends on the relationship among all elements in the community viewed in the light of their needs and problems, traditions, mores and idiosyncracies and interpreted in terms of the common weal.

Public relations, just as any other principle or concept has its two sides which run counter to each other and which have equally opposite forces of re-

action. At its best, "Public relations is persuasion by appeal to reason," as propounded by one of the eminent educators of our country. It is defined by a policy all its own; sincere and natural, yet within moral limits. It is an honest statement of facts, free from propaganda and glamor, purged of any color or recrimination, and devoid of any tint of selfish aggrandizement.

It is the anchor that ties down the educational program to the level of the masses and keeps the people informed of the undertakings, developments and achievements of the school while keeping at the same time, an eye on public appraisal and reaction. Only when there is an intelligent grasp of facts and unbiased understanding can there be a spontaneous interest generated especially when it stems directly from those affected or benefited.

Community leaders especially teachers bank heavily on a healthy yet vigorous and dynamic public relations program. How truly has it been said, "Show me the school and I will tell who the teachers are and what the community is." There is the ever present need to establish report and deal with the people at their own level; for what use are intellectuals when they emerge to be "social morons?" One can not be isolated from the pulse and throb of daily living in the community; sharing in the burden and frustration of the unfortunate, lending a helping hand to those in dire need, or just plain forgetting oneself in relation to others are more than their worth in terms of the time, effort, and sacrifice dedicated to a great humanitarian purpose.

On the other hand, the term "public relations" has been sorely abused in so many quarters until it has assumed an unsavory connotation. How many unethical practices and moral sins had been wilfully and grossly attributed and committed in its name? The number is legion!

Public relations has been often construed to be drinking wine at the street corner with certain elements difficult to displease in the community; or going to gambling dens and places of questionable repute because those with whom the teacher comes in contact or associates with are addicts to highly immoral vices. It may take the guise of sanctioning harmful pastimes, abetting superstition, or condoning moral turpitude for to register vocal opposition would be to court or incur the displeasure and enmity of certain segments of the population. It follows the fallacious line of thinking and reasoning that to do so would be to gain their goodwill and enlist their aid later on in some

school venture. It is a glorification of the adage, "When in Rome, do as the Romans do," yet in a sadly perverted sense that does not speak so highly of what we are in relation to our objectives.

In many instances, vested interests working toward selfish motives, exert undue pressure on community leaders. It represents an uncomfortable situation where the public relations program of the school faces a crucial test. What are needed are teachers who would not compromise right with wrong, truth with deceit... without any qualm of conscience. Indeed, public relations must be characterized by tact and diplomacy but it must have a backbone to resist undue influences inimical to the interest of the community and places in a bad light the good name of the school.

Such a state of affairs where the means used do not justify the ends creates a very unpleasant situation with resounding effects that are reflected both in and out of the classroom. How can teaching be reconciled to the actual facts where the teacher himself, has failed in the eye of his young wards... a theoretical precept and model but found wanting in his own actuations?

This is a typical situation in many communities where so called "public relations" is involved as an approach to gain the backing and cooperation of the community that leaves a very controversial aftermath. It is praying on certain pronounced inconsistencies and weaknesses of the people as a means to an end; how can the partnership between the parents and the teacher be justified through the perpetuation of such detrimental vices as drinking, gambling, and propagating further undesirable idiosyncracies?

Or, is it just a mere delusion that to do so would give one more tangible proof that the community school has firmly taken root? On the other hand, a serious inconsistency arises for these highly questionable and unethical practices run counter to the objectives of the community school which can not countenance their existence. To live true to the principles and tenets on which the community school stands four-square, the community leader especially the teacher, in the light of such a situation begins to preach and wean the people from their old ways and practices after he has given his sanction earlier if only to win them over. The harm has been done as a result of a mistaken concept of "public relations" and of the outcome... your guess is as good as mine!

A Joint Responsibility of Various Agencies

By Jose M. Ramos

THE school is easily the exclusive agency charged with the giving of education to the masses, on first non-meticulous impulse or on drastic hypothesis. This idea can not be overemphasized as the school truly reflects the unbounded task of transforming the youth from unwarranted ignorance and social incompetence into educated and socially able citizens acceptable to the current social order. Anachronism as it may seem, the one time general comment: "Iyan ba ang turo ng guro mo?" (Is that what your teacher teaches you?), bears impact on the whole system. A typical example of this incident follows:

After class hours, one morning while the pupils were leisurely pacing homeward, two of the naughty boys quarreled in front of a big house. The squabble resulted to a fist fight. Thereupon the owner of the house, precisely the head of the family, peered through the window and shouted at the top of his voice: "Hoy, mga luko, iyan ba ang turo sa inyo ng inyong guro sa paaralan?" (Hey, fools, is that what your teacher teaches you in school?) Needless for me to finish this unsavory story. The point is clear that with all the undoings of school children the brunt of responsibility lies always on the school without considering other elements working on the growth and development of the tots.

I will not dare to defend the school. For this might appear that I am taking side with a biased mind. I will only try to present some irrefutable facts and let my readers draw their wise conclusion. A child stays at school at not more than seven and a half hours each school day for barely ten months every year. For sixteen and a half hours out of the twenty-four every day, where does the child stay? The answer is definite: At home. Considering the length of time a child stays at home with his parents, is it not strange to pass the buck to the school with whatever mischiefs the child conducts himself? Now, the question arises. Can the influence of the school outweigh the influence of the home practices considering the span of period the child is within the

protective custody of the parents? Certainly, under ordinary conditions and under normal run of life, the home must be more in a position to educate or uneducate the child. The home therefore, is an agency which must help the school in the promotion of education for the common good. If this is true and the truth is not irreconcilable, then the home is another agency where lies the responsibility of transforming the useless child into a useful one. This argument belies the remark: "Iyan ba ang turo sa inyo ng inyong mga guro sa paaralan?" A twist of truth in a hazy mind may justify the boomerang: "Iyan ba ang turo sa inyo ng inyong mga magulang?" (Is that what your parents teach you?). But let us not consider it in this haughty perspective. Let it be channeled to one of cooperation and proper understanding that the home and the school are inseparable factors on whose folds rests the development of the child in terms of characters, habits, cultural and civic efficiencies, and ennobling spirits aside from the fundamental knowledge and competencies.

Our search for light does not end there. For, life is a constant and continuing business as long as it exists. For the child the home and the school are not the be-all and the end-all of everything. There are many more elements that are bound to influence the total make-up and behavior of this child. Take for example the church. The faith of the child is one factor that militates his actions. He does things in accordance with what he thinks wise and right. His thinking is largely guided by his faith; faith in the human laws, faith in the Divine Providence, faith in his church and its teachings. Thus a child brought up in the realm of piety shall never falter in his attempt to do what is good and proper. While a child brought up and reared devoid of spiritual counsel shall, by his beastly instinct, go out of humanly approved conduct and become a social nuisance and a menace to peace and order. The church therefore, plays a very important role in the up-bringing of the child toward manhood of character and virtues.

Now, let us consider the child's environment. Child's action and behavior are largely patterned from the conduct of his associates. The old and wise adage: "Tell me who your companions are and I will tell you who you are" holds water in this particular case. Parents should therefore aspire to place their children in an environment, where the prospective companions of their children would be those with noble virtues. If this is not possible, the choice of associates for the children may be seriously considered. Exposing a child to all kinds of temptation will enable that child to fall to it without knowing it. And could the child be blamed? Unfortunately not.

One could imagine the unfortunate predicament of a barrio where there were all kinds of vices, to say the least: mahjong, monte, cuajo, cockfighting, cara y cruz, etc. The young people in that barrio studied

in school alright but did anyone of them finish any course? Nor did anyone of them prosper in life? To be sure, a great many of them turned out to be gamblers and very few of them professed even a humble calling. The barrio populace thereafter lived in abject poverty and want. The concomitant evils followed; illiteracy, dishonesty, immorality, indolence, etc.

Having profitted from their sad experience the people in this barrio woke up to their misery. And having learned lessons from their despicable past re-directed their course of action. They tried to do away with their vicious practices and brought up their children in an atmosphere conducive to approved ways of life. Results: The barrio is now progressing. It can boast of educated youths; men and women, who constitute the cream of the citizenry. At present, there are no more gambling dens; no cockpit, no nothing. Instead, there are all sorts of appropriate devices for spending profitable leisures. Thus, environment affects favorably the norms of conduct and approved decorum of the youth.

Ten Ways

Schools Win Support From Adults in the Community

Edward G. Olsen

RELATIONSHIPS between the school and the adults in any community are important in determining educational policy and program.

Problems that confront educators and lay people everywhere include these

- what people think about their schools,
- how school purposes actually relate to cultural traditions and expectations,
- the extent to which formal education really meets community needs, and
- the basic role of the school in a society now shaken by vast and unprecedented changes which are both technological and institutional in character.

* Reprinted from *The Nation's School*, July, 1956 issue.

With the advent of the modern trends of education many more agencies are added to the list of factors affecting the general welfare of the public. There are for instance: The Social Welfare Administration, Agricultural Extension, Rural Health Unit, etc., etc. These agencies, needless to tell, help one way or another in the implementation of education in its true sense. The functions being performed by these agencies in the promotion of the common welfare are only too glaring to merit enumeration.

The point is: Is the school solely and exclusively responsible for the promotion of education? As proved by the discussion under consideration the duty of educating the masses is not a monopoly of the school. It is a joint responsibility of various agencies charged with the task of extricating the people from the morass where they were clamped once upon a time. So long as the school, the home, the church, the environment, and other minor agencies cooperate wholeheartedly in the total war for the betterment of our youth, so long will they succeed in their attempts to build a strong, healthy nation with good and upright citizens.

Here are some operating principles for teachers and administrators as they work with their communities.

Be friendly

Maintain a warm, welcoming school atmosphere. Always be hospitable to lay people, however demanding they may be. If you want respect from community adults they must have confidence in you, and that requires you to be the kind of person who deserves their trust. You won't get it just because you are an educator. You must earn it as a friendly, down-to-earth human being who only happens to be a teacher.

Parents' dream for children

Remember always that parents want their children to be better off than they are. The great dream of individual advancement is basic in our culture and is shared by virtually all Americans. To be sure, parents do not want their children to be 'schooled away' from themselves. Using technological terms, we might say that most parents want their children to be unadjusted to the parental life level, but not maladjusted to themselves. The risks of alienation will be minimized if you keep your community needs and develop it through joint child and adult sharing in planning.

Be realistic

Begin with real problems that are right at hand. For best results these will be problems which are of

actual or potential concern to both parents and children; are not controversial in terms of objectives, however much disagreement there may be on methods; can be solved (but not too easily lest real satisfactions not develop); require direct community participation by children and adults; and use in their solution varied resources close at hand and readily available.

Encourage teamwork

Get people working as teams — including, if possible, both children and adults on committees. In teamwork each individual accepts responsibility for a part of the whole. Each may learn from the others how better to set up criteria, get facts, plan, execute, and judge the project. Each can find stimulus and encouragement in the progress of the whole as he identifies psychologically with the larger enterprise. But be sure to include some of the 'power people' on strategic teams, and don't fail to give the lay people all possible public credit for success achieved.

Begin modestly

Plan big but begin small (so as to assure initial success); then expand as rapidly as possible. No growing program can stand long on any plateau. It is always necessary to go ahead, or interest will rapidly dwindle. So don't stop too long to admire your achievements; instead, move on to develop larger projects and to involve more participators in them. And remember that it is not enough merely to get people interested and concerned; they must also be moved to work actively in the project. Satisfying personal involvement is the key to deepening interest and widening effort.

Stop to look

Arrange for appropriate self-appraisal by the group itself. When all share in diagnosing a cooperative project's effectiveness, they can grow together in both insight and interest. Continued effective action is not likely without some kind of 'how are we doing?' evaluation sessions at frequent intervals.

Integrate your planning

As the program expands, be sure it develops appropriate structure and organization. Having be-

gun informally, with a minimum of organization, you will need to go on to develop careful (even written) plans and to find recognized leadership. A temporary chairman and recorder may be selected at the outset, but you may soon need more permanent leaders for some such organization as parents committee or a community council. Sometimes cooperative community projects fail because expanding programs outgrow their structural supports.

Look to lay opinions

Remember that responsibility for a community school does not lie solely with school people. Community education is the proper concern of everyone in the community. Teachers may often need to take the lead in promoting community cooperation of this kind, but the community school is by no means 'their show'. Often school people do their best work when they are willing to follow community lay leadership instead of expecting to lead themselves.

A tortoise won a race

Don't be discouraged if progress seems slow. You won't develop a real community school in three days or 30 days or three years. There are long, hard traditions and much inertia to overcome — traditions and inertia within the school as well as in the community. But take heart when the going is rough, remembering that you are on the right side of history and that thousands of fellow teachers are working in the same direction.

Don't forget the teacher

Finally, never forget or ignore the vital importance of the individual teacher. No school, however well equipped, is ever superior to its teachers. A child is better off in a one-room rural school taught by an intelligent, imaginative, and dedicated teacher than enrolled in a multi-room city school staffed by discouraged, timeserving bell-watchers. The community school idea is the recognized pattern for educational progress. The deep need of our times is for devoted educational leaders to translate that broad pattern into local programs of action.



Salaries for Principals*

By Robert W. Eaves

The following article is based on a talk given by Robert W. Eaves, Executive Secretary of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, at a meeting of The New York Principals Association. Data for the talk were provided by the Research Division of the NEA.

Your chairman has asked me to tell you something about the NEA point of view on the single-salary schedule for principals, and something about salaries generally thruout the country.

Single-Salary Schedule

Let us consider first the idea of the single salary schedule for principals. I interpret the phrase to mean that the same salary rates apply to elementary school principals as to high school principals.

The NEA has been on record for more than 30 years in favor of single-salary schedules for classroom teachers, are almost obsolete. The NEA has not yet taken a stand on single-salary schedules for principals. Your NEA Department of Elementary School Principals has, however, adopted formal resolutions that recommend the single-salary schedule for the principalship, with equal pay for principals of equal qualifications.

You doubtless are familiar with the arguments pro and con on this issue. Those who feel that high school principals should be paid more emphasize the greater complexity of scheduling, the problems of faculty departmentalization, the great variety of pupil activities and organizations, and the more serious problems of pupil conduct that are likely to arise with older pupils.

Those of us who support the single-salary idea concede the greater complexity of organization. We point out, however, that most of the same basic problems of administration arise in the elementary school as in the high school. We recall also that the high school principal usually has assistant principals and secretarial help in relatively greater numbers, so that his own personal administrative burden is no greater than that of the elementary school principal. There is also, for the elementary school principal, much closer identity with the community and closer relationships with parents. These community contacts represent a greater contribution by the elementary

school. They also represent additional demands upon the principal, demands which are almost impossible to delegate.

In thinking about the single-salary schedule for principals, however, you immediately face another issue. It is the matter of adjusting principals' salaries to size of school. The fact that high schools usually are much larger than elementary schools has been one justification for the usual practice of higher salaries for the high school principals.

The NEA Research Division's latest information from New York City shows that you have a dividing line in your elementary school principals' salary schedule between schools of 25 teaching positions and those that are larger. And likewise, a high school with fewer than 50 positions has a different type of administration. Such a pattern would make a logical starting point for the single-salary schedule idea as it is now emerging here and there in the United States.

Our NEA Research Division has recently analyzed the salary schedules in 125 of the largest cities in the country. They were the ones with populations of 100,000 or more. Twenty-one of the 125 cities have single-salary schedules for principals. Twenty of the 21 make a difference according to size of school. The one exception is Atlanta. Oakland, California, for example, has six salary classes for principals, starting with "fewer than 10 teaching positions," and going up to a top class for "70 or more teaching positions." Yonkers starts with class for 1-7 teachers, and has other salary classes for each six additional teachers, up to the ninth class for 50 or more teachers. The maximum salary for the smallest group of schools in Yonkers is \$6600; or the largest, \$9000.

We know of two cities over a third of a million in population — Oakland and Louisville — that had a single-salary schedule for principals since 1936-37, later modified it slightly, and now has gone back to a single-salary schedule. All three of these cities classify principalships by size of school. In 1952-1953, the median salaries actually paid to principals in those three cities averaged 18 per cent higher in the high schools than in the elementary schools. If you make this comparison for the three cities nearest in size and location to these three, and having traditional schedules, you will find that high school principals were ahead of elementary school principals by only 20 percent. Thus, the differential for the high

* Reprinted from "The National Elementary Principal, Vol. XXXIV: No. 7: May, 1955, pp. 30-32 ff; Editorial office: 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W. Washington 6 D.C.

school principal was only 2 percent higher under the traditional schedule than under the single-salary schedule.

Of course, all other cities seem small to New Yorkers, but for most of us, a city over a half-million in population is large; only 18 cities in the country are that big. One-sixth of these largest cities — New Orleans, Baltimore, and Houston — have single-salary schedules for principals. In New Orleans there are five salary classes based on size, increasing for each 300 pupils enrolled, up to 1201 pupils.

Baltimore has four groups of principals. They are classified according to a statistical process that gives weighted credits to (a) pupil population, (b) professional staff, (c) building employees, and (d) program and organization, plus an additional weighting based on a list of 12 administrative factors.

In Houston, four categories are set, one for head teachers in schools of 1-7 teachers, and three other classes — for 7-25 teachers, for 26-45 teachers, and 46 teachers or more.

Ways of Scheduling Salaries

Apart from the issue of a differential or no differential between elementary and secondary school principals' salaries, various other issues arise in scheduling. Most of these issues are illustrated in the 18 largest cities.

For example, there is the question of size of school as salary factor. Ten of the 18 schedules pay the largest salaries in the biggest elementary schools. In eight of the 10, the high school principals are paid more in larger schools than in smaller ones. But there are eight cities in which size of school, as such, does not affect salaries of either elementary or high school principals. These eight are all cities in which elementary school principals are paid less than high school principals, regardless of size of school.

You might ask how many classes of schools, on the basis of size, are usually provided for. The typical plan, the one you follow in New York, has only two groups of elementary school principalships. The size of school which marks the line between the lower and upper classes of elementary schools, where there are only two groups, is as follows:

- Detroit — Membership of 700 or over
- Minneapolis — 21 or more teaching positions
- New York — 25 or more teaching positions
- Pittsburgh — 20 or more teaching positions

Philadelphia also has a two-group schedule, but the exact sizes are not specified. Not more than 50 percent of the principals may be in the upper group. In some of these cities there may also be provision for teaching principals and teachers in charge, as I believe you have here in New York.

The NEA Department of Elementary School Principals has published two yearbooks on the status of the principalship which included chapters on salaries. Both of these yearbook Committees recommended that when schools are classified by size for salary purposes, only a few broad classifications should be set up.

Another point of difference is whether or not to pay for extra advanced professional preparation. Some school systems have competent principals of long service who do not have a bachelor's degree. In the same system may be other principals with doctor's degrees. The single-salary schedule for classroom teachers assumes that, by and large, each year of professional preparation enhances the value of the teacher's services to the community. When we study the salary schedules for principals, we find that six of them extend this reasoning to principals, and 12 do not. The six systems in which principals with advanced preparation are paid more than others are New Orleans, Baltimore, Minneapolis, Buffalo, Cleveland, and Milwaukee.

Another issue is that stating the principals' salaries in the form of a differential over and above what the principal would receive if he were being paid on the classroom teachers' schedule. This is a means of recognizing different levels of preparation (assuming the preparation schedule for teachers, now adopted at least in principle in all 18 of the largest cities). It is so a means of guaranteeing that raises for principals will follow automatically with increases in the classroom teachers' schedule. The latter idea can prove to be fallacy, however, if the amount of the differential stays frozen. When the classroom maximum rises from \$4500 to \$6000 and the principals' differential remains at \$2000, the financial recognition for the principalship has shrunk from about 45 percent to about 33 percent. At present only two of the 18 schedules in big cities — Baltimore and Buffalo — state the principals' salaries as differentials above the teachers'.

Of course, one of the greatest issues has just been indicated when I spoke of the percent relationship between principals' and classroom teachers' schedules. The NEA Research Division gets many requests for figures on the ratios in existing salary schedules, and there is a tendency for boards of education to consider the relationships elsewhere in fixing local administrative salaries.

It is risky business to prepare such figures, because sometimes the salaries are into being paid in full, or only a handful of either classroom teachers or principals may actually be receiving the maximum salaries called for by the schedule. Recognizing that the schedules may not present a completely truthful picture, the NEA Research Division has computed some figures on these relationships. It seems that in one

city the highest salary scheduled for an elementary school principal is 52.6 percent higher than the highest salary scheduled for a classroom teacher, and in another city it is only 61.1 percent higher. These are the extremes; the mid-point is 35.3 percent. In New York the elementary school principals' maximum is 37.4 percent above the classroom teachers' maximum, a figure which is close to the group median.

Another issue of relationship is the matter of overlapping the principals' schedule with the classroom teachers' schedule. Classroom teachers feel that the upper levels of their schedule may well be as high as the beginning salary for in-experienced principals. The 1948 Yearbook Committee of our Department recognized that the point of view by its recommendation that new principals appointed from within a school system should receive either (a) the beginning step of the new salary class or (b) salary step on the new salary class that would be larger. As well as we can interpret them, eight of the 18 schedules are so organized that such an overlap would be possible.

As another part of this whole question of the relationship of administrative and teaching salaries there is a long-time trend to lower the administrative differential. During the past 20 or 30 years, salaries of classroom teachers have been rising more rapidly than those of administrators. We do not have the information on the median salaries actually paid. Back in 1930-31, the elementary school principals in cities of a half million population or more received median salaries 72 percent higher than the median salary of elementary school teachers. Twenty-two years later, in 1952-53, the principals were paid a median amount that was only 52 percent higher. Junior high and senior high school principals had an even greater reduction in their salary differential.

Salary Amounts

At one time, the salaries of New York City's classroom teachers and principals led the nation. Today, however, in six of the 18 cities of a half-million pop-

ulation or more, the beginning salaries of classroom teachers having A.B. degrees are higher than in New York. And the top-maximum salary for teachers with the highest qualifications is higher in two cities — Los Angeles and San Francisco — than in New York.

In paying principals, San Francisco again surpasses New York, with an elementary school principal's maximum of \$11,245. Both Los Angeles and Detroit equal the New York maximum for elementary school principals and pay junior high school principals slightly more than does New York.

As mentioned earlier, principals' salaries have lagged behind those of teachers in the advances of the past two decades. This is not to say that principals' salaries have failed to increase. Between 1930-31 and 1952-53, the median salary paid elementary school principals in cities over 500,000 in population increased 76.7 percent. But this 76.7 percent was less than the average increase for all classroom teachers, which advanced 98.8 percent. During the same time the median for high school principals' salaries increased only 56.4 percent. And just to round out the picture, let us remember that the median salary of superintendents increased only 21 percent.

These increases, whether large or small, took place against an economic background in which prices nearly doubled, wages and salaries in general increased more than two and a half times, and income taxes soared.

The trend appears to be in the direction of levelling up the salaries of classroom teachers. The vast gulfs of differences in salaries, as well as in professional preparation and prestige, no longer exist between school administrators and classroom teachers.

On the other hand, the need continues for a substantial of leadership and initiative required for the administration of a school. Only the best are able to meet the tasks of leadership posed by today's alert, professionally-trained teachers; today's precocious and sometimes censorious communities.

How Do Large Cities Select Principals?

By Jay E. Greene

(EDITOR'S NOTE: This article is an abstract of an unpublished doctoral study made at New York University in 1954. It is concerned particularly with current practices in the selection of elementary school principals in cities with a population over 250,000).

ALTHOUGH much attention has been given to problems of teachers selection and the prediction of teaching efficiency, comparatively little research has been devoted to the problems of selecting supervisory-administrative personnel for the schools. Yet it is recognized that the selection of capable principals to give superior leadership for schools is of vital importance.

This study was made to provide more information about current methods of selecting principals of public elementary schools. It was designed to survey current practices in 31 cities with a population over 250,000; to evaluate these in the light of certain basic principles; and to make recommendations concerning the adoption of designated practices that seem to be in accord with the basic principles.

Information and guidance for this study were obtained in the following ways: study of bulletins, circulars of information, and announcements made available by the individual cities; study of authoritative literature in the field; interviews; correspondence; questionnaires; referral to a panel of consultants.

The findings and conclusions of this study are presented under the following titles: recruitment, qualifications, use of a job, analysis, use of written tests, use of interviews, other personal tests, record of previous service, exemptions from the selection process, listing of successful applicants, appeals, and probationary period.

Recruitment

The trend in recruitment is toward a broader program. However, in approximately half the cities in this study, there is no public announcement requesting applications; names may be submitted for consideration only by supervisors. The importance of an adequate recruitment program is noted in the *Twenty-Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA:

It should be clear that no plan for selecting principals can be fully effective unless there is a plan for attracting candidates. Without plans and procedures for recruitment, the supply of potential appointees necessarily rests largely upon an accidental basis.

Qualifications

Clearly defined minimum qualifications are set forth in 90 percent of these cities. Most of the cities require some teaching experience in elementary schools. About 30 percent require previous supervisor experience.

Use of a Job Analysis

Fewer than half the cities in this study make a periodic job analysis the basis of selection procedures, and in these cities, methods of selecting elementary school principals have been evaluated only informally and irregularly.

Use of Written Tests

Various types of written tests are used in about 40 percent of the cities in this study. The written tests usually cover the following areas: administrative problems, supervisory problems, elementary school curriculum, and methods of teaching. Less frequent-

ly, the following areas are included: general or cultural information, community problems, and extra-curricular problems. The written tests vary in length from twelve hours to one hour, with most requiring between three to six hours. In some cities, an "all-objective" type of written test is used. In others, essay examinations are utilized. In one city, a one hour written personality test is used. In two cities, written papers are rated separately for correctness of English usage.

The reasons given for the use of written tests in these cities are the following:

They provide an efficient and economical method of judging certain qualities on a comparable basis.

A wider sampling related to certain qualities can be obtained than is possible thru other methods.

Applicants for the principalship should be capable of making written reports of the type called for in these tests.

The large number of applicants in some cities necessitates the use of a written test as a preliminary selective instrument.

There is need for a "political-proof" merit basis for selection.

Reasons for not using written tests may be summarized as these:

The number of capable applicants would be reduced because of their willingness to take such tests.

There is no correlation between success in a written tests and success as a supervisor.

Other methods have proved satisfactory to the local administrator.

Ordinary written tests do not select on the basis of competency for the job. They select according to the applicant's "know-how" in preparing for and passing anticipated test questions.

Administrators have expressed strong convictions favoring or opposing written tests. However, the question of written tests is subordinate, in the opinion of the investigator, to the primary element — the necessity of adequate appraisal of certain qualities in applicants. If these qualities can be adequately appraised on a comparable basis in other ways, then the arduous written test may be dispensed with. However, in large cities where 100 or more applicants must be appraised, it is questionable whether it is possible to perform such an evaluation on a comparable basis for all applicants, without a preliminary selective instrument, such as a written test.

It is important to note that the written tests which have thus far been devised have limited value. The written tests has not been considered effective in competitively appraising essential personality traits, attitudes, and relationships, all of which are of major importance to a successful principal. For example,

it is questionable whether reliable information about a person's attitude would be obtained in a written test by asking an applicant to state his philosophy of education or supervision, or his concept of good community relations. The written test should rather be designed to ascertain breadth of background, knowledge of desirable practices, ability to organize thoughts in writing, etc. The written test should then be followed by other types of investigation, or by different tests which may yield more reliable information about desired personal qualities.

Use of Interviews

Inquiry was made concerning the use of personal tests. Personal tests are tests other than written tests, designed to ascertain personal qualities in the selection procedure.

The interview is apparently the most commonly used personal test. The following table indicates responses received concerning the use of interviews:

**Selecting Principals By Interview
Cities Over 250,000**

Question	Yes	No	Total
Are interviews used?	25	5	30
Is a formal rating sheet used by the interviewing panel?	10	15	25
Are individuals other than those in the central personnel office called upon to assist in the interview?	15	15	30
Is an effort made to have the interview comparable for all applicants?	10	18	28
Are those who assist in the interview given specific training for their job?	11	11	22

Evidently, the interview varies considerably from city to city. In some of the large cities studied, the interview was reported as an informal affair, lasting from 15 to 20 minutes, in which the superintendent and several assistants form a general impression. In other cities, the interview is more carefully planned with the interviewers specifically coached in advance to use prepared questions and to evaluate the applicant on a detailed rating sheet. Such interviews generally last from half an hour to an hour. Several cities reported that the interviewing panel consists of from three to five individuals, including field supervisors and principals. At least one city has a classroom teacher serving on each interviewing panel. In another city a mechanical recording is made during the interview. It later may be played back to the panel or to the applicant on his request.

Some interviews are centered solely upon an applicant's record of service or personal achievements, while others also include more general questions. In some interviews, the record of service is excluded from

the interview. In one recent interview for the principalship, all applicants were given a four-paragraph description of a specific school situation. They required to study the description of the school and to prepare to answer questions about the role of the principal in the situation.

So far as the interview is concerned, there is reason to believe that there is need in many cities for clarifying and narrowing its scope. The usual interview may be adequate for appraising ability in discussion or certain demonstrable personal qualities. However, other instruments may be necessary to measure more effectively other characteristics. For example, in the usual interview it is possible to obtain only limited insight into an applicant's ability to get along with others or his ability as a leader, since these capacities function in a group situation different from the usual interview situation.

Other Personal Tests

Altho personal qualities and abilities related to leadership, to community activity, and to relationships with staff, are deemed to be important for principals, there are few instruments available for assessing these abilities; and very few cities have made attempts to try such instruments in competitive selection. However, one city reports using a group interview in which several applicants are brought together and observed in group discussion situation. Two cities have required individuals to observe a classroom and report on their observations. Another city requires the applicant to report on a school he has surveyed. In another city, the applicant is observed as he conducts a conference. In cities where previous supervisory experience is required, it is possible to make a direct on-the-job appraisal. All in all, there seems to be a need for developing suitable means to assess qualities which cannot be adequately evaluated in a written test or interview.

Record of Previous Service

In most of the cities, the record of previous service of an applicant is obtained and reviewed by school personnel officials. The tendency in this regard is to send a graphic type of scale to former and present supervisors. Such topics as the following appear on the forms in use: classroom success, supervisory success, faculty relationships, evidences of leadership, professional contributions, estimates of personality, social adjustment, ability to get along with others, etc. In approximately 30 percent of the cities in this study, applicants are shown the way to evaluate reports of their supervisors; in the remaining 70 percent, they are not.

The investigator believes that no matter how well conceived a reference form is, many factors contribute to the variability of reports in the cases of individual candidates. The personalities and personal

standards of the supervisors writing the reports vary; different types of faculties and students have influence on the sort of record that may be obtained by an applicant in a given school situation. Considering all the variables, the investigator is moved to suggest that a more reliable appraisal would involve a visit by the same rating committee to each candidate on his job, so that the variable factors might be observed and duly considered.

Exemptions from Selection Process

In all but two of the cities where clearly defined procedures are utilized in the selection of elementary school principals, no individual is exempt from any part of the selection process. However, it should be pointed out that ten of the 31 cities in this study report that there are no clearly defined examination procedures.

Listing of Successful Applicants

An eligible list of successful applicants is promulgated in about 55 percent of the cities in this study. In these cities, appointments are made in some relation to placement on the list. Different weighting schemes are used in various cities for arriving at an over-all rating for each applicant. In the remaining 45 percent of the cities, appointments are made either with no formal selection procedure, or from a pool of candidates declared to be meritorious for the position.

It seemed to this investigator that the advantages of a clearly defined policy of appointment based upon a promulgated list outweigh the disadvantages. A particularly significant advantage lies in the reduction of outside pressures for the selection of a favored individual. In cities where lists are promulgated, the life of the list generally extends from three to eight years.

A Teacher's Personal Experience

I Mauled a Pupil

By Romeo P. Canias

WHEN I entered the service in 1950, I was cognizant of the standing injunction against corporal punishment in our public schools. Yet there arose an occasion when, in a fit of temper, I threw this particular ruling overboard and allowed myself to be carried away by my emotions. That the act,

Appeals

An appeal against an adverse judgment is permitted in approximately 65 percent of the cities in this study. The procedure and reviewing authorities differ from city to city. In one city, a procedure was devised, after discussion with representatives of teachers' organizations, whereby there would be a review by an independent committee under the auspices of the original examining body.

Probationary Period

In about 60 percent of the cities, a probationary period is required on the grounds that the selection process is not without possibility of error and the position is of such importance as to warrant the probationary experience. A three-year period is required in most cities that have probationary period.

For Better Leadership

The role of the principal is undeniably great in determining the success of a modern elementary school program. Unless the possibilities of this position are intelligently utilized, a school system can make only limited progress in the development of its elementary education. Thus, the careful selection of an elementary school principal is fundamental to the effective functioning of the school program.

The results of this study reveal a wide variance of approach to the selection of elementary school principals in the large cities of this country. Thru an awareness of the technics that are being used in other cities, public school administrators can improve their own methods of choosing supervisory personnel. Such a development should serve to strengthen both elementary education and the elementary principalship.

per se, was inadvisable need not be debated. Under the circumstances in which it occurred, however, I wonder if someone in my stead could have done otherwise.

It happened sometime at the start of the school year in 1951. The preceding long vacation has trans-

formed our school playground into a virtual wilderness of grass, talahib, and prickly touch-me-nots. To make it fit once more for playing, I employed the boys in the Physical Education class under me to clear the field. The class was, for this purpose, organized into groups, each allotted a portion of the field to work on. Leaving the group leaders to take charge, I busied myself working on papers in my room.

I was yet to learn of the unsoundness of leaving a group of irresponsible youth at work wholly unsupervised. While the practice may inculcate in children the attitude of responsibility, it has its concomitant hazards, as this particular case proved. Nothing was accomplished in that half hour period spent for clearing up the field. A couple of boys, not heeding the protestations of their companions, decided to "escape," a term which has come to mean leaving the class, especially to evade work. A few others followed suit, starting a chain reaction among the rest. No one saw any reason in working while the others were enjoying their leisure.

Smarting from the flop, I set my self to correct matters, determined to obviate its repetition. I convened the boys in my room the following afternoon, eager to give the culprits a dressing down. The class turned into a gripe session. Those accused sought justice by implicating everybody else involved.

I decided to penalize the culprits, namely the "escapees" (I felt that they were mainly responsible for the situation), by giving them "special assignments." The trouble would have been settled to everyone's satisfaction had not someone called my attention to another boy who was apparently overlooked.

"Rudy,* too, sir," he said.

Rudy remonstrated, claiming he stayed at school like the rest.

"No, sir," a number of boys chorused. "He went home as soon as the others turned their backs."

Rudy stood and belligerently faced the informers. He was a relatively big boy, and was conscious of the advantages of his size. He did not even attempt to conceal the threat from me. "You'll see as soon as we leave the school premises," he spoke in the dialect.

I resented his attitude. "Nobody's going to threaten anybody here," I said. "Not while I'm around. Understand?"

Rudy eyed me sullenly. "Why should they tell on me?"

"Why shouldn't they? You escaped, didn't you?"

"No, sir."

I faced the class questioningly. I picked out a boy who I knew I could rely on for truthfulness. "Yes, sir," he answered meekly, "he escaped."

A barrage of inventives and direct threats issued forth from the direction of Rudy.

"What's the matter with you?" I was conscious of the raised pitch in my voice.

The boy did not answer. He appeared sullen and rebellious, a chip on his shoulder.

I wanted to reassure the complainants. So I threw a warning at Rudy: "Don't try carrying out any of your threats."

"They'll see. After this class."

I felt my temper rise suddenly. "By gosh!" I exclaimed. "Don't you have any respect for me? I could sock you."

The boy reacted violently. "Just try it," he exclaimed back. "Try it."

I grabbed him by the collar and forced him to his feet. "What did you say?" I said. "Say that again."

"You're a teacher. You cannot hit me."

Was he referring to the prohibition against corporal punishment? Or was he simply trying to point out the disparity between our positions, aware that he could not possibly hit back?

To hell with regulations, I thought. I slapped the boy. He backed away, crying, "My father should hear of this. Watch out, you teacher."

That reference to his father, known for his bullying attitude (which the boy no doubt inherited) only served to heighten my anger. I reached for his hair and banged his head against the wall.

"Now tell your father," I shouted, releasing him.

He ambled out of the room, muttering, "I'll report this to my father. Mark my word."

"Go ahead," I shouted, checking the desire to go after him again. I dismissed the class.

Fortunately that period was the last in the afternoon. The other classes have already been dismissed. The incident did not immediately come to the attention of my fellow teachers. If they did hear about it, they must have chosen to keep mum about it.

I tarried in my room, physically and mentally enervated. I took stock of the situation, anticipated the consequences of my act. What if the boy carried out his threat? I did not relish the thought of being accosted and challenged by his father. And what if the matter was brought to the attention of the school authorities?

I fell to rationalizing my actuations. I tried to invoke the principle of *loco parentis*—I did only what a father would have done under similar circumstances; I had to teach him a lesson on respect. Nevertheless, I did not find those arguments convincing. They seemed inadequate to make up for the tremendous

* The name used here is fictitious, for obvious reasons.

damage I have done to the boy's personality. The mauling, public as it was, could adversely affect his social attitudes. It could make him hate school forever. I tried to console myself, saying that it served him right for his arrogance. Anyhow, what has been done could not be undone.

I braced myself to face the music.

The day following, I found myself unable to keep my mind on the class activities. I expected the boy's parent to appear anytime. When the school janitor hurried inside to make me read a note, I thought at first that it was a call to the principal's office. But the school hours passed and ended uneventfully. When the class was finally dismissed, I breathed a sigh of relief. I was inclined to forget the incident, when a figure suddenly appeared at the doorway. My nerves jumped. I looked in the direction of the door and instantly recognized the visitor as Rudy's elder brother. His greeting was a little too cordial, I thought. I invited him in, trying to appear casual, in spite of myself.

"My father sent me," the visitor said, "on account of what happened, affecting Rudy."

Now this is it, I thought, preparing for the worst.

"We would like to apologize for Rudy's behavior," he added. "If he commits an offense again, please don't hesitate to 'discipline' him." There was sincerity in his voice.

This abrupt reversal of events was against my wildest expectations. I felt the tension that has gripped me since morning beginning to wear off. We

conversed cordially for a while. Finally he asked to leave.

"Please take my apologies, too, to your father," I called after him. "And tell Rudy to come to school tomorrow."

Rudy came the next day. He was obviously still under the effects of that unfortunate incident. He avoided my eyes, and was silent almost all the time. But the chip was off his shoulders.

I tackled the job of rehabilitating the boy. I owed it to myself, to the boy, and to the profession, to regain his confidence. I did not wish, however, to appear apologetic. I considered that unethical. I decided to approach the matter from another angle. I reorganized the groups and managed to have Rudy elected a group leader. In the ensuing days, we held brief sessions in the room to hear reports on absences, pupil behavior, and others. I granted the leaders the privilege of rating individual group members on the basis of their contribution to the group's work. The responsibility began to take effect on Rudy. Soon he was again talking to me. Slowly but surely, the wall of antagonism and insolence about him broke down, giving way to a new personality—that of an active, energetic leader, willing to assume responsibilities.

Nowadays, when I chance to think of that mauling incident, I cannot help wondering at the quirks that life allows to happen. Corporal punishment may be inadvisable, but it did not prove so in this particular case. It even, I might say, helped straighten out things. Yet I would not advise corporal punishment. Time may not be so benevolent as it was in that case.

The Past Is Prologue¹

By William G. Carr^{*}

ALL this week we have paid homage to the achievements of a hundred years. Now, in this closing session, let us turn our thoughts to the future. What is past is prologue.

To look back is relatively easy. There is safety in the visible record of history. But prophesy is risky. Indeed, the late Christopher Morley remarked that the prophets were twice stoned, — once in anger; then by means of handsome granite slabs in the graveyard.

¹Closing address; NEA Centennial Convention, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., July 5, 1957.

^{*} Executive Secretary, National Education Association

How far ahead shall we look tonight? A century? That is a good round figure. The only trouble is that after such an interval none of us will be on hand to offer or to endure reproach for the inaccuracies of our forecasts. Besides, in today's fast-changing world, to look ahead a hundred years is an exercise more of fancy than of reason. Let us then be content with a shorter view, — say twenty years. This is long enough to give us perspective and short enough to allow most of us (with good fortune) to be on hand for the check-up.

What kind of a world will the 120th annual Delegate Assembly of the NEA encounter? In 1857 the

trans-Atlantic Cable was being laid to link the two great land masses of the earth. It is a striking fact that in 1957, just a century later, man is preparing to link the earth with the other planets. Whether, in the next twenty years, the earth satellite will lead to interplanetary travel is doubtful; if it does, the credentials of delegates wearing space helmets will be very carefully examined.

Here on earth, at any rate, there will be a vast increase in the amount and speed of travel. The achievements of science in these and other areas will continue to increase in geometric ratio. Automation and other new technics in agriculture and industry will immensely increase both productivity and leisure. Some experts predict that national income will double in less than twenty years. In medicine we shall see new remedies, or at least improved preventives, for such diseases as cancer and arthritis. Just as dietary discoveries have fortified our bones, nutritional research may in the future find how to accelerate mental activity, or to remove the grosser forms of mental retardation, and thus make learning more rapid and agreeable. Although medical practice will not become so expert as to prolong human life indefinitely, perhaps we shall achieve enough wisdom to see that this would be undesirable as well as impossible.

What about the social and political arrangements of 1977? They will certainly be different in many ways but I do not think they will change as dramatically as the physical environment. A craving for freedom and personal dignity seems to be a permanent trait of human nature. Many tyrants in the past have tried by terror and propaganda to extinguish that spark. History is a record of their failures. So I believe the current despotisms, great and small, will not endure forever although new tyrannies, perhaps in areas least expected, may be attempted.

All such forecasts nowadays must make two assumptions — first no major war and second no substantial danger in the by-products of nuclear energy. If the few who expect an inter-continental war are right, or if the larger number who affirm a real danger from atomic fall-out are right, then all bets are off. In any case, we can expect a wearing and wearying tension to continue with respect to both these dangers.

Now let us consider American education in these coming twenty years. Let us begin at the beginning. Children will still be born illiterate and self-centered. They may in the years ahead learn more and faster, but each new generation will constitute in effect a fresh invasion of barbarians. Their parents will still regard them with a mixture of pride, awe, and amazement. Their teachers will still greet them with a wary and affectionate skepticism. Youth will still

be lovable and perplexing, demanding, inspiring and aggravating. They will still be all of America, — all of its undeveloped resources, all of its hopes for the future. Their names will be Smith and Jones, McGregor and Wong, O'Collins and Gonzalez, Dombrowski and Polyzoides. Their daily lessons will give proof of budding genius, of stalwart mediocrity, of limited horizons. They will come to school smelling like fresh-cut grass, dried angleworms, peanut butter sandwiches, strong soap, the absence of strong soap, bubble gum, sneakers, honeysuckle, onions, and (at more advanced ages) of mother's Chanel, dad's shaving cream, the occasional surreptitious cigarette, and the all-obliterating clove. They will be shy or boisterous and sometimes both at once. They will come from homes torn by dissension, racked by disease, stained by crime, as well as from homes of harmony, health, and civic virtue. They will adore their teachers and be angry with them, scoff at them and secretly imitate them.

No, the children will not change, but in the next twenty years there will be in American education one many-sided change. Its outstanding characteristic may be summarized in one word: Quality, —as a subtle but very important new emphasis on **quality**.

To be sure the next twenty years will also witness great increases in the **quantity** of education provided. The children are already in the elementary school in unprecedented numbers. The current birth rate proves that many more are coming. We should be grateful to the fathers and mothers of America without whose continued cooperation the teaching profession would no longer be needed. The rising tide in the secondary schools will be augmented by general prosperity. High school graduation will soon be an almost universal requirement for employment. In the colleges, the same two forces, —increasing population and increasing prosperity, —will certainly send enrollments upward. One recent estimate puts twelve million people in college by 1977.

But, even granting the problems which mounting enrollments present, I still say that our frontier for the next twenty years is quality. Basically, in our first century, the battle of quantity has been won. There are many skirmishes and rear-guard actions still to come, but the principle of extensive and universal education is firmly established.

As quantity was the primary goal for the first century, so will quality be our chief aim for the second. We have been concerned that every child get into school. Now we must ask how much each child gets out of school. Nearly all now are in school, —not in schools with small classes, full-day sessions, modern equipment, and a well-prepared career teacher, —but still in school. While we continue to defend that achievement, we shall also accept and demonstrate

an intensified concern for the excellence of the instruction provided.

To achieve excellence, many change in organization, curriculum, and methods will occur. Let me name a few of them.

First, the most urgent change for the immediate future is more time for teachers to help individual children. Quality in education requires above all else smaller classes and more classrooms. Crowded schools and half-day sessions today increase the nervous tensions of teachers and students, aggravate discipline problems; lower the standard of achievement, limit the adaptation of instruction to individual differences, and, to complete the vicious circle, hamper the recruitment of needed additional teachers. These conditions must and will be remedied in the next twenty years, not that teachers may lead an easy life, but rather that teachers may devote their energies more fully to their most essential tasks.

Perhaps it might help if we placed on all our school buildings signs reading like this:

"Jones Junior High School, constructed in 1935 to house 1400 students; current enrollment 2102."

Perhaps we should put on each classroom door a sign that would say:

"Grade III; teacher in charge —Mrs. Mary Doe; national standard of maximum class size —30; current enrollment —46; welcome, —enter edgewise."

I do not believe the general public has any adequate notion of the working conditions faced daily by millions of teachers and students, or of the way in which these conditions limit or deny the achievement of high quality education. Improvement of quality in this respect will be one of the major educational changes over the next twenty years.

Second, our search for quality in education must face the current proposals for adjusting salaries in accordance with some estimate of the quality of service rendered by each teacher. The advocates of merit rating have a plausible case. It should be evaluated by the profession with great wisdom and complete candor.

What shall we say to those who want so-called merit schedules? I think we should say something like this:

We teachers, too, want excellence and we want to reward excellence. We want an excellent teacher for every child, — not for just a few children. We think the way to achieve that is to begin with excellence in preparation and selection of all teachers. But we can't begin at the beginning until the salaries offered will attract and hold excellence. When we get salaries that will recruit the best available people, then and only then will it make sense to seek ways to give

further recognition for superior performance. Meanwhile, we shall keep an open mind regarding the discovery of practical methods to identify superior service. But we cannot compromise our goal of much higher standards for all children in favor of slightly higher standards for a few.

Third, the schools will in many ways modify what they teach and how they teach it. Some of these improvements will occur through wider application of effective methods already available and of sound knowledge already established. We shall continue to achieve greater skill, for example, in teaching the fundamentals and in preparing for useful employment. I can not predict that American education will "return to the fundamentals" for, of course, it has never left them. We can, however, say that in this important area, the steady progress of recent years will be maintained and, wherever possible, accelerated. Here, although the gains in quality in any single year, may be relatively small, over a period of twenty years they will be substantial.

A fourth aspect of quality in education during the next twenty years will be a great enrichment in all the arts, in music, in literature, in those occupations of mankind which we broadly call cultural. Since 1900 the average life span has increased by twenty years while the average work week has decreased by twenty hours. These trends will continue. Abundant leisure and a long life are no longer the lot of a fortunate few. They will be commonplace. Will these added years, these new hours of freedom from toil be spent to any real advantage? Will they be used to refine life or to cheapen it? In the coming years the schools will respond to these questions by a new emphasis on the pursuit of happiness. And by happiness, I do not mean merely the alternation of benumbed idleness with sensory excitements. I mean that self-realization which come from a purposeful and abundant life. To this end, the schools will give new attention to the stimulation of curiosity. They will never be finishing schools; they will always be beginning schools; their chief aim will not be to complete an education but to commence one, to launch young people upon a career of life-long learning. Constructive recreation and adult education will flourish. We shall think and speak less of the business of living and more of the art of living. Young children first come to schools, as a rule, eagerly responsive to beauty in color, form, design, rhythm, and harmony. In the next twenty years the schools will see that this responsiveness is nurtured, heightened, and refined.

Fifth, we shall see in the next twenty years a great improvement in the use of modern teaching materials. Books, pictures, exhibits, models, recordings, motion pictures, radio, and television, as well as other tools and devices now undiscovered or undeveloped, will be

considered just as necessary items of classroom equipment as pencil and paper, chalk and blackboard are today. Before that happens, however, we shall rid ourselves completely of the idea that the newer aids to teaching and learning will somehow solve the basic problems of education. By 1977 we shall understand that the new tools have little value except as they are wisely used by skilled teachers. It is safe to predict also that in such important and difficult fields science, mathematics and foreign languages the new tools will be found especially helpful. Having effectively disposed of the beguiling fallacy that some gadget can put high-quality education on a cheap and painless mass production basis, good teachers will be able to use the new tools with greater effectiveness.

Sixth, our schools will turn with renewed diligence and skill to the task of preparing for citizenship in the world of today and tomorrow. We shall realize, as the next few years pass, that it is not sufficient to take all the tricks in the diplomatic card game, or to win the race for inter-continental missiles, or to train more engineers than Russia if, in so doing, we fail to teach by precept and example the skills and duties of responsible citizenship. The security of our country involves much more than defending a piece of valuable real estate, complete with buildings and servants. We are engaged in the perpetual struggle for those commanding ideals that are at once more enduring and more delicate than any material things. In the next twenty years, the front line of that struggle will run through every classroom in America.

This emphasis on citizenship will be enhanced not only by the long sought requirements of the American ideal but also by the nature of the crisis in human affairs. One shrinks a little from uttering the word "crisis." I know that every generation has believed that it lives in such an age. But this time, surely, it is desperately true. Today for the first time there exists a force that can in a few hours destroy all the accumulated wealth in homes, factories and markets, all the delights of music and the arts, perhaps all of human life on this planet. Everything we cherish is subject to annihilation beyond repair, beyond replacement, even beyond remembrance. To deal with this ultimate dilemma, we need to learn and to teach a new breadth of vision, an ability to listen with humility and to speak with courage, a freedom from prejudice in all its ugly manifestations. For such purposes a minimum education simply will not do. Only the best possible education can confront the dangers and merit the opportunities of the future.

What is needed to make these and other imperative improvements in the quality of education? Better buildings and equipment? Such capital investments require money. Plenty of modern teaching ma-

terials? They do not cost very much money, but they cost more than most schools can spend right now. Answers to problems in school organization and instruction? We can get answers through educational research. And that costs money. Competent, experienced, well-prepared teachers and school administrators? Their services cost money on a scale that can compete for talent with other occupations. Smaller classes, more individual guidance, and more special classes to meet unusual needs? These require, as I have said, more teachers and more money.

The high quality education that Americans need and will get in the next twenty years can not be bought in the bargain basement.

Money is not the only necessity for better quality in education, but it is the first necessity. We could make rapid and substantial improvements in the quality of our schools right now if we had the financial resources to do as well as we already know how to do.

The Committee of the White House Conference on Education, early in 1956, said that expenditures for education should be doubled. As a practical matter, can the local tax rate upon homes, factories, and farms be doubled? Can all state income taxes and all state sales taxes be doubled?

Let us recall this much of our history: We began in this country with schools supported by local taxation. In the past half-century these local revenues have been augmented by state taxes which reach sources of wealth and income that are denied, for all practical purposes, to the localities. Substantial state support for education was not easily won. In many ways minority views of today about federal support for education parallel the fanatical addresses of yesterday, holding that the republic would rock on its foundations if the states should share in this so-called local responsibility. Now that policy has been thrust aside. It was thrust aside by the organized leadership of school people and of farsighted citizens. It was thrust aside by the requirements of the democratic ideal. It was thrust aside by the changing economic circumstances which made it necessary to broaden the area over which taxes were collected. The same trends today are operating upon a national stage.

National participation in meeting the cost of public education is as inevitable as the succession of the seasons. As the past fifty years have seen nearly all of the states accept a substantial measure of responsibility for financing education, so the next twenty years will surely extend that principle, not only within each of the forty-eight states but also to the entire nation collectively.

We have a very good case for properly financing high-quality education. That case rests, first, on

high ideals, —the stubborn conviction that every human being should have a fair chance through a high quality of education to develop to the full whatever capacities he may possess.

Our case rests also on economic realities. A few years ago, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce eloquently demonstrated that what a nation spends for its schools is truly an investment in people. Today, that great organization has apparently forgotten that truth and, in the midst of unparalleled prosperity, is leading a dogged and desperate campaign to persuade both political parties to break the platform pledges, to repudiate the President, and to deny less than half of one percent out of a \$70 billion national budget to help build some badly needed schools.

Education is still an investment in people. I doubt very much whether American businessmen really believe that better schools can be or should be financed entirely by higher state and local taxes. I feel sure, however, that we do face some short-run trouble from the current indiscriminate campaign against public expenditure of any and every kind. I am equally sure that we can and will meet this propaganda successfully. We have no one on our side except the majority of the American people. They will not long be hoodwinked by the preposterous notion that the proper financing of education would shatter the American economy.

In addition to the appeals of ethics and economics, the total case for better education has a third component. Since our government relies on popular opinion, popular opinion must be enlightened and not merely by a literacy which permits superficial acquaintance with the headlines of each passing day. Enlightenment includes habits of systematic thought, backgrounds of geography, of history, of science, of art, of arithmetic, of reading which give depth and significance to the decisions that every voter makes as he uses or neglects his franchise. Our system of government can operate properly only with universal and excellent educational opportunity. To deny that is deeply subversive of the American form of government.

Of course, hardly anyone ever comes out openly and explicitly against adequate expenditures on education. It is always a case of let's think about it longer, or why is there so much waste in education, or why don't the schools teach something other than what they are teaching, or is the discipline too difficult or too easy, or are we sure we really need to make this expenditure, or can we get by one more year, or let's do it next year or the year after, or let someone else do it, or is something else more urgent at the moment?

Such are the diversions we shall encounter as we move in the next twenty years to secure quality and equality in educational opportunity.

But the American people have been through all this before. They have always ultimately seen through whatever razzle-dazzle of opposition was thrown in the way of improving the schools which the public owns and our profession serves. They will do it again.

To enlist and inform such public support is, in my judgment, a duty of the organized profession which is second only to the duty of providing instruction. In the next twenty years, our local, state, and national organizations will be working very hard on that job. We can show the public that new levels and new solutions for the financing of better schools are imperatively demanded by new conditions and readily permitted by new levels of national productivity. Only a massive effort to advance the level of school support in the states, in the localities and in the nation can possibly meet the accumulated educational shortages from the past and put education of high excellence within the reach of every young American today.

Time is one seamless fabric. The pattern woven by the loom of history, if pattern there be, is so vast and complicated that we can never be sure whether it is repeating itself or beginning some unforeseen variation. Minutes and years and centuries are merely convenient human inventions. The clock ticks and the leaves of the calendar flutter aside, but they do not cut the pattern, —they can not halt the loom. The shape of things to come is determined not only by the past but also by every action or failure to act in the present.

The title of these remarks, as you all know, is taken from a line in *The Tempest*. The full text of Shakespeare's passage goes like this:

“What's past is prologue;

What's to come, is your and my discharge.”

The future I have tried to forecast is not inevitable. It is only possible. What happens in the next twenty years will depend on what each of us does to discharge his responsibilities in the next twenty days and twenty months. If the National Education Association of the United States remains strong and united we can provide that improved quality of education which the people of our country and of the world need, for freedom, for prosperity, for happiness, —yes, even for survival.

When this convention ends in a few minutes, it will not merely put a period at the end of a long and thrilling paragraph. It will also put a big capital letter at the beginning of the next chapter. This end-of-a-century moment is a “breather,” a chance to get our second wind, as a climber part way up the mountain glances back for a moment over the paths below, and then turns with courage and joy to assail to peaks still unconquered.

Social Security System*

By Rodolfo P. Andal

I CONSIDER it a distinct privilege and honor to be invited to speak before this group of civic and business leaders of our community on a subject matter which may bring about a sharp change in our present social order and may play a decisive role in untying the "Gordian knot" of the economic enigma which confronts our nation today. I am referring, ladies and gentlemen, to the implementation of the Social Security Act of the Philippines.

To me, this is one of the most important social legislations ever enacted in this country. Its significance and meaning to the working masses of our people equals that only of our Independence Law of 1934 and of our Constitution. While those two organic laws have given our people the realization of our dreams to have political freedom and independence, this Social Security Act intends to give our labor force security and protection against economic misery and want. It is a concrete evidence and clear manifestation of the determination of our government to give substance and realism to the social justice provision of our Constitution.

Social security is a movement of the masses which has penetrated all progressive countries in the world and is coming to the Philippines accelerated by the vigorous awakening of the masses for better livelihood and economic security after centuries of stagnancy. The decision of our government to develop social security is therefore the proper step to meet this movement by an orderly, lawful, and systematic development without bringing about radical and disastrous disturbance to our present social order of things. All progressive countries in the world have developed social security much ahead of the Philippines, and records will show that none of said countries ever backed out of it.

The Social Security Act envisions a gradual development of a system which shall be suitable to the needs of the people throughout the Philippines, and shall provide protection against the hazards of disability, sickness, old age and death, and unemployment in the future. This development is a collective effort and responsibility of society—that is, all elements and forces that bring about the political and economic stability of the community should share a hand in this effort. The individual cannot by himself alone face the hazards of life brought about by the growing complexities of livelihood in the modern world. That is why, under the law, the employer is required to contribute 3-1/2% of the earnings of his employees and the employee contributes 2-1/2% of his earnings. The government in turn contributes an initial capitalization of 1,400,000.00 plus a guarantee of any deficiency in the operation of the system and guarantees that all the commitments of the State under the law for the employees and the employer will be backed up with its financial resources.

* Speech delivered by Mr. R. P. Andal, acting chairman and administrator, Social Security System, before the Rotary Club of Manila, at the Winter Garden, Manila Hotel, on September 5, 1957, at 12:15 p.m.

The initial target of coverage is 350,000 employees working in firms employing at least 50 persons. On the second year of operation, the coverage will include about 3 million employees working in firms and establishments employing at least 6 persons. According to statistics of the Central Bank, there are around 8 million workers in the Philippines today of which 3 to 4 million are farm workers and 4 to 5 million are workers in industrial, commercial and governmental establishments. Out of these 4 million workers, there are barely 400,000 having social security protection. The ultimate target, therefore, of our social security will be to cover the balance of 3,600,000 which is the main bulk of the labor force of the nation, excluding farm workers which will eventually be absorbed by amendatory legislation.

Since we started the implementation of the law, much has been said against it than in its favor. There are 3 main objections raised by employees who have private plans with substantial semblance of social security. The objections are primarily based on the following:

Firstly, that the law will deprive employees of bigger benefits now enjoyed under their present private plans and that their integration into the Social Security System may be tantamount to deprivation of property rights without due process;

Secondly, that the benefits which the members may derive under the law are not compatible with the contributions they are giving to the System;

Thirdly, there is fear among employees that they will not derive any benefit out of their contribution to the System in case they are separated from the service before retirement; and

Fourthly, that it may adversely affect the growth of private insurance business.

There is no basis for the objection that the implementation of the Social Security Act may reduce or deprive employees of firms having existing private plans of existing benefits. Firstly, the Social Security Act provides that benefits in existing private plans will not be reduced, diminished, or eliminated. In other words, the law prohibits any decrease, diminution, or abolition of benefits now being enjoyed under private plans. So the objection that the contrary will happen has no basis of law. On the contrary, the implementation of the Social Security Act, in my way of thinking, strengthens the validity of the existing private plans, which prior to the enactment of the Social Security Act did not have official cognizance by social legislation but are purely based on bilateral or unilateral agreements between employer and employee. So, instead of deprivation, there is recognition of rights. Secondly, the Social Security Act is a social legislation which gives protection to the working masses. It being a social legislation, it takes precedence over individual rights, similar

to legislations which provide for the exercise of police power of the State. This legal philosophy has been repeatedly sustained by the Courts in the United States, England, and other democratic countries in the world.

Secondly, social security basically should have universal application in order that it can achieve stability. The existence of private plans goes with the fortune of the business or enterprises having such plans, which is exposed to the hazards of business, such as losses, termination of corporate existence, dissolution by other reasons or causes. The continuity of payment of pension to retirees under such private plans will depend on the continuity of the existence of such companies. When such companies are dissolved due to loss, bankruptcy or termination of its corporate life and other causes, then there is termination of payment of the pensions to the retirees of such private plans. But if these private plans are attached to the Social Security System, the continuity of the payment of pensions to retirees is guaranteed by the State. Example — In the government, we have the Government Service Insurance System. We are paying around P1 million retirement pay every month. A great majority of our retirees come from corporations and offices which are no longer in existence, but these beneficiaries continue to receive their pension benefits despite the dissolution of the offices from which they were retired. If the purpose and intention of social security, as universally recognized, is to give guaranteed protection for the individual worker, hence the justification of universality of social security.

The third objection against the social security act is that the benefits which the members may derive under the law are not compatible with the contribution that they give to the System. The present Social Security Act has been the product of more than three years study by leading actuaries of the government and of private insurance companies, and they are convinced that the proportion of contributions to benefits is reasonably balanced and that the system is probably the cheapest of its kind available in the Philippines.

As to the objection that an employee will not derive any benefit out of his contribution to the System in case he is separated from the service before retirement. I wish to reiterate that under such a situation, the Commission under the law may give the employee three courses of action to take:

Firstly, he can ask to continue his membership by paying the contribution of the employer and the employee;

Secondly, his contribution may be refunded with at least 2% interest compounded annually;

Thirdly, he may ask for the conversion of his credit into a paid-up insurance plan. It is therefore clear that there is no deprivation of savings or contribution of any member who may be separated from employment prior to retirement.

The fourth objection is competition by the State with private insurance business. In the United States, when social security was in process of development, there was vigorous opposition against it from private insurance companies and other financial institutions handling credit. These opponents believed that it will eliminate the expansion of such financial institutions. However, after the development of social security had started, the production of private insurance companies in the United States was not reduced but on the contrary it has increased by more than four times beyond the expectation of the proponents and opponents of social security. This paradox has been attributed to the chain reaction generated by social security along psychological lines, that is, it made the people insurance conscious and it created multiplication of reinsurance business thereon. I feel that this result or effect of social security on private insurance companies and other financial institutions that handle credit will hold true in the Philippines. This is borne by the experience of the government when it started the organization of the Government Service Insurance System in 1937. The same objections were raised by the same elements, but as we already know, my friends, production of insurance companies has grown bigger and bigger starting from the time the GSIS has been organized.

While social security has for its main purpose the protection of the workers against the hazards in life and the improvement of their social and living conditions, it has a tremendous impact in our economic development. It is a dynamic institution of people that mobilizes their savings and makes such savings available to finance the expansion of existing industries and development of new ones. This is the undeniable outcome of social security in the United States and in other countries. Our country being an undeveloped one, is in dire need of capital or funds to finance its economic development. For many years, we have relied on existing financial institutions, such as banks and insurance companies to tap local sources of funds and at the same time consistently resorted to borrowing of capital from foreign countries. Despite the availability of these sources, we are still confronted with the perennial problem of raising funds for our development. If social security as experienced by other countries in the world is a potential and dynamic institution that mobilizes the savings of the people and in turn puts these into a reservoir of funds available for productive investments, then, my friends, social security may be a missing link in solving the financing problems of our industrialization and development of our natural resources. I feel that the utilization of these savings of the people to finance our development is conducive to the existence of a strong and dependable citizenry where the people become individual participants or investors in the economic growth of our country.

I thank you.



Ang Paggamit Ng Pangatnig

Ni Benigno Zamora

ANG paggamit ng pangatnig (conjunction) sa mga pangungusap ay hindi maiiwasan, sapagka't sadyang tungkulin nito na pag-ugnayin ang mga salita, parirala at pangungusap na kinababagayang gamitan. Ang masamang paggamit ng pangatnig ay nakapagpapalabo, kung di man nakapagpapagulo, sa diwa ng pangungusap, at ang wastong paggamit ay nakapagbibigay naman ng bisa at kaayusan. May mga paraan ng paggamit ng mga pangatnig na umaalinsunod sa ilang patakaran, datapwa't ang higit na nakatutulong sa mga nag-aaral ay ang pagsasanay hanggang sa sila'y mamihasa sa pinagkaugaliang gamit ng mahuhusay managalog.

Ang mga sumusunod na paghahalimbawa ay tumutukoy sa ilang uri ng pangatnig at sa mga paraan ng wastong paggamit:

1. Ang *nang* at *upang* ay halos magsingkahulugan. Halimbawa:

Tapusin mong maaga iyang gawain mo *nang* (o *upang*) ikaw ay makapagpahinga.

Nang (o *upang*) di tayo gabihin sa daan, ay sumakay na tayo sa bus.

Mabuti pa yata'y maghintay na tayo *nang* (o *upang*) makausap natin siya.

2. Ang *at* ay karaniwan nang iniuuna sa *saka* kapag ang dalawang ito'y nagkakasama sa pangungusap. Halimbawa:

Ang tindahan sa tapat ng istasyon, *at* ang sine sa tabi ng palengke, *saka* ang malaking kamalig ng palay sa may Hulo, ay ari ng magkakapatid na Cortez.

3. Sa lalong mahabaang pag-uulat, ang *at* at ang *saka* ay nararagdagan pa ng *pati* at *sampun*. Halimbawa:

Si Berto *at* ang asawa niya, *saka* ang kanilang anak na babae, *pati*, ng kanilang ampon, *at sampun* ng mga kasambahay nila, ay magiging panauhin namin sa Linggong darating.

4. Ang *man* at *o* ay nagkakatuwangan sa ilang pagkakabuo ng pangungusap. Halimbawa:

Ikaw *man*, *o* ako, ay maaaring makarating sa Amerika kung bibigyan ng dolyar ng Central Bank.

5. Sa isang pangungusap ay maaaring magkadalawa ang *ni*. Halimbawa:

Ni ako, *ni* si Mang Teban, ay hindi makapamamagitan sa sigalot na iyan.

6. Maaaring magkadalawa ang *maging* sa loob ng isang pangungusap, o kaya'y palitan ng *o* ang huli. Halimbawa:

Maging umaga, *maging* tanghali, ay lagi ka na lamang nakahiga.

Ang pamahalaan ay para sa lahat, *maging* mayaman *o* mahirap.

7. Ang *mamaya* ay likas na pang-abay kapag tumuturing sa isang pandiwa. Sa gamit na paris ng nasa ibaba, ang *mamaya* ay gumaganap ng pagka-pangatnig. Halimbawa:

Hindi ko maintindihan ang ugali mo — *mamayang* magalit, *mamayang* matuwa. (Ang *mamaya* sa gamit na tulad nito ay kasingkahulugan ng *kung minsan*.)

8. Ang *subali* ay madalas gamitin kahit sa mga karaniwang pangungusap. Ang talagang wastong gamit nito ay kung may nauna nang pangatnig na *nguni* o *datapwa*. Halimbawa:

Ibig na ibig kong makarating sa Estados Unidos, *nguni't* wala naman akong sapat na salaping magugugol; *subali't* kung ako'y makakahiram ng mga sampung libong piso, marahil ay matuloy ako.

9. Maaaring gamitin ang *kahiman* o *kahima't* nang hindi mababago ang kahulugan ng pangungusap. Halimbawa:

Kahiman o (*kahima't*) walang salapi ay naka-auto pa rin.

10. Ang *kung* ay ginagamit sa pagtukoy sa panahong kasalukuyan; ang *pag* ay sa panahong hinaharap. Halimbawa:

Kung aalis ka, isasara mo ang pinto.

Pag nag-ingay kayo, paaalisin ko kayo rian.

11. Ang *mangyari* ay likas na anyong pawatas ng pandiwa, datapwa't nagagamit ding pangatnig. Halimbawa:

Hindi nga siya pinayagang umalis, *mangyari'y* hatinggabi na kung umuwi.

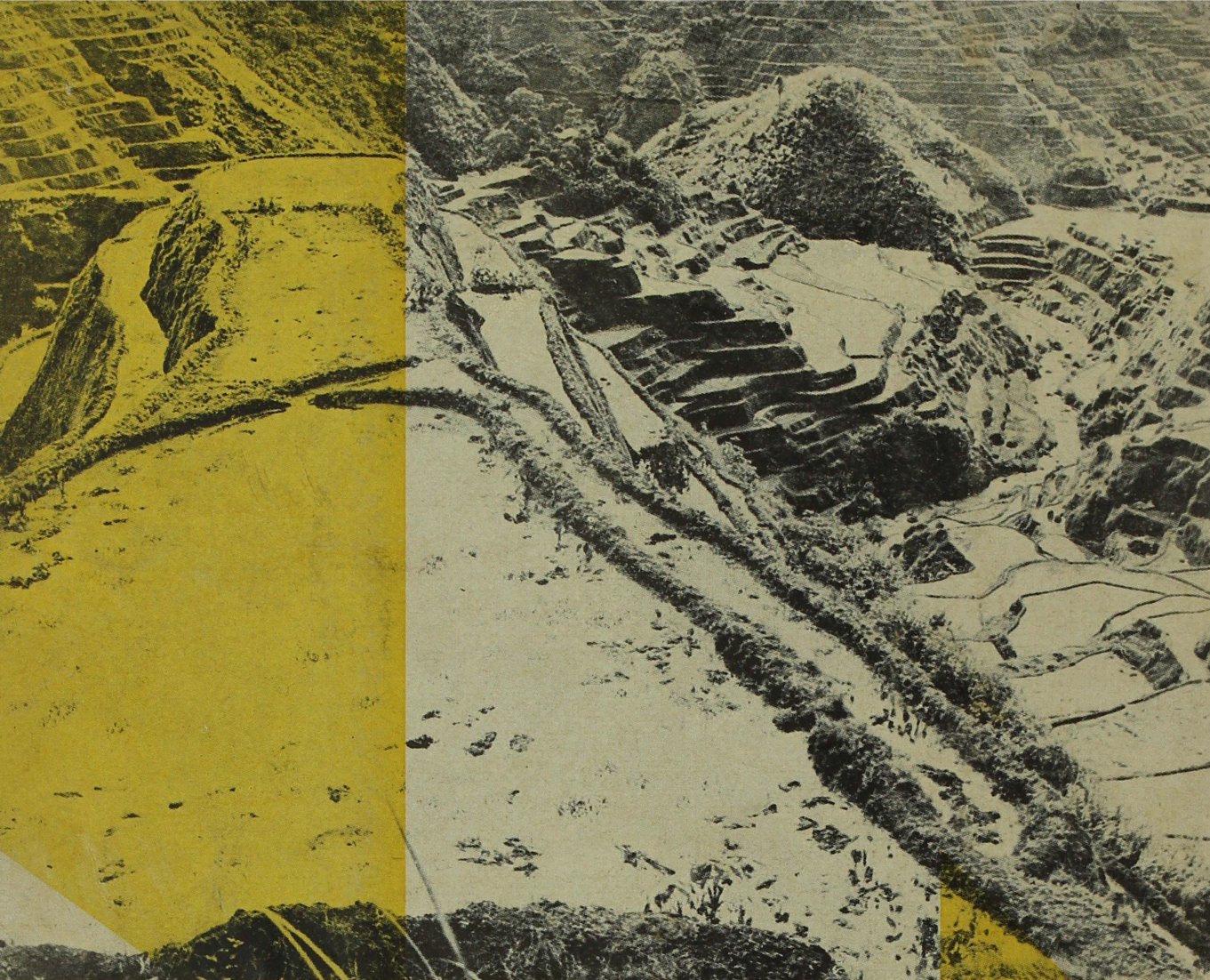
Mangyari pang di niya isasauli ay napapahiya siya.

12. Ang mga pangatnig na *yamang* at *yayamang* ay magingkahulugan. Halimbawa:

Yamang wala ka nang tiwala sa akin, di na ako pakikita sa iyo.

Yayamang ipinaubaya mo na sa akin ang bagay na iyan, huwag mo na akong pakikialaman.

(*Itutuloy*)



* An Igorot weaver demonstrates her skill in the art of weaving which has been handed down for generations dating back from pre-Spanish times.